The Dissertation Committee for Megan Melanie Cusson certifies that this is the approved version of the following dissertation:

Empirically Based Components Related to Students With Disabilities in Tier I Research Institution's Educational Administration Preparation Programs

Committee:

_____
James R. Yates, Supervisor

_____
Shernaz Garcia

_____
Norvell Northcutt

_____
Audrey Sorrells

_____
Michelle Young

Empirically Based Components Related to Students With Disabilities in Tier I Research Institutions' Educational Administration Preparation Programs

by

Megan Melanie Cusson, B.S.; M.S.W.

Dissertation

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at Austin

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Texas at Austin

May 2010

Dedication

—When I stand before God at the end of my life

I hope that I would have not a single bit of talent

left and could say, I used everything You gave me!”

-Erma Bombeck

Acknowledgments

First, I would like to thank God, who has given me the knowledge and strength to achieve what I have until this point in my life. It took me far too long to realize that He does indeed have a plan (Jeremiah 29:11) and that through Him, all things are possible (Matthew 19:26).

To my parents, Richard and Sharon Cusson, for teaching me the importance of education, to always finish what I start, to work hard, and to use my talents to their greatest ability. It is because of the two of you, and the examples you have lived your lives by, that I am able to persevere and complete the task at hand.

To my one true love and companion, Rod Lark, from scrounging through the trash compactor, to inputting thousands of e-mail addresses for me, you did whatever was needed at the time to move the process along. I know that it hasn‘t always been easy to bear with me . . . but we made it! Thank you for the sacrifices you have made so that I could complete my goal! I look forward to the time we will now have to spend together.

To my family, friends, and colleagues, thank you for your constant encouragement, your understanding, and for holding me accountable. It does indeed take the help and support of a whole ―village‖ to complete a PhD.

To the Special Education Adminers at The University of Texas at Austin (Lynn, Nicole, Mary, Joan, Liz, Lyndon, Tony, Veronica, Katherine, and Susan), it always helps to have people on your side who understand what you are going through. I especially appreciate Lynn and Nicole‘s friendship!

I would like to extend my sincere appreciation to my advisor and mentor, Dr. James R. Yates, for teaching me that there is indeed a process and that quality research cannot be rushed. Your knowledge of the fields of administration and special education is invaluable, and I thank you for sharing it with me. I hope to one day be able to teach, share, and train future teachers and administrators in the same manner that you have taught me, regarding issues involving special population groups and students with exceptionalities. You are a true champion of awareness and advocacy!

To Dr. Norvell Northcutt, thank you for your patience and for helping me to ~~"g~~et" SPSS and all of the quantitative data. Even when it took numerous ways of explaining it to me, you always made sure I understood. Your vested interest in me and my success is greatly appreciated.

To my professors, Dr. Shernaz Garcia, Dr. Audrey Sorrells, and Dr. Michelle Young, thank you for your time and investment in me. I hope to one day impact and influence my students and contribute to the field and profession, in the same manner that each of you has.

To UCEA, Dr. Michelle Young, Christopher Ruggeri, and Jennifer Ellen Cook, thank you for your support. I hope that my research has added to the discipline and will help in redesigning future preparation programs.

Finally, to Dr. Samuel L. Robertson, who started me down this path. Thank you for helping me to gain the tools needed to get through past and present situations and for teaching me how being healthy can affect all aspects of life. I will continue to apply what I have learned from you throughout my lifetime.

Empirically Based Components Related to Students With Disabilities in Tier I Research Institutions' Educational Administration Preparation Programs

Publication No._____

Megan Melanie Cusson, Ph.D.

The University of Texas at Austin, 2010

Supervisor: James R. Yates

The passage of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act in 1975 gave the public schools a clear responsibility to appropriately educate students with disabilities. This responsibility emerged from a combination of philosophy, law, policy, and procedures oriented towards the "normalization" of services to persons with disabilities. These services have developed as a general responsibility of the whole system and not as a separate component of the educational enterprise. In order to meet federal mandates, the complementary disciplines of general and special education leadership have had to integrate or link, in order to address the responsibility for the delivery of services to students with disabilities. In doing so, general education administrators have become responsible for the education and success of all students, including those students with disabilities. Yet, many of these

administrators have not been prepared or trained to serve special population groups, so their task of educating all students becomes more complex. A literature synthesis suggested 12 components that all educational administrators should be trained in to serve students with disabilities: (a) relationship building and communication; (b) leadership and vision; (c) budget and capital; (d) laws and policies; (e) curriculum and instruction; (f) personnel; (g) evaluation of data, programs, students, and teachers; (h) collaboration and consultation; (i) special education programming; (j) organization; (k) professional development; and (l) advocacy.

To determine if such training is occurring in elite institutions, 293 professors at University Council for Educational Administration member intuitions completed an online survey. Results indicated that relationship building and communication as well as leadership and vision were being taught at the highest percentages. The components of budget and capital, advocacy, and special education programming were incorporated the least. Interestingly, the results showed that the component being required learning in the institution‘s program or the professor believing the component to be essential for future administrators had little impact on whether it was taught. The major factors in professors regularly teaching a component was their expertise in the area and whether it was part of their research agenda.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The environment for the delivery of special education services has become more complex as the population of students with disabilities increases. Rapidly changing federal mandates, such as the Individuals With Disabilities Education Act (IDEA, 1997), No Child Left Behind (NCLB, 2002), and the Individuals With Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA, 2004), continue to hold school leaders more accountable for student success than in the past. Students with disabilities are now federally mandated to be included in state standardized testing, where the majority of their scores count toward a school or district's Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP). Over the past 10–15 years, the complementary disciplines of general and special education have experienced confusion and an overlapping of responsibilities for the delivery of services to persons with disabilities. Once it was the responsibility of special education as a separate discipline to educate students with disabilities, which is no longer the case. All teachers, administrators, and staff are responsible for the learning and success of each student within the school community. Therefore, the necessity of addressing the complexities and the shared or linked responsibilities between groups demands careful and appropriate actions of school leadership. Unfortunately, the preparation of leadership personnel in general and special education has often occurred in parallel or separate systems. The quest for common and specialized learning that integrates the complementary disciplines of general and special education continues (Goodland & Lovitt, 1993).

Significance of the Problem

Formal educational systems always have had a person assigned to the role of leading the educational process in schools. The title for this person might have been lead teacher, headmaster, school leader, administrator, dean, director, principal, superintendent, supervisor, and so forth. As titles are different, so are the roles. Comprehending the evolution of educational leadership requires an understanding of its history, for, as Kerchner (1988) noted, "historical periods in school administration carry labels that, with reasonable accuracy, capture the social role and underlying value prescriptions for those occupying leadership positions" (p. 381).

Recent federal mandates, laws, accountability systems, changing student demographics, and community expectations have created inconsistent, fluid, and evolving roles for school leaders. These roles suggest the need for specific or differentiated competencies by administrators. Downey (1963) explained that educational administration as a discipline asks varied questions: What exactly is involved in the act of administration (process approach); what is the job scope of the administrator (tasks approach); and what are the forces that administrators must contend with in order to run an organization (social setting approach)? With this in mind, the question remains as to the specific skills, responsibilities, and competencies that are required of administrators in order to appropriately lead an educational organization that serves all students (including students with exceptionalities).

What We Know About the Problem

The Evolution of the Field of Educational Administration

At the inception of a formal system of schooling in the United States, the school administrator was a position that was virtually nonexistent, ―or the administration of schools was hardly differentiated from teaching" (Campbell, Fleming, Newell, & Bennion, 1987, p. x). Educational administration was not a specifically developed field; instead, it emerged in the late 1860s when urban school boards could no longer manage the complexities involved in a school system. As a result, the boards decided that a leader with expertise was needed to lead and manage the school, establishing the role of school administrator (Callahan, 1966). Initially, the role was administrative, clerical, and janitorial, in the sense that the person who controlled the school made sure that it was functioning properly (Pierce, 1935). The administrator's main focus was to make sure that the school ran smoothly and to supervise or train teachers (Button, 1965).

Administrators as Applied Philosophers

William Harold Payne, Superintendent of Schools in Adrian, Michigan, believed that schools required more attention and teachers needed to be trained specifically in their content area (Culbertson, 1988). The administrator had to ensure that this teacher training occurred, yet the school administrator had no specific training to provide this training. Therefore, Payne (as cited in Culbertson, 1988) criticized universities for their exclusion of programs of study in educational leadership. Eventually he headed the first department of education in the United

States at the University of Michigan and implemented the first principal and superintendency preparation programs in the country (Poret, 1930). Payne (1886) believed that it was necessary to borrow from fields such as history, sociology, political science, physiology, psychology, ethics, and law, and then to speculate how they could be generalized to the field of education. When the American Social Science Association was founded in 1866, philosophical, social science was nonexistent. Payne proposed such a model, and the American Social Science Association ―struggled valiantly to accommodate social theory and practice to the emerging realities of an urbanizing and industrializing society" (Haskell, 1977, p vi).

Eventually two departments of educational social science were identified, in elementary education and in higher education (Culbertson, 1988). Elementary education consisted of four domains: course of study, method, discipline, and plan of organization. These major domains were capable of endless subdivision and specialization (Harris, 1886). Several books and articles on school management were produced, and university educational administration programs, such as that at Teacher's College of Columbia University in 1889, were established (Culbertson, 1988). However, in the early 1900s this trend of preparing educational leadership faded and a movement toward academic, empirical science emerged.

Administrators as Managers of Science

Various social science fields (e.g., social work, political science, business, and social science) were considered to use scientific steps of fact with data gathering, empirical generalizations, and analysis linked to research and practice (Culbertson,

1988). Research strategies were developed that helped identify the various components, issues, or problems needing solutions (Strayer, 1925). Specific scientific techniques such as the comparative study of school data, descriptive statistics, mapping, charting, and analyzing student and test data were judged as appropriate applications of science to school environments (Culbertson, 1988; Strayer, 1925). The American Educational Research Association, established in 1916, was concerned with improving education through scholarly research and the dissemination and practical application of the research results. Its research was not specific to educational leadership, but covered education in its entirety (Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 2009**).**

Administrators as Technical Experts

In 1945, The National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration held their first meeting with the intent of improving the field of educational leadership (Culbertson, 1995). In 1947, the W. K. Kellogg Foundation decided to support research in educational administration. In 1950 the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration was launched at five major research universities (The University of Chicago, George Peabody College for Teachers, Harvard University, Teachers College at Columbia University, and The University of Texas at Austin) with an additional three the following year (Stanford, Ohio State, and Oregon; Culbertson, 1995). The goal of this cooperative program was to investigate, improve, and build the field of administration as a science.

Administrators as Administrative Scientists

In 1957, the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) was formed. The UCEA, along with the University of Chicago, sponsored a national seminar entitled Administrative Theory in Education that strongly emphasized theory development and building educational administration as a science (Culbertson, 1995). At this meeting Halpin and Thompson discussed six major premises contained within the new movement, which was later referred to as the *theory movement* (Culbertson, 1988). The six major premises summarized by Culbertson (1983) are

> 1) The idea that science and theory cannot encompass what administrators ought to; 2) Scientific theories treat phenomena as they are; 3) Effective research is originated and guided by theory; 4) Hypothetic-deductive theories are the best exemplars of theory; 5) Social science use is essential in theory development and training; and 6) Administration is viewed best as a generic concept that can be generalized to all types of organizations. (p. 1)

Prior to this meeting, educational administration had been considered descriptive, using broad explanatory generalizations. Educational administration training programs were buttressed through new journals, such as the *Journal of Educational Administration, The Educational Administration Quarterly*, and *Educational Administration Abstracts,* which were important for the dissemination of products and ideas developed during the theory movement (Culbertson, 1988). Theory brought professors and their students into greater contact with social scientists, thereby facilitating the exchange of ideas and research across disciplines. These newly acquired ideas helped create a climate for inquiry and improvement of practice in educational administration (Culbertson, 1988).

Professors such as Jacob Getzel (The University of Chicago), Daniel Griffiths (The Teacher‘s College), Andrew Halpin (Ohio State University/University of Chicago) and others stressed ideas that were emphasized by earlier scholars within the Vienna Circle. The Vienna Circle began in 1923 as a seminar for philosophically trained scientists and mathematicians who were interested in discussing the philosophy of various topics, which eventually led to the movement called logical positivism (Culbertson, 1983). These early leaders in the theory movement became leading researchers for the emerging discipline of educational administration. They discussed the use and direction of the new theories and sought to expand scientific research on educational administration and administrative behaviors.

The development and application of theory continued until the early 1960s, when these efforts were recognized as too restrictive, rational, and impractical for the complexity within the field of educational administration (Culbertson, 1988). In a critical analysis, Schwab (1964) tried to explain that it was impossible to form a scientific theory in educational administration due to the diverse, numerous, and uncontrollable factors affecting it. Educational administration, as it had been previously constructed, was now in turmoil due to the emergence of new theories that continued to cause a lack of cohesion in the field. Kuhn (1962) believed in the theory of science, but also used historical data and the social aspects of inquiry to develop new ideas, assumptions, concepts, values, or practices described as paradigms (Culbertson, 1988).

In the mid-1960s education emerged at the top of political agendas, and in 1965 the Elementary and Secondary Education Act was enacted. Its goal was to give public schools oversight and funding for elementary and secondary education in the areas of professional development, instructional materials, and resources that would support certain educational programs and bring greater parental involvement (Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 1965). The education of the past was no longer considered acceptable, and changes needed to occur (Culbertson, 1969):

> The American school system came to be viewed, more than ever before, as an instrument for achieving significant national goals. Practical leaders saw in education a versatile and potentially effective weapon in the war on poverty; a force for helping to break down the walls of segregation, and a medium for resolving conflicts between the races; a ladder for the culturally deprived to climb to higher status and greater opportunity; a developer of the manpower skills and the ~~–e~~onceptual capital" necessary to fuel an ever-growing and technologically advanced economy; and a major contributor to the increasingly intricate security and defense systems of the nation. (p. 9)

However, politicians were not able to deduce the needed educational policies from existing scientific data and theories; it became evident that scientific theory had limitations in the field of school administration and the educational system as a whole.

In addition to government emphasis on education, desegregation led to a greater awareness of special interest groups or groups of people who were underrepresented or were recipients of educational inequities, such as women, students with disabilities, and students of color. The dissemination of this newfound awareness and information was incorporated into university activities and professional associations, such as the UCEA. UCEA developed various efforts to

address the concerns of these special interest groups (Culbertson, 1995): Urban and Non-Urban Commissions, the Native American Educational Administration Task Force, the General-Special Education Administration Consortium, and the Black Institutions Project. The emergence of such groups brought a belief that different contexts and areas required leadership specialization. This concern and conceptualization caused tension between those who believed in generalized versus specialized training. The majority of previous research and training of administrators did so from the generalist perspective; the new focus on areas of specialized training emerged in research and literature.

Common and Specialized Training and Competencies

Common versus specialized training had the potential to lengthen preparation programs and expand the number of students or faculty involved. Different competencies, skills, and knowledge were needed for various positions within school leadership. The debate over common versus specialized training was found at all levels of education: teacher, administrator, superintendent, and supervisor. Debates focused on whether a person should be trained as a generalist first, with common competencies, skills, and knowledge that could be applied and generalized to other positions, or trained in specific areas of specialization first (Boyan, 1963). In other words, should administrators first be trained as administrators, then receive training in additional areas, or should they be trained in specialization areas such as special education, and then later be trained as administrators? The discussion became more than academic as national associations for teachers and administrators tried to exert

more control over preparation programs by establishing guidelines for practice that would be regulated by state or federal agencies (Boyan, 1963).

Griffiths (1959) developed a theory that assumed that administration is a generalized behavior that can be found within all organizations. He concluded that within the field of administration, the focus areas remain more alike than different, and that no strong case can be made for the exclusive study of one over the other. In contrast, Culbertson (1963) suggested that half of the technical content within an administrator preparation program should be common for all, and that the remaining half should be specialized to the position for which the administrator is being trained. For instance, an elementary principal, secondary principal, special education director, director of personnel, and superintendent all would need certain common administrative technical skills and knowledge. Dependent upon their specific leadership position, administrators would need specialization to perform the job tasks pertaining to their area of expertise.

Some universities responded to these articulated needs with the inclusion of specialized knowledge in their administrator preparation programs. Many training programs continued to place greater emphasis on the application of knowledge since generic theories could be applied to all phenomena in organizations (Culbertson, 1995). Regardless, this shift toward specialized training occurred in increments. Funding was limited, and most specialized training programs operated as parallel programs, often in different academic units, separate from educational administration preparation. Culbertson (1995) observed, those who ~~r~~remained loyal to the theory

movement continued to teach content similar to that offered earlier . . . but the professors who took part in the new programs continued to use their newly acquired knowledge and skills in re-designed or existing courses"(p. 127).

The Dual System of Education

Schooling for children with disabilities was developed over a century ago to meet the needs of students who did not fit into the traditional system of education due to their disability or exceptionality. This form of education was known as special education, whereas the traditional system was referred to as general or regular education (Stainback & Stainback, 1984). Students who received special education services did so within institutions or segregated facilities where programs were provided to students with similar disabilities. As Marshman (1965) described, the special education administrator, director, or supervisor oversaw these programs:

> The Director of Special Education was an educational leader with many and varied responsibilities. The basis for his professional behavior is a body of specialized knowledge which he uses to create a general education program for specialized clientele. To do this, he interacts with the entire spectrum of the school system. This responsibility is not confined to academic areas, to curriculum, to instruction, or even to administration. He must coordinate a variety of services- psychological, vocational, transportation and the expenditure of funds; and to be properly coordinated requires his specialized knowledge . . . and organizing this job into a meaningful description is no small task. (p. 3)

The competencies, skills, and knowledge base needed by special education administrators to complete their duties and assigned roles differed, to some extent, from those of their general education counterparts. Connor (1961) stated that special education programs were a part of the larger administrative responsibility. They were

a subcategory or subsystem of general education, although special education often operated as its own unit, using separate guidelines, policies, staff, curriculum, budget, and students (Reynolds & Birch, 1982). Thus, there was a dual yet parallel system of education, where the delivery and resources differed based on the needs and classification of the child (disabled vs. nondisabled, special vs. regular or general). The dual systems existed side by side, with little linkage. Each continued to follow its own set of beliefs and views regarding the child, curriculum, technology, terminology, and so forth (D. S. Martin, 1986).

This dual system was controversial, as some felt that it was incorrect to conceptualize children into dichotomies or label them as either normal or exceptional (E. Martin, 1976). Telford and Sawrey (1981) maintained that all people have individual differences that vary along a continuum of characteristics including psychological, physical, and intellectual abilities or characteristics. Therefore, to segregate students based on their differences was an injustice that needed to be corrected.

Prior to 1975, out of the 8 million students with disabilities, an estimated half were not receiving an appropriate education, and 1 million of the students were either excluded entirely or would not go through the public school system with their age-appropriate peers (Hargan & Forringer, 1977). Therefore, the U.S. Congress enacted the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (1975). With its implementation, schools were now mandated to educate all children between 3 and 21 years of age, including those with disabilities or exceptionalities. All school-age children were

entitled to a free and appropriate public education, in the least restrictive environment, while having free and equal access to education programs. This meant that students with disabilities were now expected to be educated within the public school system with access and placement in the general education classroom, to the greatest extent possible.

Initiatives and More Mandates

Following the passage of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (1975), students with disabilities were being educated within the public schools, but in many instances, not within the least restrictive environment. Separate physical facilities in schools were designated for students with disabilities. Yet, this was never the intent of the law, for its purpose was to educate students with disabilities with their age-appropriate peers to the greatest extent possible. The law‘s goal was to allow special education to evolve from a system of segregation, low expectations, poor curriculum, and social isolation to one where integration occurred, academic and social supports were accessed, and students with disabilities were monitored in order to ensure an appropriate education (DiPaola, Tschannen-Moran, & Walther-Thomas, 2004; Turnbill & Cilley, 1999).

One effort within the Regular Education Initiative was to teach and empower principals to control all programs and resources within their school, including special education (Will, 1986). The Regular Education Initiative began to reconceptualize the process for the delivery of services to students with disabilities, replacing the dual system with a single unified system. The movement required school principals to

have greater knowledge and understanding of special education and its appropriate systems of delivery (Hirth & Valesky, 1990; Valesky & Hirth, 1992). Students with disabilities were to be added to regular education classrooms but needed support or accommodations, allowing equal access to the same curriculum as their peers. Historically, the special education administrator would have had the responsibility of implementing mandates for students with disabilities; however, the special education administrator‘s role also would change with these new conceptions. Since the new initiative involved general education classrooms, teachers, and curriculum to a greater extent, general education administrators had the primary responsibility for students with disabilities. The inclusion of students with disabilities into the general education classroom (called *mainstreaming*) had a lower chance of success if the principal, as the school‘s leader, was not knowledgeable of the educational needs of all students he supervised (Cline, 1981). The special education administrator was critical in linking specialized knowledge, skills, and experience associated with serving students with disabilities to the historical leadership acts of the general education administrator. Issues of equality, justice, fairness, values, and honesty became more prevalent and visible in the efforts to integrate students with disabilities. The roles of the administrator changed to meet a demand for greater involvement in advocacy, training, collaboration, and shared decision making. Additionally, new training requirements for general and special education administrators emerged.

A Shift in Roles and Responsibilities for General Education Administrators

Although the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (1975) was considered a success for students with disabilities, the general education system and its leadership personnel had never been specifically responsible for students with disabilities. Based upon the past separate systems, general education administrators typically had very little knowledge about disabilities, special education, or how to deliver services to students with disabilities. For example, Cline's (1981) study reported the knowledge that principals had regarding special education placement. His finding indicated that in all six competency areas studied, principals were significantly less knowledgeable compared to their special education colleagues. Additionally, Weinstein (1989) found that school administrators were not knowledgeable of referral, placement, and exit procedures from special education (due process), and as a result they did not take responsibility for the overall delivery of services to students with disabilities.

The boundaries, responsibilities, and roles of the general education administrator in relation to special education were blurred, and the distinction between the two systems overlapped (Lietz & Kaiser, 1979). Nevin (1979) concluded in her study,

> It finally appeared that general education administrators perceived that the degree of compliance with the extent of the commitment to the intent of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act can only be demonstrated by each individual school district, and can only be as great as the competencies of the personnel involved. (p. 365)

There were some early efforts to address these needs, such as the General Special Education Consortium (Yates, 1976)**.** Also, the Bureau for the Education of the Handicapped funded the dean's grants during the late 1970s and early 1980s (Grosenick & Reynolds, 1978; Weisenstein & Damien-Gall, 1978). More recent efforts to assist general education administrators in discerning their new roles and responsibilities for the delivery of special education services to students with disabilities have been made by the Council for Exceptional Children (2002), in collaboration with the National Association of Elementary School Principals (2008). Both groups have published manuals that outlined needed knowledge, competencies, and skill sets for administrators (Owings & Kaplan, 2003). However, in general these efforts have been limited in scope and impact relative to administrator preparation.

Inclusion—by Mandate

IDEA

Federal mandates have included students with disabilities in the general education setting since 1975. In order to measure whether or not students with disabilities were achieving at higher levels and to determine how well they were progressing in the general education curriculum, lawmakers implemented additional requirements within the IDEA (1997). Students with disabilities were to be included in all state and district assessments. Besides educating students in the general education setting, schools were now required to test and assess students with disabilities.

NCLB

NCLB (2002) directed states to develop grade-level standards and assessments that included students with disabilities. The purpose was to give all students the opportunity to succeed in the general curriculum, at grade level, regardless of their ability or disability. In addition, NCLB ~~–e~~nsured that all children had a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education and to reach, at a minimum, proficiency on challenging state academic achievement standards and assessments" (U.S. Department of Education, 2006, p. 1). The premise of this act was to hold schools accountable for all students' learning. By holding each school individually responsible for what was being taught and learned, the government's goal was to ensure equal education for all students regardless of their race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, language, or disability. By requiring schools to include all students in their accountability systems and report annually on their performance, lawmakers hoped to improve instruction and improve outcomes (knowledge acquisition, graduation, and life satisfaction) for every student, including those with disabilities (Ysseldyke et al., 2004). NCLB forced teachers to no longer discriminate in their expectations for student achievement. Since most students with disabilities were now required to take the same tests and receive the same passing scores as their nondisabled, grade- and age- appropriate peers; the exposure, expectations, and curriculum had to be comparable for all student groups and populations.

Reauthorized IDEIA

The requirements mandated in NCLB were reinforced in IDEIA (2004), the reauthorization of the IDEA. Its provisions required states to continue to assess and include students with disabilities in statewide and district testing and to provide accommodations or modifications if stated in the student's Individualized Education Plan (IEP). This addition to the reauthorization stated that each state and school now also had to report the number of students with disabilities at the same frequency and levels of performance as all students testing. Plus, states were required to develop alternative assessments for those students who were unable to participate at grade level in the general testing environment (IDEIA, 2004). Additionally, the accountability system, known as Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP), was implemented to ensure that high expectations were set and students with disabilities were no longer segregated from the general education curriculum.

AYP

AYP is the term used in NCLB (2002) to explain whether a school has met state reading, math, and science goals in the specified area. Through AYP, major stakeholders in education (parents, community leaders, and school-district personnel) ostensibly would gain a more objective means of identifying areas of strength and areas needing improvement (Simpson, LaCava, & Graner, 2004). The federal government's guidelines state that a school has met AYP when 95% of all students in the school population have been tested and (a) the results of the state standardized assessments are disaggregated and reported by subgroup (African American, Anglo,

Hispanic, students with disabilities, English language learners, and students within the lower socioeconomic range), and (b) the students in each subgroup have met or exceeded statewide objectives and criteria for passing in reading, math, and science (NCLB, 2002).

These criteria raised the bar substantially for all students. Yet, Simpson et al. (2004) noted expectations that ―the proficiency requirements of NCLB would be a particularly difficult hurdle for the approximately 6.6 million students who were eligible to receive special education services, and the educators who are responsible for their learning" (p. 68). The issue of how to address these requirements was difficult, and states, districts, individual schools and administrators continue to search for an effective response.

Exemptions. Although NCLB (2002) required that all students' (including those with disabilities) assessment results be included in the data used to determine AYP, there was an exception to the rule. One percent of the total population of students with the most severe cognitive disabilities (such as students with mental retardation, traumatic brain injuries, autism, etc.) could receive reasonable accommodations or modifications, or would be given alternative assessments to ensure participation in statewide testing. In May 2005, the U.S. Department of Education increased this number an additional 2% for students who showed persistent academic disabilities. Students within either of these groups could receive test modifications and be counted as passing for AYP purposes (U.S. Department of Education, 2006).

Consequences for not meeting AYP. If a school did not meet AYP, the following range of consequences from Year 1 to Year 5 could occur: a notification to the student‘s parents, an option for the student to attend a school not in need of improvement (school choice), and possibly the restructuring or reconstitution of the school (National Education Association, 2004). The administrator was ultimately the person held accountable at the campus level for student progress and learning; his or her job could be at stake if the campus did not meet AYP and was labeled a school in need of improvement.

What This Means for Administrators

These new mandates and expectations put greater responsibility and accountability on the general education school administrator, who was now held accountable for educating, assessing, evaluating, and helping all students to be successful, including those with disabilities. This transformation has affected the skills, general knowledge base, and competencies needed by administrators to be effective leaders. These new competencies became ~~–a~~ cluster of related knowledge, skills, and attitudes that affect a major part of one‘s job that correlates with performance on the job and can be measured against well-accepted standards, and that can be improved via training and development” (Lucia & Lepsinger, 1999, p. 1). Therefore, it was crucial to identify and decipher the specific competencies needed by general education administrators to be effective leaders and appropriately serve students with disabilities.

The Purpose of This Study

The purpose of this study was to describe to what extent 12 empirically identified components related to special education are taught in educational administration programs within UCEA institutions. The study also was designed to deduce the variables that influence or impact the identified components and to determine whether these critical components identified within the empirical literature correspond to what is currently being taught to preservice administrators within preparation programs.

Research Questions

Do leading doctorate-granting institutions include in their preparation of educational leadership personnel, empirically identified components critical to serving students with disabilities? To answer this overarching question, this study was guided by six research questions:

1. Are the components a required learning set in the institution‘s degree or certificate program?

2. Are professors knowledgeable of, or experts in, the components?

3. Do professors feel that the components are essential for preparing future educational administrators and leaders?

4. Do the classes routinely taught by professors include the identified components?

5. Does a requirement to include the components increase the likelihood that the professor will include them within the courses they routinely teach?

6. Is there an association between the classes routinely taught by the professors and the inclusion of the identified components in their courses?

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE SYNTHESIS

This chapter presents a synthesis of scholarly literature that (a) deduces the critical components needed by both general and special education administrators, in order to serve students with disabilities and (b) presents a new, unified conceptual model for preparing all educational leaders based on the identified components. This synthesis of empirically based literature was conducted using a three-step process: (a) identifying relevant studies, (b) grouping the studies into methodological and administrator group categories, and (c) synthesizing the results.

Theoretical Framework

The Competency Model

The deconstruction of competence into component elements has been occurring for many years. According to Leach (2008), one of the first duos to debate the necessary component elements needed by administrators began in Victorian England, between Matthew Arnold (poet and school inspector) and Robert Lowe (vice president of the country‘s Education Department and the founder of the three Rs of reading, writing, and arithmetic). Lowe believed that schools should be paid based on an examination that each student took regarding their competence in the three Rs. However, Arnold strongly opposed this idea. According to Leach, Arnold believed that this type of assessment would take away from the educational system as a whole, for people would only be looking at the competence within the three Rs and would

not be focused on the additional components that were part of the overall educational system. This debate still appears in today's discussions of accountability.

The modern-day competency movement was founded by McClelland (1973), who proposed an alternative for intelligence testing with criterion references; McClelland claimed that these tests were irrelevant to the workforce and invalid as a whole (Clark, 2008). While working for the U.S. State Department, McClelland developed competencies for each job position. In order to organize these competencies, he decided that he should interview and observe expert performers in the field to determine the behaviors they displayed on the job, and he then would generalize the personal behaviors and attributes to the specific position (Clark, 2008). Although the State Department did not support this conceptual model, many other large organizations did; they used it as a guide in the selection of new staff and in the professional development of current staff. Since few employees will be expert performers in all competency areas, this model helped to train and develop employee skills in those areas where they were not expert performers (Clark, 1999). Additionally, competency models have been developed for newly designed jobs where few people have experience, or where the models describe emerging and anticipated skill requirements, rather than those skills that were effective in the past (Mansfield, 2000).

The Current Use of Competency Models

Now, 35 years after the development of the first competency model, numerous organizations and Fortune 500 companies have found broad appeal in its concept and

use. Sharp Electronics has used it to develop people, select top performers, and manage on-the-job performance (Montier, Alai, & Kramer, 2006). The Association of Schools of Public Health developed and settled on 12 competency domains that provide the basis for organizing the curriculum in the classroom and in formal didactic settings (Leach, 2008). Additionally, the National Association of Orthopedic Nursing developed a leadership competency model that presents critical competencies to be used in leadership selection. The model describes a skill set necessary for success at the national level, encompassing five domains: (a) personal mastery, (b) interpersonal effectiveness, (c) strategic thinking, (d) stewardship, and (e) resource management (McWilliams, 2007). These organizations have come to the realization that finding the right person for the job is difficult. Hiring through a systematized and designed approached (based on a competency model) can improve the success rate of future employees and can identify current competency areas where these employees may need additional training or professional development (Grigoryev, 2006).

The assumption is that there must be an awareness of all competencies that are needed to perform a job effectively and at its highest level. The concept applies to all professional fields: business, nursing, public health, and education. Since educational administrators are being held accountable for the success of each student, they must be competent in their job roles and responsibilities. The new roles, responsibilities, and accountability system of the administrator‘s job have begun to impact the field in the areas of time, shortages of qualified administrative candidates, standards for program preparation, and content of preparation programs.

Time

Due to recent legislation, administrators now spend significant time responding to duties related to special education. As the number of students receiving special education services has increased, duties and roles of the general education administrator have changed in response to legislation such as IDEA (1997), IDEIA (2004), and NCLB (2002). Therefore, the delivery of services to students with disabilities has required more of the general education administrator‘s time. Raske (1979) and Hill‘s (1993) studies found that 12–15% of the general education administrator‘s time was allocated towards special education duties, such as referrals, IEP meetings, budgets, curriculum, personnel, transportation, and in-service meetings. Recent mandates such as NCLB have increased these percentages to 21% of a general education administrator‘s time being spent on special education activities (Cruzeiro & Morgan, 2006). This means that almost a quarter of the general education administrator‘s time is spent on roles and responsibilities associated with serving students with disabilities. This percentage of time commitment is huge, but not inappropriate, as students with disabilities account for approximately 14% of the U.S. student population (Sable & Hill, 2006). The Institute for Educational Leadership (IEL, 2000) reported that administrators must make their top priority leadership for learning; however,

> principalship as it is currently constructed—a middle management position overloaded with responsibilities for basic building operations—fails to meet this fundamental priority. . . . The demands placed on principals have changed, but the profession has not changed to meet those demands and the tension is starting to show. (p. 3)

The delivery of services to students with exceptionalities, such as those found within special education, were once formerly considered specialized and the exclusive responsibility of special education administrators. Yet, all general education administrators are now expected to manage these duties. Unfortunately, administrators often have not been prepared properly to handle this charge and may feel overwhelmed by the required tasks.

Shortages in the Field of Educational Administration

Although the numbers of individuals that currently hold licensure or endorsements in administration outweigh the number of vacancies, shortages have been reported (Educational Research Service, 1998, 2000; IEL, 2000). An implication of this dichotomy is that current licensure requirements do not meet the demands of practice for educational leadership. In addition, the National Association of Elementary School Principals (as cited in Doud & Keller, 1998) predicted that by the end of 2008, approximately 40% of the current 93,000 administrators would retire. It appears that the added responsibilities, the ever-changing roles, and new high-stakes accountability standards encompassed within the job of the administrator result in administrators leaving or deter qualified candidates from entering the field. The intrinsic rewards that come with the job may not be apparent (Goodwin, Cunningham, & Childress, 2003), so the field of educational administration may have to be ―sold" to outstanding teachers and leaders (Mann, 2002). Unfortunately, in order to fill vacancies, some cities (such as New York and Chicago) have employed as administrators persons with limited training or uncertified professionals from outside

the field of education (Bowser, 2001; Konkol, 2001). These atypical selection processes make it even less likely that these administrators would have the specialized training related to serving students with disabilities.

This shortage of qualified administrators obviously impacts the caliber of leadership within the school. Empirical literature has established that the administrator is the key to an effective school and is pivotal for the improvement of educational opportunities for all students, including those with disabilities (Boyer, 1983; DiPaola & Walther-Thomas, 2003; Educational Research Service, 2000; Goodwin et al., 2003; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; IEL, 2000). Therefore, it is crucial that competent administrators lead U.S. public schools. Standards or competencies for leadership preparation must address these concerns.

Preparation Program Standards

University preparation programs for general and special education administrators have varied over the years. In 1996 the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO), state agencies, and numerous professional organizations suggested that uniform standards for leadership should be established. In response, the Educational Leadership Constituent Council supported the design and implementation of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Council (ISLLC) standards (Green, 2001). A ~~"d~~defined set of standards, components, [and] competencies is a hallmark of a true profession, and the practice of creating and supporting a competency model is a key role of a professional association" (Bingham, as cited in P. Davis, Naughton, & Rothwell, 2004, p. 28). Thus, within the ISLLC framework, a common set of

standards were developed that can be generalized to almost all formal educational leadership positions (ISLLC, 1997, 2008). Although ISLLC recognized that different roles require varied leadership, common aspects are associated with the role of all leadership positions (CCSSO, 1996). After initial ISLLC standards were developed, several manuals were developed and published related to ISLLC standards. Following their lead, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the National Policy Board for Educational Administration, which consists of 10 national administrator stakeholder organizations, developed their own Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership (Davis & Jazzar, 2005; National Association of Secondary School Principals [NASSP], 2005). The goal of these standards was to help professionalize the field of education and better prepare educators and administrators for the roles and responsibilities they would face and the skills and knowledge for which they are held accountable.

Interestingly, these measures and current standards have had limited content or requirements specifically related to serving students with disabilities. According to Mirabile (1997), standards and

> competency models provide potentially valuable information, but they are useless if there is no coherent and systematic implementation strategy for leveraging the information. Experience has shown that it is often the lack of strategic implementation and necessary support structures that lead to the inevitable collapse of new programs, direction, or initiatives that once held promise. (p. 77)

With this in mind, it is evident that having standards in place is not sufficient. Providing support structures and strategic implementation is the key to change and expanding current preparation programs.

Preparation Programs

Educational leadership preparation programs have been instituted since the 1880s (Payne, 1886). Theories, conceptual frameworks, curricula, instruction, and organizational structures have changed or been modified to some degree, but no major paradigm shifts have occurred within the field. Therefore, many university educational leadership preparation programs have continued to use a traditional model of development, where the administrator selects the model based on professional interest or career goal (Daresh, 2002; Fenwick & Pierce, 2002). In elite research institutions this model appears to focus on research, is institutionally designed, and may be perceived to lack specifics useful to the practitioner. For instance, at The University of Texas at Austin (2004), the 2005–2007 graduate catalog included only two courses within the educational administration section regarding diverse student populations: Special Populations and Class, and Race and Gender in Schools. However, program leaders must have realized the importance of training administrators in greater depth about other student populations, for their revised Principalship Program of Study includes the required courses: Special Ed: Procedures and Processes for Administrators; ELL/Topics in Bilingual Education; Special Populations; and Fortunately, Class, Gender, and Race in Schools (University of Texas at Austin, 2009). Although admirable that so many courses on diverse

student groups are required, it is more important to insure that what is being taught to future administrators is linked directly to what they will experience daily as a practitioner.

When P. L. 94-142 (Education for All Handicapped Children Act, 1975) altered the roles of general and special education administrator, and NCLB (2002) mandated that every administrator would be accountable for all student success, deficiencies within this stagnant, traditional, preparation system became more evident. A dual or parallel system of leadership preparation was no longer acceptable, and the existing preparation system left many administrators untrained or unprepared for the roles, responsibilities, and duties for which they were now responsible. Although a change in the conceptualization of the administrator was occurring, the nature of preparation programs was slow to respond, for institutions of higher education lacked the structure or organizational system to implement all of the needed changes (Grogan & Andrews, 2002). Lashley and Boscardin (2003) stressed the need for reform in administrator training, recommending,

> Not only must training programs for general education administrators include special education competencies in the knowledge base, but special education administration training must also include general education administration competencies. Special education administrators must also have the competencies needed to provide special education professional development opportunities to their general education administration colleagues. (p. 9)

Numerous changes within educational organizational systems have limited the shelf-life of standards or competency models. In education, frequent reauthorizations of mandates or redesign of school programs can change jobs roles quickly and make

existing job descriptions and competency models obsolete (Mansfield, 2000). During a public agenda meeting, Farkas, Johnson, Duffett, Foleno, and Foley (2001) asked principals and superintendents what they thought about educational leadership preparation programs in relation to their job duties and responsibilities. Sixty-nine percent of principals and 80% of superintendents believed that the typical preparation programs were not in sync with what currently is needed to lead a school or district. Plus, more than 85% of both groups felt that an overhaul in leadership preparation programs would help improve the overall leadership within schools.

Some educational administration faculty members and professional organizations concur that the traditional model needs restructuring and the institutional structure of the university has become complacent and slow to respond to the needs of the current educational era (Lashway, 2003; Murphy, 2001; Norton, 2002). University preparation programs cannot remain complacent in their training of future administrators, as administrators are held accountable for the success of all students. Preparation programs must be responsible for the educators they are producing. Precisely how the redesign and unification of preparation programs should take place has not been determined. Yet, in order for substantive change to occur, all entities and stakeholders within the school enterprise must be willing to collaborate and act (Young, Peterson, & Short, 2002). Fortunately, professional organizations such as the UCEA continue to set higher standards for university programs and work towards the continual improvement and redesign of educational administration preparation programs.

The UCEA

According to the current UCEA website and informational pages updated in 2009, the UCEA is a consortium of doctoral granting institutions committed to advancing the field of educational administration through research and the preparation of educational leaders. The purpose is (a) to promote, sponsor, and disseminate research on the essential problems of schooling and leadership practice; (b) to improve the preparation and professional development of educational leaders and professors; and (c) positively to influence local, state, and national educational policy (UCEA, 2009).

UCEA scholars are

> committed to the improvement of leadership and policy that supports the learning and development of ALL children. UCEA actively initiates and leads educational reform efforts through its high quality research and preparation programs. UCEA institutions work collaboratively with schools and educational agencies to positively influence local, state, and national educational policy. UCEA constantly questions and reevaluates its practice and beliefs to ensure its effectiveness and relevance. (UCEA, 2009)

UCEA's goal is to help update, improve, and redesign institutional preparation programs for educational leadership. Universities approved for institutional membership in UCEA have documented positions as top institutions in the field. Therefore, the goal of the research was to determine if these leading institutions include in their preparation programs content that prepares educational leaders to serve all student populations, including those with disabilities.

Literature Search Procedures

First, an online search of the publication years 1955–2008 occurred. The following online electronic databases were searched for publications including books, reports, guides, dissertations, and peer-reviewed articles and other professional studies: Academic Search Premiere, Educational Resources Information Systems (ERIC), Google Scholar, Web of Science (Social Science Citation Index, Arts and Humanities Citation, Science Citation Index), PsychINFO, and Dissertation Abstracts International. The dates 1955–2008, were chosen since in 1965, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act was mandated, which dramatically changed the landscape of the educational system. The search dates for the Web of Science ranged from 1975 to present, since this site was not established prior to 1975. The search included various combinations of the following keywords: *principals, school principals, special education, skills, competencies, knowledge, students with disabilities, administrator*, and *school administrator*.

The search of keywords yielded over 2,000 hits. An initial level of review by the researcher resulted in the identification of 76 articles, 8 briefs, 6 dissertations, 2 handbooks, and 10 books. Additionally, a hand search of *Exceptional Children*, the *Journal of Special Education* and the NASSP yielded 3 more articles; a review of their references yielded 8 more articles and a journal series. In order to reduce the literature to that relevant to the specific topic, specifications were applied to identify those studies that were empirically based. Seven criteria were used: (a) had publication date 1955–2008; (b) were published in English; (c) were in peer-reviewed

journals; (d) reported empirical research (quantitative, qualitative, or mixed method); (e) took place within the U.S. education system; (f) were explicitly related to general education, special education, or both; and (g) reported competencies, skills, or and knowledge needed by administrators.

Interestingly, after these criteria were applied, only 18 empirical studies were identified. One study, Wigle and Wilcox (1999, 2002), was duplicated within the 18 studies; the same participant answers (special education directors and general education administrators regarding special education) were used in both articles. For this reason, although 18 studies were identified, only 17 were synthesized. Technical reports, guides, briefs, handbooks, articles, books, or dissertations that did not meet the stated criteria were omitted but were used to provide background information or references. The literature review process used in this study suggests that there is a large body of literature that discusses leadership preparation. However, most of this work is not empirical, but philosophical, conceptual, advocacy, and general discussion on issues and problems within the field of educational leadership and preparation.

Categories of Studies

Methodology

Of the 17 empirical studies synthesized, Table 2.1 presents the breakdown of the methods used within each: 12 were quantitative, 4 were qualitative, and 1 used a mixed-method approach. The qualitative and mixed-method studies were mainly conducted through interviews, with Hebert and Miller (1985) adding observations.

One study, Gibbs and Slate (2003), used a meta-ethnographic design. However, regardless of the methodology used, each study had a unique way of identifying the competencies to be evaluated and used different research instruments.

Table 2.1

Individual Studies and Methodologies Used

Methodology	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Quantitative				X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X
Qualitative	X	X	X										X				
Mixed-method														X			
Interview	X	X											X	X			
Observation													X				
Meta-ethnography			X														
Survey				X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X
Based on prior works		X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X		X	X	X		X	
Reviewed by ~~–e~~xperts"					X						X		X	X	X		X
Literature based	X								X						X		
Researcher developed	X					X					X					X	
Pilot testing	X										X						X

Note. The numbers (1–17) represent the following studies: 1= Gorton and McIntyre (1978); 2= Portion, Schneider, DeArmond, and Gundlach (2003); 3 = Gibbs & Slate (2003); 4 = Lietz and Kaiser (1979); 5 = Nevin (1979); 6 = Raske (1979); 7 = Wigle and Wilcox (2002); 8 = Cruzeiro and Morgan (2006); 9 = Wakeman, Browder, Flowers, and Ahlgrim-Delzell (2006); 10 = Stevenson-Jacobson, Jacobson, & Hilton (2006); 11 = Mackie and Engel (1955); 12 = Newman (1970); 13 = Hebert and Miller (1985); 14 = Burrello and Zadnik (1986); 15 = Rude and Sasso (1988); 16 = Gillung, Spears, Campbell, and Rucker (1992); 17 = Arick and Krug (1993).

Administrator Categories

Table 2.2 displays each study, the year published, and the administrator group the study represented. The 17 empirical studies were broken into three distinct groups: (a) general education administrator competencies, (b) general education

administrator competencies regarding special education, and (c) special education administrator competencies.

Table 2.2

Studies by Administrator Group and Methodology

Methodology	General education administrator competencies	General education administrator competencies regarding special education	Special education administrator competencies
Qualitative	1. Gorton & McIntyre, 1978 2. Gibbs & Slate, 2003 3. Portion, Schneider, DeArmond, & Gundlach, 2003	—	13. Hebert & Miller, 1985
Quantitative	—	4. Lietz & Kaiser, 1979 5. Nevin, 1979 6. Raske, 1979 7. Wigle & Wilcox, 2002 8. Cruzeiro & Morgan, 2006 9. Wakeman, Browder, Flowers, & Ahlgrim-Delzell, 2006 10. Stevenson-Jacobson, Jacobson, & Hilton, 2006	11. Mackie & Engel, 1955 12. Newman, 1970 15. Rude & Sasso, 1988 16. Gillung, Spears, Campbell, & Rucker, 1992 17. Arick and Krug, 1993
Mixed method	—	—	14. Burrello & Zadnik, 1986

For example, Raske's (1979) study examined the role or competencies needed by general education administrators responsible for special education. It is interesting to note that all of the studies completed for general education administrators were qualitative, and 2 of the 3 were completed after the passage of NCLB (2002) and IDEIA (2004). The studies related to general education administrator competencies regarding special education began in the late 1970s (after the implementation of P. L.

94-142 in 1975) and continued through 2006, with all quantitative. Studies focused upon special education administrators‘ competencies used all three research methods (quantitative, qualitative, and mixed), but it is especially important to note that no new empirical studies have been completed in this specific area since 1993. Perhaps the Regular Education Initiative of the late 1980s brought a perception that the special education administrator was less critical, replaced by the general education administrator. Additionally, the dates of publication for the 17 empirical studies are significant; all but 1 of the studies (Mackie & Engel, 1955) took place after the first relevant federal legislation was enacted in 1975.

Synthesis

The coding and synthesis of the data occurred in two parts. The initial part looked at the frequencies of competencies identified in the 17 studies. The second part broke down individual studies by research method and identified competencies that were reported within the studies‘ survey instruments as important or significant. Results for each section were initially analyzed separately but were later aggregated by competency, frequency, and the competencies judged most important across all studies.

Part 1: Identification of Competencies in All Studies

Coding of competencies. A competency was defined as the development of expertise and execution of stated functions required within a specified field (Sternberg, 2007). Keywords interchangeable to competency were *skill, responsibility, duty, proficiency, function, role,* or *disposition*. In order to identify the

competencies needed by general and special education administrators, each of the 17 studies was examined by the researcher**.** The researcher read through each study, during two separate sittings, and formulated a list of any competency mentioned, discussed, or stated as needed by educational administrators to perform their job. This initial process generated a list of 82 competencies, which are found in Appendix A.

Miles and Huberman (1994) recommended a simplification of data by reduction. Therefore, the initial 82 competencies were grouped into areas of commonality by the researcher to reduce the competency list. For instance, district initiatives, district policies, federal laws and policies, laws and policies, and state laws and policies were combined into the one category of laws and policies; budget, develops capital, and teaching resources were combined into one category of budget and capital. At the end of this process, the 82 competencies were reduced and clustered by areas of commonality into 32 competencies, which are identified in Table 2.3.

Rank ordering. After the final 32 competencies were determined, each of the 17 empirical studies was reviewed again by the researcher. Table 2.3 shows if any of the 32 competencies previously identified within the text of the study also were found within the study‘s survey instrument. If so, then an ―X‖ was placed next to the competency on the chart. If the competency was not mentioned within the survey instrument, then a blank space appeared on the chart. Competencies were marked with an X within the competency area and study number, for each study in which they were applicable. In the end, the Xs for each individual competency were summed for

the total number of times it was found in the survey instrument. The competency results were placed in descending rank order. Structuring the data in this manner would allow the reader to look at any competency and know which studies included it in their survey instrument. In addition, this type of display allows the reader to identify the frequency with which the competency was identified in the individual studies. Each competency had the opportunity to be marked 17 times on the chart; however, the greatest number of times that any competency was identified in the studies‘ survey instruments was 15 (evaluation of data, programs, and student achievement), and the smallest was 2 (knowledge on the history of special education). The cut-off score of 10 or higher was used by the researcher to determine importance or significance. This number was chosen because it signifies the 60th percentile, meaning that the competency was found in 60% or more of the 17 studies evaluated.

Table 2.3

Aggregated Analysis of Competencies for all Participant Groups

	General ed. admin.			General ed. administrators regarding special ed.							Special ed. administrators							
Competency	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	Sum
Evaluation of data, programs, teachers, & students	X	X	X	x	X		x	x	x	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	15
Laws & policies	X	X	X		X		x	x	x	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	14
Relationship building & communication	X	X	X	x			x	x		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	14
Budget, capital		X	X		X	x	x		x	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	13
Curriculum & instruction	X	X	X			x	x	x	x		X	X		X	X	X	X	13
Leadership & vision	X	X	X		X		x			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	13
Personnel	X	X	X	x	X	x				X	X	X		X	X	X	X	13
Collaboration & consultation	X		X				x	x		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	12
Professional development	X	X	X	x		x	x			X	X	X			X	X	X	12

	General ed. admin.			General ed. administrators regarding special ed.							Special ed. administrators							
Competency	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	Sum
Special ed. delivery system				x	X	x	x		x	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	12
Assessment, testing			X	x	X		x	x	x		X	X			X	X		10
Advocacy	X	X	X		X		x	x	x				X			X		10
Inclusion & interventions							x	x	x	X	X	X		X		X	X	9
Operations, facilities	X	X	X	x	X	x					X	X	X					9
Climate, safety, morale	X	X	X				x				X			X		X		7
Counsels	X		X	x							X	X	X			X		7
Mediation, conflict resolution					X		x	x		X			X	X	X			7
Organization	X		X				x			X	X	X				X		7
Knowledge of research					X						X	X		X	X	X		6
Technology				x	X		x			X					X	X		6
Accountability									x		X	X			X		X	5
Discipline							x	x	x								X	4
Writes, helps develop IEP											X	X				X	X	4
Knowledge of child development											X		X	X		X		4
Knowledge of current trends						x					X			X		X		4
Mentoring & modeling	X	X	X								X							4
Special ed. referrals									x		X	X					X	4
Transition planning					X		x	x			X							4
Ethics							x	x	x									3
Student records				x		x											X	3
Definitions of disabling conditions									x		X	X						3
History of special ed.											X		X					2

Note. IEP = Individualized Education Plan. The numbers (1–17) represent the following studies: 1= Gorton and McIntyre (1978); 2= Portion, Schneider, DeArmond, and Gundlach (2003); 3 = Gibbs & Slate (2003); 4 = Lietz and Kaiser (1979); 5 = Nevin (1979); 6 = Raske (1979); 7 = Wigle and Wilcox (2002); 8 = Cruzeiro and Morgan (2006); 9 = Wakeman, Browder, Flowers, and Ahlgrim-Delzell (2006); 10 = Stevenson-Jacobson, Jacobson, & Hilton (2006); 11 = Mackie and Engel (1955); 12 = Newman (1970); 13 = Hebert and Miller (1985); 14 = Burrello and Zadnik (1986); 15 = Rude and Sasso (1988); 16 = Gillung, Spears, Campbell, and Rucker (1992); 17 = Arick and Krug (1993).

General education versus special education competencies. Table 2.3 displays general education administrator competencies, itemized in Studies 1–3,

compared to special education administrator competencies, itemized in Studies 11–17. A competency found in both types of studies (general or special education administrators) was considered a common competency needed by both sets of administrators. A competency found only in the special education administrator studies was coded a specialized competency and one only needed by the special education administrator. For instance, special education delivery system was only found in the special education administrator studies, so it was considered a specialized competency. Using this criterion, of the 32 competencies identified, 16 were common and 15 specialized. One competency (ethics) was not marked in either administrator category.

Out of the 15 competencies considered specialized, only 6 were specifically related to special education: (a) IEP team, (b) special education referral process, (c) transition planning, (d) knowledge of disabling conditions, and (e) the history of special education. The remaining 9 competencies could be considered common, for all educational administrators would need knowledge in these areas: (a) discipline, (b) accountability, (c) mediation, (d) technology, (e) student records, (f) inclusion, and (g) knowledge of child development, (h) research, and (i) current trends. It is difficult to determine why ethics was not marked in either category. Would not both general and special education administrators need to be ethical? It may be that areas that appear common are so linked to leadership that they have been accepted or assumed and not empirically investigated. The results of the analysis supported the notion that special education was the complementary discipline to general education. The

competencies appeared separate from one another, while working within the educational system.

Specialized competencies compared. It appears that special and general education administrators have two separate sets of competencies needed to perform their jobs. However, the general education administrator competencies are all common competencies. Take the case of the competency of inclusion and interventions, which although not found in any of the general education administrator studies was found in 4 studies of general education administrator competencies regarding special education and 5 special education administrator competency studies. This comparison shows that apparently general education administrators find the competency just as valuable and needed as special education administrators. One exception is the competency of knowledge of child development, which was limited to the special education administrators group of studies. The reason for this cannot be determined, particularly since the knowledge of child development seems a competency that all persons working with children would need to be familiar with, although this is not indicated within these studies.

The competencies of the general education administrator, itemized in Studies 1–3, were combined with the competencies needed by general education administrators regarding special education, itemized in Studies 4–10. Then, these combined data were compared to those competencies needed by special education administrators, itemized in Studies 11–17. The final data no longer reflected a dual system of common versus specialized competencies. Instead, a unified system was

presented where 29 of the 32 competencies (excluding history of special education, knowledge of child development, and writes or helps develop IEPs) were shared by all general and special education administrator groups. This new conceptualization of common and specialized competencies means special education administrator competencies are a subset of general education administration competencies. Table 2.3 presents these data.

This new conceptualization is extremely significant, for when the two systems were forced to merge in the late 1980s to early 1990s, roles and responsibilities shifted for both the general and special education administrator. To ensure the delivery of appropriate services for students with disabilities, administrators needed to advocate, implement, collaborate, train, mediate, and communicate with general education administrators using competencies that might not have been a part of their training or experience. Although special education was once considered a separate system to general education, this literature synthesis found that special education and its competencies have now become necessary shared knowledge for all administrators. Therefore, a binary system of general and special education no longer can be the mode for preparing educational leaders. A competency model that defines the knowledge, skills, and competencies that all administrators must possess in order to properly serve student with disabilities is necessary.

Part 2: Synthesis of Competencies From Individual Study Analysis

Examination of individually reported data. The researcher examined each of the 17 studies to determine which methodology category (qualitative, quantitative,

or mixed method) the study fit into. Once categorized, the studies were analyzed by their methodology to determine which of the 32 competencies were found within the study results as important, significant, or ranked by order of importance.

Qualitative studies. A coding system was developed by the researcher to aggregate and report those competencies found to be important, significant, or ranked in order of importance within the study results, as seen in Table 2.4. If a rank order for a competency was identified within the study results, that specific rank number was indicated in Table 2.4. If the competency had no specific rank within the study results but was identified in the study as important, it was recorded as ~~1~~." However, if there was no rank order or identification of importance within the study results, that competency was left blank.

The competency results were summed and ranked in descending order by the frequency in which they were found in each study. Some competencies had a frequency that was equal to others. In this situation, if a rank order were given to the competency in any study's results, then that determined how it was ordered on the table.

The aggregated results indicated that two competencies were common to all five qualitative studies: (a) evaluation of data, program, teachers, and students and (b) relationship building and communication. Curriculum and instruction, mediation and conflict resolution, and personnel were identified in four studies. Six competencies were identified in three studies, as shown in Table 2.4. The researcher used three studies or more as the cut-off score to determine significant competencies. This

number was chosen, for it signifies the 60th percentile, meaning that out of the five qualitative studies evaluated, the competency was found in 60% or more of the studies. Table 2.4 displays these findings. Therefore, out of the possible 32 identified competency categories within the five qualitative studies, 11 were considered important for general and special education administrators.

Table 2.4

Aggregated Results of Competencies for Qualitative Studies

	Qualitative study					
Competency	1	2	3	13	14	Sum
Evaluation of data, programs, teachers, students	1	I	I	I	I	5
Relationship building & communication	4	I	I	I	I	5
Curriculum & instruction	7	I	I		I	4
Mediation, conflict resolution		I	I	I	I	4
Personnel	9	I	I		I	4
Budget & capital		I	I		I	3
Climate, safety, morale	6	I	I			3
Leadership & vision		I		I	I	3
Mentoring & modeling		I	I	I		3
Operations, facilities	8	I	I			3
Organization	5		I	I		3

Note. I = important in the study. The numbers 1, 2, 3, 13, and 14 are identifiers for the following qualitative studies: 1 = Gorton and McIntyre (1978); 2 = Portion, Schneider, DeArmond, and Gundlach (2003); 3 = Gibbs and Slate (2003); 13 = Hebert and Miller (1985); 14 = Burrello and Zadnik (1986).

Quantitative studies. The 12 quantitative studies and 1 mixed-method study (Study 14, Burrello & Zadnik, 1986) were analyzed in a similar fashion as the qualitative studies (Table 2.5). If a rank order for a competency was identified within the study results, that specific rank number was indicated. If there was no rank order

or identification of importance within the study results, that competency was left blank.

Table 2.5

Aggregated Results of Quantitative and Mixed-Method Studies by Frequencies Reported

	Quantitative study													
Competency	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	14	15	16	17	Sum
Leadership & vision		4			1	13	10	1	8	2	6	3	11	10
Relationship building & communication			5	2	1	1		9	7	4	4	4	4	10
Curriculum & instruction		8	11		9	14		12	3	1		9	3	9
Laws & policies		1				8	5	10	1	3	1	2	7	9
Collaboration & consultation					9	1	2	7			10	10	1	7
Evaluation of data, programs, teachers, students	NS	9					2		11		5	2	5	7
Special ed. delivery			4	1			1	3	2		1		5	7
Personnel			10				8	2		13			8	5
Advocacy			6	3		5				9				4
Budget & capital			8							5		7	1	4
Knowledge of current trends						7		6		7	9			4
Professional development			15		5				13				5	4

Note. NS = not significant. Sum represents the frequency that the individual competencies were found within the study. The study numbers (4–17) represent the following studies: 4 = Lietz and Kaiser (1979); 5 = Nevin (1979); 6 = Raske (1979); 7 = Wigle and Wilcox (2002); 8 = Cruzeiro and Morgan (2006); 9 = Wakeman, Browder, Flowers, and Ahlgrim-Delzell (2006); 10 = Stevenson-Jacobson, Jacobson, & Hilton (2006); 11 = Mackie and Engel (1955); 12 = Newman (1970); 13 = Hebert and Miller (1985); 14 = the mixed-method study, Burrello and Zadnik (1986); 15 = Rude and Sasso (1988); 16 = Gillung, Spears, Campbell, and Rucker (1992); 17 = Arick and Krug (1993).

Study 4, Lietz and Kaiser (1979), was the only study that did not use ranks for determining importance, but instead noted the competencies that were not significant,

while significant competencies were not indicated. The researcher could not determine a rank order for those competencies considered not significant, so no rank value was given for the not significant status and it was not considered in the sum. The mean of the competency frequencies was 4, so only those competencies with frequencies of 4 and above were considered significant by the researcher, and are represented in Table 2.5 in descending rank order. For those competencies whose frequency was shared by one or more competencies, the results are in alphabetical order.

Although the frequency of the competency within each study‘s findings is important, it does not address its importance or weight. The numbers indicated in Table 2.6 represent the rank in which the competency was reported in each study‘s individual results (with 1 being of greatest importance). Study 4, Lietz and Kaiser (1979), was the only study that did not use ranks for determining importance, but instead noted the competencies that were not significant. A lack of significance means that that the competency was not considered important. The researcher did not assign a value to those competencies considered not significant, and they were not averaged into the number of studies to determine the weighted average value; they are represented in Table 2.6 in order to indicate their results within the individual study.

Table 2.6

Aggregated Results of Quantitative Studies by Weighted Averages

Competency	Quantitative study													Wtd. avg.
	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	14	15	16	17	
IEP team	NS		1		2									1.50
Special ed. delivery			4	1			1	3	2		1		5	2.43
Knowledge of research							3							3.00
Discipline					4	3								3.50
Relationship building & communication			5	2	1	1		9	7	4	4	4	4	4.10
Laws & policies		1				8	5	10	1	3	1	2	7	4.22
Organization								4			5			4.50
Student records	NS	5												5.00
Budget, capital			8							5		7	1	5.25
Special ed. referrals			2			6			8					5.33
Collaboration & consultation					9	1	2	7			10	10	1	5.71
Advocacy			6	3		5				9				5.75
Evaluation: Data, programs, teachers, students	NS		9					2		11		5	2	5.80
Leadership & vision		4			1	13	10	1	8	2	6	3	11	5.90

Note. Weighted average of the rank ordering was calculated by dividing the sum of rankings by the number of studies presenting a ranking. NS = not significant. The study numbers (4–17) represent the following studies: 4 = Lietz and Kaiser (1979); 5 = Nevin (1979); 6 = Raske (1979); 7 = Wigle and Wilcox (2002); 8 = Cruzeiro and Morgan (2006); 9 = Wakeman, Browder, Flowers, and Ahlgrim-Delzell (2006); 10 = Stevenson-Jacobson, Jacobson, & Hilton (2006); 11 = Mackie and Engel (1955); 12 = Newman (1970); 13 = Hebert and Miller (1985); 14 = the mixed-method study, Burrello and Zadnik (1986); 15 = Rude and Sasso (1988); 16 = Gillung, Spears, Campbell, and Rucker (1992); 17 = Arick and Krug (1993).

In order to gain a weighted average for the competency, the rank orders were summed within each competency and then divided by the number of studies in which a competency was ranked. For instance, leadership and vision's rank orders totaled

59, which was divided by the number of studies where a rank was given (10), for a weighted average of 5.9. Those competencies equal to or below the mean score of 5.9 were considered significant by the researcher. These 7 significant competencies in the quantitative studies were (a) being a part of the IEP team, (b) special education delivery systems, (c) knowledge of research, (d) discipline, (e) relationship building and communication, (f) laws and policies, and (g) organization. The 20 remaining competencies were above the mean score and were not designated significant by the researcher, so they are not reported.

Aggregated Results of All Analyses

Table 2.7 displays the aggregated results of all analyses from Parts 1 and 2 of the synthesis. The results indicated on the chart are aggregated from results displayed in Tables 2.3–2.6. The goal of presenting the results of each section side by side, was to allow the reader the opportunity to see the rank order of each competency and to help identify the frequency that each competency was found to have within all four sections. Table 2.7 displays the frequency of the competencies in a manner that is easily distinguishable to the reader, where those competencies found in four out of four of the analysis sections were bolded; those in three out of the four analysis sections were italicized; and those found in two out of the four analysis sections were underlined.

Table 2.7

Competencies Most Common in the Four Data Analysis Categories

Competency (component)	No. of analysis results for competency	Types of analyses
1. Relationship building & communication	4	All analyses
2. Leadership & vision	4	All analyses
3. Budget & capital	4	All analyses
4. Laws & policies	3	Survey frequency, quantitative, weighted avg.
5. Curriculum & instruction	3	Survey frequency, qualitative, quantitative
6.Personnel	3	Survey frequency, qualitative, quantitative
7. Evaluation of data, programs, teachers, students	3	Survey frequency, qualitative, quantitative
8. Collaboration & consultation	3	Survey frequency, quantitative, weighted avg.
9. Special education delivery systems/programming	3	Survey frequency, quantitative, weighted avg.
10. Organization	2	Qualitative, weighted avg.
11. Professional development	2	Survey frequency, quantitative
12. Advocacy	2	Survey frequency, quantitative
Knowledge of research	1 (not significant)	Weighted avg.
Discipline	1	Weighted avg.
IEP team	1	Weighted avg.
Student records	1	Weighted avg.
Spec. ed. referrals	1	Weighted avg.
Knowledge of current trends	1	Quantitative
Mediation, conflict resolution	1	Qualitative
Climate, safety, morale	1	Qualitative
Mentoring & modeling	1	Qualitative
Operations & facilities	1	Qualitative
Assessment and testing	1	Survey frequency

The aggregate results of the four data analyses identified 12 component competencies for preparing general and special education administrators. The definition for each component was derived from the definitions given within the 17 individual, empirical studies. The researcher interpreted definitions, and those with common themes or wording were combined in order to make it more concise. The following are the 12 rank-ordered component competencies.

1. Relationship building and communication. Relationship building and communication was found in all four of the data analysis categories. To be competent in this area, an administrator must be able to do the following:

- build community relations with stakeholders and constituents who may be involved in serving all students‘ needs, including those with disabilities;
- read, write, and speak in a manner that effectively communicates information to all stakeholders, including those involved in special education delivery or programming; and
- counsel faculty, parents, and students, including those with disabilities.

2. Leadership and vision. Leadership and vision was found in all four of the data analysis categories. To be competent in this area, an administrator must do the following:

- provide leadership by promoting the vision, mission, and goals of the school for all students, including those with disabilities;
- maintain the climate, environment, and morale in the school; and

- strive to be ethical and make good decisions that are in the best interest of all students, including those with disabilities.

3. Budget and capital. Budget and capital was found in all four of the data analysis categories. To be competent in this area, an administrator must be able to do the following:

- develop capital and maintain the budget, facilities, and operation of the school, both for general and special education;
- ensure that all teachers and students have the needed supplies and resources; and
- forecast, plan, and budget for the future needs of the school.

4. Laws and policies. Laws and policies emerged from three of the data analysis categories. To be competent in this area, an administrator must be able to do the following:

- implement district, state, and federal laws and policies;
- understand special education law;
- coordinate grievances and due process procedures for general and special education; and
- be familiar with mediation and conflict resolution.

5. Curriculum and instruction. Curriculum and instruction was found in three of the data analysis categories. To be competent in this area, an administrator should do the following:

- help to develop, implement, and supervise curriculum and instruction for general and special education;
- model best practices;
- stay aware of current trends in general and special education and help teachers learn and use new tools (research-based instruction, differentiated instruction, inclusion, etc.);
- be familiar with learning stages and child development; and
- instruct professional staff on how to implement accommodations and modifications into the classroom curriculum, in order to ensure success for all students, including those with disabilities.

6. Personnel. The personnel component was found in three of the data analysis categories. To be competent in this area, an administrator must be able to do the following:

- hire and terminate all school personnel,
- maintain faculty records,
- mentor and build relationships with school personnel, and
- provide growth opportunities for all learning community members.

7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, and teachers. Evaluation was found in all four of the data analysis categories. To be competent in this area, an administrator must be able to do the following:

- disaggregate and evaluate student achievement (grades, testing);

- determine if teaching, curriculum, and programming is effective and equitable for all students, including those with disabilities;
- conduct teacher observations, evaluate instruction, and determine if teachers need intervention;
- provide mentoring, supervision, and added support for teachers;
- implement data-based decision making;
- analyze discipline reports and complete an assessment of strengths and weaknesses;
- evaluate special education referrals and the implementation of IEPs; and
- ensure accountability.

8. Collaboration and consultation. Collaboration and consultation was found in all four of the data analysis categories. To be competent in this area, an administrator must be able to do the following:

- maintain a community of learners within the school, so that students, parents, faculty, and all stakeholders have input;
- interact with community and state agencies in order to provide services for all students, including those with disabilities;
- allow and ensure teachers time to collaborate on curriculum, best practice, students, and topics of importance for all students, including those with disabilities; and
- collaborate with teachers and parents regarding student concerns.

9. Special education programming and delivery services. Special education delivery was found in three of the data analysis categories. To be competent in this area, an administrator must be familiar with the referral and IEP process and be able to do the following:

- understand the basics of evaluation,
- define disabling conditions,
- serve as a member on the IEP team,
- help to develop and write IEP goals and transition plans,
- fill out the needed paperwork,
- coordinate due process,
- be familiar with current trends and research-based practices in special education, and
- assess the needs and service delivery for students with disabilities.

10. Organization. Organization emerged from two of the data analysis categories. To be competent in this area, an administrator must be able to do the following:

- manage time and schedule related to the job duties;
- maintain the school environment, transportation, student records, professional development, personnel, maintenance and facilities, and the school as a whole; and
- be familiar with organizational structure and management.

11. Professional development. Finally, professional development emerged from two of the data analysis categories. To be competent in this area, an administrator must be able to do the following:

- promote and provide time for professional development;
- develop, organize, and hold in-service trainings; and
- make faculty aware of current trends, practices, and topics occurring within general and special education.

12. Advocacy. Advocacy was found in three of the data analysis categories. To be competent in this area, an administrator should do the following:

- advocate for the school, its students, and personnel;
- stay current on topics and issues where advocacy is needed (e.g., special education);
- conduct home visits and interacts with agencies or programs that benefit students, school personnel, and families;
- communicate and interact with constituents who also can advocate for the school and its students; and
- belong to professional organizations that advocate for students and schools.

Discussion

In the literature synthesis, 12 competencies or training components were found to be critical for both general and special education administrators to

effectively serve students with disabilities. Therefore, special education no longer must remain a specialization area, but instead an area of necessity for the preparation of all administrators. Legislation over the past 50 years has shifted the major responsibility for the delivery of special education services to general education administrators, who now spend a significant portion of their time addressing special education issues and responsibilities. The added responsibilities and tremendous pressures tied to accountability, with a shortage of appropriately trained general and special educational administrators, require a major training commitment in the areas of special education. Effective leadership impacts schools (Boyer, 1983; DiPaola & Walther-Thomas, 2003; Educational Research Service, 2000; Goodwin et al., 2003; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; IEL, 2000), and licensure requirements for administrator preparation programs typically have limited content or requirements related to serving students with disabilities. Special education has faded as a vertical designation or separate part of the system, which has brought greater complexity within the conceptual framework for administrator preparation. A new urgency has emerged for special and general education to work as a unified system, thus providing a rationale for common training of administrators (Boscardin, 2005; Cooner, Tochterman, & Garrison-Wade, 2005; DiPaola & Walter-Thomas, 2003; Stainback & Stainback, 1984).Implications for Research

Implications for Research

Very few empirical studies have been completed related to the competencies required for educational administrators. Most competencies have been deduced from

literature reviews, conceptual or theoretical discussion, or opinion presentations. Many of the conceptual, experiential, and logical skills associated with educational leadership have not been studied in controlled ways that permit generalizations. Controlled investigations of leadership competencies for educational organization are needed to define and satisfy societal concerns and misconceptions related to educational leadership. Current empirical studies appear highly linked or time dependent upon occurrences outside the discipline, such as legislation, the political system, changing philosophical viewpoints, current or emerging trends, and shifts in the economy. These influences may partially explain the lack of commonality of content, rigor, and public perception of educational leadership preparation. Additionally, there has been a paucity of empirical research within the area of special education administrator competencies since the early 1990s. Yet, the landscape in this field has changed significantly. Renewed investigations of this complementary discipline are timely, if not critical, for competent leadership in special education. Empirical research in the 12 component areas identified in the literature synthesis is essential for all administrators and the students with disabilities they will serve.

Summary

Competencies once considered specialized only to special education administrators now should be shared by all educational administrators. The challenge, according to Boscardin (2005), is to

> redefine educational leadership, transform the dual system of general and special education administration to a distributed system of leadership . . . one

> that collaboratively supports the use of proven practices to achieve school-wide improvement for all students including those with disabilities. (p. 24)

One way to examine this challenge is to determine if, and to what extent, the 12 critical components or competencies identified in this synthesis are a part of administrator preparation. Specifically, are these components of training included in the preparation of administrators in the nation‘s elite educational administration preparation programs? This study was designed to answer these questions.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This study explored if, and to what extent, the 12 critical components identified in the literature synthesis were taught within UCEA leadership preparation programs. A nonexperimental, descriptive research design was used to analyze quantitative data derived from the survey questions, within and between participants.

Research Questions

Do leading doctorate-granting institutions include in their preparation of educational leadership personnel empirically identified components critical to serving students with disabilities? To answer this overarching question, the study was guided by six research questions:

1. Are the components a required learning set in the institution‘s degree or certificate program?

2. Are professors knowledgeable of, or experts in, the components?

3. Do professors feel that the components are essential for preparing future educational administrators and leaders?

4. Do the classes routinely taught by professors include the identified components?

5. Does a requirement to include the components increase the likelihood that the professor will include them within the courses they routinely teach?

6. Is there an association between the classes routinely taught by the professors and the inclusion of the identified components in their courses?

Research Design

A nonexperimental, descriptive research design was employed to explore the relationship between what the empirical literature stated educational administrators must know in order to better serve students with disabilities and what is taught in preservice educational leadership preparation programs. Descriptive research, also known as survey research, was used because it is

> the accumulation of a data base that is solely descriptive—it does not necessarily seek or explain relationships, test hypotheses, or make predictions; but it describes systematically the facts and characteristics of a given population or area of interest, factually, and accurately. (Isaac & Michael, 1995, p. 50)

Data were collected using an investigator-designed online survey, with content derived from a literature synthesis. The survey was presented to university faculty participants through the professional web-based tool, SurveyMonkey (1999).

Methods of Procedure

The study was of interest to the UCEA, so council leaders agreed to provide the list of participants for the study and provided informal support by publishing a blurb on their organizational website that explained the purpose of the survey (Appendix B). Additionally, a prenotification e-mail was sent to all faculty members in UCEA institutions by the UCEA executive director, announcing the upcoming survey and UCEA‘s interest in it (Appendix C). Although no formal application process was required by UCEA, two primary points of contact for resources and guidance were the executive director and the events manager. Additionally, approval

for this study was granted by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at The University of Texas at Austin.

Participants

At the time of the study, the UCEA consisted of 81 member institutions. All but the Chinese University of Hong Kong, the University of Lincoln, and the University of Southampton are located in the United States. For the purpose of this study, only universities within the United States were asked to participate, as foreign universities train administrators without the same statutory requirements for serving students with disabilities that are mandated by federal law in the United States. Therefore, the 3 foreign universities were excluded. The UCEA provided the names and e-mail addresses for the participants. These faculty members were identified by each UCEA institution. The initial participant list included 1,064 professors. Because of the way individual institutions report faculty involvement to UCEA, this number included a range of academic disciplines, including clinical psychology, higher education, technology, and special education. Therefore, a filter question was developed to deduce faculty who were most involved in preparing educational leaders, typically found in departments such as educational administration or educational leadership: "Is part of your teaching responsibility in the Department of Educational Administration/Leadership to prepare public school K–12 leaders for an administrative position (such as principal, superintendent, etc)?" Appendix D lists the universities that were included in the study.

Instrumentation

The research instrument was an investigator-designed, online survey that was created using the professional web-based tool, SurveyMonkey (1999). This software program allowed for the survey to be created and sent to the participants with additional reminders for nonrespondents. Additionally, the software allowed for the data to be collected and analyzed and for the results to be downloaded onto a spreadsheet or other statistical program for analysis (SurveyMonkey, 1999). An online survey was thought to be appropriate since online data collection processes have been used and found effective with a variety of populations in the field of education (Edwords, 2006).

First, participants answered one self-qualifying inclusionary question: ~~"~~Is part of your teaching responsibility in the Department of Educational Administration/Leadership to prepare public school K–12 leaders for an administrative position (such as principal, superintendent, etc)?" Those who answered yes received the investigator-designed survey (Appendix E), which consisted of 74–80 questions (dependent upon skip logic rationale). Alreck and Settle (1995) suggested,

> Grouping sections simplifies the task of asking and answering the questions. It makes the task appear simpler and easier for respondents, and actually makes it so; and the more effectively the items are grouped into the sections, the more efficient the questionnaire will be. (p. 153)

For this reason, the survey was grouped into four key sections by topic, all of which were displayed over 20 web pages.

Pilot Study

Thomas (2004) stated that a valid questionnaire measures what it is intended to, for it has content validity that shows that the questions asked relate to the objectives of the research project. Therefore, in order to insure the validity of the survey instrument and its content, three processes occurred: (a) An expert panel knowledgeable in the field of educational administration or special education reviewed the survey instrument for content and gave recommendations; (b) a pilot study was conducted, and (c) a smaller expert panel, within the field, reviewed the corrections and changes that were made based on the pilot study participants' recommendations.

Identification of Pilot Study Participants

The identification of university educational administration programs to use as participants in the pilot study took some time to determine, for the goal was to find quality university programs and professors who would be representative of those found within the UCEA institutions. Therefore, NCATE universities were chosen as the participant pool for the pilot study, since their accreditation programs are aligned to the Educational Leadership Constituent Council standards, which are similar to those required by UCEA institutions (NASSP, 2008). The initial list of 152 NCATE-accredited universities, categorized by state, was downloaded from the NASSP website (see Appendix F). After reviewing the list, the researcher identified 18 universities that were also UCEA institutions, which were excluded from the pilot study. This left the final pilot study pool at 134 NCATE-accredited universities. Since

this was too large of a pool, a random sample from a variety of institutions (public, private, small and large) throughout the country, were chosen using the following process:

1. The list of universities was categorized alphabetically by state, so the researcher added the 1st university from each state and every 3rd university after that (4th, 7th, 10th, 13th, etc.) to the final pilot study participant pool. Using this process, a list of 60 universities was deduced.

2. Each university's school of education, educational leadership or educational administration program, and the faculty members within the programs were identified online.

3. A list of e-mail addresses for 450 faculty members identified through the online process was compiled on a spreadsheet, which was used for distribution of the pilot study survey questions.

The Survey

The pilot survey consisted of a cover letter and the same survey questions that would be used during the actual survey. A cover letter with the Phase 1 inclusionary question was sent to the pilot participants on October 22, 2008. A reminder letter and the Phase 1 inclusionary question were re-sent on October 28, 2008, informing the nonrespondents that the survey would close in 3 days. Phase 1 of the pilot study closed on Friday, October 31, 2008, and 146 professors had responded to the inclusionary question: ~~I~~s part of your teaching responsibility in the Department of Educational Administration/Leadership to prepare public school K–12 leaders for an

administrative position (such as principal, superintendent, etc)?" Of the 146 respondents, 81 professors had answered yes, 62 had answered no, and 3 had skipped the question. Additionally, 17 professors had opted out.

Eighty-one professors self-qualified for Phase 2 of the pilot study, they would be asked to complete the actual pilot study survey and provide feedback in the areas of survey directions, length and time needed to complete the survey, wording of the questions, content included in the survey, and any technical issues they encountered. The Phase 2 cover letter and pilot survey was sent on December 16, 2008. Eighty-one professors originally responded, but 2 chose to formally opt out afterwards, so the pilot study participant pool consisted of 79 professors. The Phase 2 survey was identical to the survey used with UCEA institutions, except that it asked one additional question at the bottom of each page: "Do you recommend any corrections to this page in order to improve the survey instrument (wording, layout, etc.)?" Professors were then allowed to type in ideas, thoughts, corrections, or technical difficulties they had. Due to the conclusion of the university semester and the upcoming holidays, a reminder letter and the Phase 2 survey were sent again on December 19, 2008, to the 59 nonrespondents telling them that the survey would end on December 26, 2008. However, because of the Christmas holiday, the survey closed on December 29, 2008. Upon its closure, 36 professors had responded, 43 were nonresponders, and 6 opted out, for a pilot study response rate of 46%.

Litwin (2003) stated that the three main benefits of pilot testing are (a) to identify errors in the survey, (b) to locate design issues in the survey instrument, and

(c) to find usage or run errors that may occur when the instrument is put into practice. Errors in spelling, question sentence structures, definitions, layout, and a skip rationale question were found by the pilot participants, and recommendations were given to help make the questions and component definitions more concise. All input and recommendations were considered, and corrections were made to the survey as needed before it was placed online and used within the larger UCEA participant group.

The revised survey was sent to five professionals in the field of educational administration for final review. They suggested a few additional corrections to the cover letter and directions. With their input, the final draft was completed for distribution.

Phase 1: Inclusionary Question

The Phase 1 survey included a cover letter that reminded the participant of the prenotification letter they previously received from the UCEA executive director. The letter described the study and its purpose; the process and deadline for completing the survey; confidentiality and consent information; and the appropriate contact information for the researcher, her advisor, and The University of Texas IRB. Since the survey was self-administered, the participants had a choice as to their level of involvement. All participants were given the option to officially opt out of the survey or not to complete it.

The Phase 1 survey included only one self-qualifying inclusionary question that all participants were asked to answer, in order to determine their eligibility for

participation in the study: Is part of your teaching responsibility in the Department of Educational Administration/ Leadership to prepare public school K-12 leaders for an administrative position (such as principal, superintendent, etc)?" Such a question was necessary because the list of UCEA institution education department faculty members included professors within various areas of the education department (research, technology, special education, higher education, administration, etc.). However, the focus of this study was specific to those professors who taught courses within the educational administration or leadership department and who prepared K–12 public school administrators. Therefore, to insure that the appropriate participants (professors) were surveyed, they were asked whether part of their teaching responsibility in the department of educational administration or department of educational leadership was to prepare public school K–12 leaders for an administrative position. Participants who answered yes self-qualified for Phase 2 and were participants in the full survey. Those who answered no were thanked for their participation and the survey ended.

A study completed by Matz (1999) compared mail to web-based questionnaire response rates and found that the response rate for paper questionnaires was 43%, compared to 33% for those completed on a web-based site. Additionally, Kaplowitz, Hadlock, and Levine (2004) study found that web-based surveys achieved comparable results to hard-copy questionnaires that were mailed, especially when a notification letter was mailed in advance. In a meta-analysis of 49 studies using 68 different questionnaires, Cook, Heath, and Thompson (2000) also found sending e-

mail notifications or invitations prior to the web-based questionnaire yielded an average response rate of 39.6%. Therefore, in order to improve the response rate of the online questionnaire, the advance-notification letter was e-mailed January 21, 2009, by the UCEA executive director to all UCEA professors. Plus, in order to show informal support for the survey, UCEA added a blurb to its website January 29, 2009, reiterating the importance of the professors‘ participation in the survey (Appendix B).

The cover letter and inclusionary question were e-mailed to 1,064 professors at UCEA institutions on February 3, 2009 (see Appendix D). Kittelson‘s (1997) study found that follow-up emails to participants of online surveys increased response rates and should be conducted approximately a week after the initial e-mail invitation. Therefore, reminder letters and follow-up invitations were sent to all nonrespondents on the following dates: (a) February 10–11, 2009, letters were sent to 895 nonrespondents; (b) February 17–18, letters were sent to 733 nonrespondents; and (c) February 24–26, letters were sent to the remaining 684 nonrespondents.

The survey collector was closed on March 2, 2009. Although it was not the researcher‘s original intent to keep the survey collector open for more than 2 weeks, it was necessary to do so to insure that all possible participants had the opportunity to respond. When Phase 1 closed, 472 professors had responded and 37 had opted out. Therefore, from the possible participant pool of 1,064 professors, 472 had responded to the Phase I survey; 298 self-qualified by answering yes to the Phase 1 inclusionary question and would now be eligible for the Phase 2 survey.

Phase 2: Survey

The Phase II survey included a cover letter that described participation in Phase 1, the self-qualifying question that made respondents eligible for participation in the Phase 2 survey. The cover letter described the process and deadline for completing the survey; confidentiality and consent information; and the appropriate contact information for the investigator, her advisor, and the IRB. A statement regarding the participant‘s voluntary involvement in the study and confidentiality issues was included.

The survey consisted of four sections: (a) inclusionary filter question, (b) demographic information, (c) K–12 demographic information, and (d) the component or competency questions. The inclusionary question was exactly the same as the Phase 1 inclusionary question; the goal of asking this question again was to have a second stage of filtering, to ensure that only those professors in educational administration answered the survey.

The next section of the survey had two subsections that focused on the demographic information of the professor and his or her institution of higher education. The first subsection asked four questions regarding the professor‘s age, race, gender, and educational level, and the second subsection asked six questions (with skip rationale) related to the professor‘s experience in higher education: (a) current position; (b) total number of years in higher education; (c) the size of the student population at the institution; (d) whether the institution had a program in

special education administration or leadership; and (e) if so, in what department it resided.

Section 3 of the survey began with a skip rationale question that asked the professor whether, prior to teaching at an institution of higher learning, he or she had experience teaching within the K–12 public school system. If the professor answered no to this question, then the survey skipped to Section 4, Components. However, professors who answered yes to this question were asked six additional questions about their experience in K–12: (a) number of years since last working in public schools, (b) total years in the public school system, (c) positions, (d) the educational setting (special or general education, or both), and (e) the percentage of time spent working with students with disabilities. After these questions were answered, the professor continued to Section 4, Components.

Section 4 of the survey gave directions for completing the remainder of the survey, which focused on the 12 empirically identified competencies or components, their definitions, and five questions related to each (see Appendix E). The five core questions remained constant for each component. Finally, the survey asked for the professors‘ recommendations, asked whether they would like the final results of the survey, and thanked them for participation.

On March 3, 2009, the Phase 2 cover letter and survey were sent out to the 298 participants who had self-qualified in Phase 1. Reminder letters and follow-up invitations were sent on March 10, 2009, to 200 nonrespondents and on March 17 to the remaining 147 nonrespondents.

The survey collector was closed on March 20. Upon its completion, 178 participants had responded fully, 24 responded partially, 4 opted out, and 1 e-mail address had bounced back and a new address could not be found. Additionally, when asked the self-qualifying filter question again, 5 professors answered "No," that their primary job responsibility was not training K–12 administrators. Therefore, out of a possible 293 participants (the initial 298 minus the five who answered "No" to the self-qualifying question in Phase II), 197 professors responded partially or completely, for a response rate of 67%.

Data Preparation and Cleaning

Once the survey closed, the data were downloaded from SurveyMonkey (1999) into Microsoft Excel spreadsheets. The spreadsheets were then uploaded into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software, so that the data could be reviewed and cleaned. The process of cleaning dirty data involved looking at incomplete or illogical answers and identifying or correcting these errors (Sue, 2007). Once corrected, all quantitative data were coded onto the spreadsheet by the author. In order to ensure accuracy, the cleaned data were reviewed by two professors from The University of Texas at Austin who teach statistics, research, and design courses. Qualitative data were sorted and categorized for race, the professor's current position (lecturer, director, clinical professor), certification areas held, whether and when they worked in the K–12 general education system (skip rationale question), and the courses each had routinely taught at the university within the previous 3 years. The initial review of courses taught yielded over 200 responses, which were reviewed,

sorted, and deduced into categories of commonality by the researcher. In the end, 10 broad course categories were apparent: (a) administration, leadership, and organizations; (b) law, policy, and reform; (c) research; (d) internships, seminars, and supervision; (e) curriculum and instruction, and professional development; (f) relationships (personal, school, and community); (g) socio- and multicultural contexts and special populations; (h) school finance, human resources, and capital; (i) ethics; and (j) other (technology, advocacy, higher education, college teaching, etc.).

The only component that was not identified within the empirical literature but was a course routinely taught by the professors was ethics. After sorting, the researcher observed that the 10 course categories corresponded almost exactly to the 12 empirically identified competency components. This may indicate that courses taught within the universities correspond with the current literature regarding competencies and training component areas. However, this does not necessarily mean that the necessary content is being covered within these courses.

Data Analyses

Data analysis had two main purposes: (a) to break out the variables individually by personal and institutional demographics and (b) to find out how the competency components compared to each other. The data was analyzed using chi-square, analysis of variance (ANOVA), multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA), and other tests of proportions as appropriate. Means, standard deviations, and frequency distributions were measured within and across components. Means and

frequency distributions were chosen because, as Alreck and Settle (1995) stated, they are

> by far the most common measure of association between survey variables. It is so common and popular in part because the method is effective, it can be easily understood and interpreted, and it can be tabulated very readily by spreadsheet, charting, and analysis programs. (p. 286)

Additionally, to answer Research Questions 4 and 6, Pearson's correlation coefficient was calculated to determine the linear relationship between the component composite score and the four component survey questions: (a) whether the component was a required learning set, (b) the professor's level of expertise regarding the component, (c) whether the component was part of the professor's research agenda, and (d) how important the professor felt the component was for future administrators to know.

Methodological Limitations

Four methodological limitations must be acknowledged:

1. The UCEA has rigorous criteria that must be met in order to become, and remain, a UCEA member institution, which include following ISLLC standards. Therefore, results found should not be generalized beyond UCEA institutions or any institution with similar requirements.

2. The list of professor e-mail addresses that UCEA provided for the study was the most current. However, due to professor movement (sabbatical, death, out of office, retirement, changing to a nonteaching position, or changing e-mail address),

not all of the names and e-mail addresses were accurate. It could not be determined that every professor that should have been on the initial list was included.

3. Although an inclusionary question was used as a filter to determine which professors (of the 1,064) taught in educational administration or leadership programs, it is impossible to know how many professors who did not respond were also part of this department. Therefore, it may be difficult to determine to what extent the results can be representative of these faculty members.

4. Even though data collection remained open for several weeks for each phase of the survey, more time could have been allowed for data collection. The timing of the survey (end-of-semester December holidays and around spring break) might have influenced the response rate.

5. Although the online survey was convenient and the investigator‘s contact information was given if questions arose or clarification was needed, this form of survey instrument might have left room for personal interpretation or possible confusion. Not all respondents might have had the same level of experience and training as professors or as K–12 public school educators, so any variance in experience or training might have influenced the responses.

Summary

A nonexperimental, descriptive research design was used to develop an online survey instrument that was distributed via e-mail to UCEA professors. First, participants were asked a self-qualifying, filter question to determine if part of their teaching responsibility in the department of educational administration or department

of educational leadership was to prepare public school K–12 leaders for an administrative position. Professors who answered no to the question ended their participation. Those who answered yes continued to the survey. The survey asked specific questions regarding the professor‘s inclusion of 12 empirically identified competency components (related to serving students with disabilities) into their course curriculum. Additional questions focused on the courses the professors routinely taught, whether the components were a required learning set within their institution, whether the component was within the professor‘s area or expertise or research agenda, and whether they felt the component was important for future educational administrators to know. Results were analyzed through coding and calculation of standard deviation, Pearson correlations, and frequency distributions. Tables and graphic organizers were used to display the data. Findings reflected the components included in the professor‘s curriculum as well as the component areas included within university preparation programs. Possible influences and relationships to the professor‘s level of expertise, research agenda, and thoughts regarding the components level of importance for future administrators were deduced**.**

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

As federal mandates hold administrators responsible for the progress of all students within the school, (including those with disabilities), general and special educators may continue to experience confusion and an overlapping of responsibilities for the delivery of services to persons with disabilities. The necessity of addressing the shared or linked responsibilities between groups demands the careful attention of school leaders. The preparation of leadership personnel in general and special education has often occurred in separate systems, despite a quest for common and specialized learning that integrates the complementary disciplines. A nonexperimental, descriptive research design was used to determine if, and to what extent, 12 critical components identified in the literature synthesis were taught within UCEA preparation programs: (a) relationship building and communication; (b) leadership and vision; (c) budget and capital; (d) laws and policies; (e) curriculum and instruction; (f) personnel; (g) evaluation of data, programs, students, and teachers; (h) collaboration and consultation; (i) special education programming; (j) organization; (k) professional development; and (l) advocacy. After the Phase I qualifying question was sent to over 1,000 professors at UCEA member institutions, 303 professors self-qualified for the study. Yet, when the Phase II study was sent, four professors opted out and one e-mail address bounced back, making the total number of respondents 298. Yet, when the self-qualifying question was asked again as another level of filtering in the Phase II survey, five more professors disqualified

themselves from the survey by answering –No" to the self-qualifying question. The final number of professors who self-qualified for the Phase II study was 293, with 197 professors responding for a response rate of 67%. It should be noted that the Phase II study rate-of-return percentages (for completed responses) ranged depending upon the question. Since participation was voluntary and participants were given the option to skip or not respond to questions at their discretion, some questions had lower response rates than 67%. However, examination of the survey data showed that the survey respondents‘ responses were highly reliable.

This study was designed to answer an overarching research question: Do leading doctorate-granting institutions include in their preparation of educational leadership personnel empirically identified components critical to serving students with disabilities? To answer this overarching question, the study was guided by six research questions. Following the discussion of the demographic data, data to answer each of these research questions are presented. The overarching research question is then addressed, followed by a summary.

Demographics

The demographic data were disaggregated by the various categorical and demographic variables (see Table 4.1). The information obtained showed that, on average, the profile of a typical professor at a UCEA member institution (by highest percentile) in this study was a White male (77.8%) with a Ph.D. (67.8%), who was 55–64 years of age (42.0%). He resided in a university with a student population of 20,001–30,000 (38.7%) and had been in higher education for 6–10 years (23.7%) as

an associate professor (29.9%) who primarily taught administration and leadership courses (51.3%).

The data indicated that professors surveyed earned the Ph.D. more than the Ed.D. However, it should be noted that in the past the Ed.D. might not have been offered within university educational leadership programs at the same frequency that it has been in the last 10–15 years. As this degree plan continues to be offered at higher frequencies, it will be interesting to note if the degree held by university professors and future educational administrators changes.

Table 4.1

Participant Demographics

Demographic	%	*N*
Gender (*n* = 197)		
Male	53.8	106
Female	46.2	91
Age (*n* = 195)		
24 or younger	0.0	0
25-34	2.6	5
35-44	23.1	45
45-54	16.4	32
55-64	42.0	82
65-74	15.4	30
75 or older	0.1	1
Race (*n* = 196)		
Black/African American	9.2	18
Hispanic/Latino	5.1	10
White (non-Hispanic)	77.6	152
Asian	2.0	4
Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	0.5	1
American Indian	2.0	4
Alaska Native	0.0	0
Other (biracial, Mideastern, no response)	3.6	7
Degree (*n* = 197)		
Master‘s	1.5	3
Ed.D.	28.2	57
Ph.D.	67.8	137
J.D.	2.5	5

Demographic	%	*N*
Current position (*n* = 194)		
Dean	4.6	10
Department chair	6.9	15
Full professor	24.0	52
Associate professor	26.7	58
Assistant professor	24.0	52
Adjunct professor	3.2	7
Other (lecturer, director, clinical professor)	10.6	23
Courses routinely taught the past 3 years (*n* = 194)		
Administration/leadership		101
Law, policy, & reform		78
Research		65
Internships, seminars, & supervision		58
Curriculum & instruction and professional development		41
Sociocultural/special populations		34
School finance/human resources		30
School/personal/community relationships		28
Other		18
Ethics		13
Total years in higher education (*n* = 194)		
1-5	18.0	35
6-10	23.7	46
11-15	18.0	35
16-20	13.4	26
21-29	18.6	36
30 or more years	8.3	16
Institution‘s student population (*n* = 194)		
Less than 5,000	2.1	4
5,001-10,000	5.7	11
10,001-20,000	15.4	30
20,001-30,000	38.7	75
30,001-40,000	23.7	46
40,001-50,000	9.3	18
Over 50,000	5.1	10
University special education administration program (*n* = 194)		
Yes	34.0	66
No	60.8	118
Unsure	5.2	10

Professors‘ current job positions of full and assistant professor followed behind the associate professor at 24% each. This indicates that universities seem to be hiring full, associate, and assistant professor positions at a comparable rate. The

survey question did not ask if these appointments were tenured positions or not, but for future reference this could be important to differentiate.

Professors were also asked to list all of the courses they routinely taught at their institution within the past 3 years. The 197 professors reported that they taught 466 courses, for an average of 2.37 courses per professor. Administration and leadership courses were taught by 101 of the 197 professors (51.3%); following quite a bit behind were courses on law, policy, and reform (16.7%) and research (13.9%).

Surprisingly, courses in finance and human resources (6.4%); school, personal, and community relations (6.0%); and ethics (2.8%) were taught by the fewest professors. These data do not correspond to the literature synthesis, which suggested that relationship building and communication and budget and capital were two of the top three components for administrators to know. Ethics was ranked last among professors, taught by only 13 professors surveyed. This accurately corresponds to the empirical literature, which did not recognize ethics as among the 12 components needed by future administrators. Yet, ethics should be considered an essential course. In Texas, as in most states, there is a Code of Ethics that must be followed when administrators receive their teacher or administrator certification (State Board of Educator Certification, 2002). Certain behavior is considered unethical and can cost an administrator his or her job and certification; yet, ethics remained at the bottom of the courses taught to preservice educational administrators. Perhaps these ethics are assumed to be known and understood already, so time is not taken to ensure that they are clarified. Additionally, the numerous ethical dilemmas

that can occur as an administrator could be taught within the confines of other courses (budget, leadership, school–community relations, etc).

Additionally, results indicated that 15.4% of the professors surveyed were at retirement age, with an additional 42.0% being eligible for retirement within the next 10 years. More than half of educational administration and leadership faculty members within UCEA universities will need to be replaced in the next 10 years, with strong implications to properly train future administrators to fill the vacancies and become the trainers of future administrators. Table 4.1 presents all demographic findings and displays them by percentage and frequency for each variable.

The responses regarding the typical professor‘s previous K–12 work experience is presented in Table 4.2. The responses indicated that over 81% of professors (n = 158) had taught as a teacher or in an administrative position prior to entering higher education. Further, 26.8% worked within the system for 1–5 years, with 22.9% following a little behind with 6–10 years of service. Also, more than 32.5% (n = 51) had last taught or worked in the K–12 system more than 20 years ago, and an additional 24.8% (n = 39) had been out of the K–12 system for 11–19 years. Regarding the question of the professor‘s primary educational setting while within the K–12 setting, 74.2% of the respondents stated that their time was spent in general education, where 32.9% (n = 51) spent under 10% and 31.0% (n = 48) spent 11–25% of their time teaching or working with students with disabilities.

Table 4.2

Demographics for Participant's Prior K–12 Work Experience

Type of experience	%	*N*
Previous K–12 work experience (*n* = 194)		
Yes	81.4	158
No	18.6	36
Last taught in K-12 system (*n* = 157)		
Currently work in the public school setting	3.8	6
1-5 years ago	18.5	29
6-10 years ago	20.4	32
11-19 years ago	24.8	39
20 or more years ago	32.5	51
Total years in the K-12 system (*n* = 157)		
1-5	26.8	42
6-10	22.9	36
11-15	17.2	27
16-24	12.1	19
25 or more years ago	21.0	33
Previous K-12 positions (more than one could be chosen) (*n* = 147)		
Teacher		140
Principal		61
Assistant/associate principal		41
Director or coordinator (administrative)		36
Superintendent		26
Assistant superintendent		25
Counselor		11
Dean		7
Diagnostician/licensed school psychologist		2
Other		39
K-12 certifications held (more than one could be chosen)		
Teacher		
General, no specification		61
Secondary		56
Elementary		27
Special education		23
Reading		6
Bilingual		5
Early childhood		3
Librarian		2
Coach		1
Counselor		12
School psychologist		4
Speech therapist		4
Administrator		
General admin.		101
Special ed. admin.		7
Superintendent		43
Other (chief financial officer, executive director, specialist, etc.)		7

Type of experience	%	*N*
Primary K-12 educational setting (*n* = 155)		
General education	74.2	115
Special education	5.8	9
Both	20.0	31
Time spent in K-12 with students with disabilities (*n* = 155)		
None of my time	14.2	22
Under 10%	32.9	51
11-25%	31.0	48
26-50%	7.1	11
51-75%	3.2	5
76-99%	5.2	8
100% of my time	6.4	10

The data indicated that the majority of professors had taught in the public school system, which could be considered an essential element for better understanding the system, its needs, and the processes that occur within it. However, for the 18.6% of professors who did not have this experience, it would be interesting for future reference to determine what experiences they did have that qualified them to teach preservice administrators about the job. At one time there was a push for administration qua administration, meaning that any type of administrator outside of education could be an administrator within education, because it was thought that administration was administration regardless of the field. The professors without educational experience may be residual to this school of thought or might have worked outside of the public school setting as administrators.

Also, the data showed that over half (57.3%) of the professors had been out of the K–12 public school setting for over 10 years. This means that the majority of the professors were not in practice when such federal mandates as NCLB (2002), IDEIA (2004), and the accountability standards associated with AYP (NCLB, 2002) were

implemented. These new mandates have brought great change to the system and to the responsibilities of the administrator. Therefore, this should be of great concern, for it may be hard for the professors to teach practical skills and knowledge to preservice administrators when they are lacking first-hand knowledge and experience of the current responsibilities and competencies needed daily by practicing administrators.

Finally, as shown in Table 4.2, 74.2% of the professors indicated working only within the general education setting, whereas 5.8% worked only within the special education setting. The remaining 20.0% had worked in both the general and special education settings. Additionally, 78.1% of responding professors indicated that they spent less than 25% of their time teaching and or working with students with disabilities. These results again should cause some concern for what is being taught to preservice administrators. Since the implementation of NCLB (2002), current administrators are responsible and held accountable for the success of all students, including those with disabilities who are served within special education. Yet, preservice administrators are being trained by many professors who have not had the first-hand knowledge or experience teaching within the special education setting or working with students with disabilities.

Educational Administrators Past and Present

In 1973, Campbell and Newell conducted *A Study of Professors of Educational Administration: Problems and Prospects of an Applied Academic Field* for the UCEA. Almost a quarter of a century later, McCarthy and Kuh (1997)

conducted the follow-up study, *Continuity and Change: The Educational Leadership Professoriate.* The goal of each was to map the professoriate in UCEA institutions; McCarthy and Kuh mapped non-UCEA institutions also. The researchers wanted to find out who the professors were, where they were, what they did, what they believed, what their role orientations were, and to what extent their role orientations were associated with their personal characteristics (Campbell & Newell, 1973; McCarthy & Kuh, 1997). Although the current study did not ask all of the same questions, some of the demographic questions were similar and can be compared to the earlier studies.

Campbell and Newell (1973) used the 1971–1972 lists of professors who were teaching within UCEA member institutions for their study. They initially had difficulty determining which professors resided in the subfield of higher education administration and not in other departments within the field, such as elementary or secondary education, community college, and higher education. Their original questionnaire was sent by mail to 1,139 UCEA professors within 59 UCEA institutions in the United States and Canada. There were 576 respondents for an adjusted return rate of 78% (Campbell & Newell, 1973, p. 13). However, it should be noted that although the majority of respondents considered their primary focus preparing K–12 school leaders, a small percentage considered their focus higher education (McCarthy & Kuh, 1997).

McCarthy and Kuh‘s (1997) study also looked at faculty members in the United States and Canada who considered K–12 educational leadership their primary or secondary focus. McCarthy and Kuh obtained their list of participants from the

—*Educational Administration Directory—1993-94,* in addition to making telephone calls to universities/ programs that were either not listed in the directory but were part of the population in 1986, or were listed in the directory without contact information" (pp. 25–26). This process identified 1,989 faculty members. However, the researchers chose not to survey the entire population and instead used a random sample that resulted in 940 participants. McCarthy and Kuh used two separate instruments (questionnaires). One was a unit survey that was used to obtain information on the university and the educational leadership program. The other was an individual faculty survey that asked many of the same questions as Campbell and Newell's (1973) study regarding professor demographics, professional activities, and attitudes. A total of 486 respondents returned completed questionnaires, for a response rate of 55%. However, it should be noted that out of the 486, only 100 (21%) of the respondents were from UCEA institutions. Therefore, only McCarthy and Kuh's UCEA-specific information is used for comparison.

The current study used a list of participants obtained from UCEA, based on the list of names that each member institution within the United States submitted. The original participant pool was 1,064 UCEA professors. However, an inclusionary, self-qualifying survey question (Phase I) was sent out via e-mail to each participant, in order to determine those who resided in departments of educational administration or leadership and who prepared future P–12 leaders. After the self-qualifying question was administered, 298 professors were considered valid participants. When the Phase II survey was sent, the self-qualifying question was asked again as another level of

filtering, and five professors disqualified themselves, making the final number of professors who self-qualified for the study 293. The Phase II rate of return for completed responses was 67%. Yet, it should be noted that depending upon the question, the percentage for the response rate ranged, since participation was voluntary and participants were given the option to skip or not respond to questions at their discretion.

Table 4.3 compares demographic results found in all three studies. Campbell and Newell's (1973) study found that professors within educational administration departments were White (97%) males (98%) ages 40–49 (36%), who had the rank of professor (50%) in universities where the enrollment was over 20,000 students (59%). Twenty-four years later, McCarthy and Kuh (1997) found that educational administration departments primarily consisted of White (91%) males (77%) ages 50–59 (42%) who had the rank of professor (58%). This study did not ask for the size of the university enrollment, therefore this cannot be compared. The analysis of the two studies shows that there were only small gains for people of color in the field (+6%), but women entered the field at a greater rate than in the past (+21%). The age of the professors increased (based on greatest percentage) from 40–49 (36%) years of age to 50–59 (42%). The title of professor also increased from 50% to 58%, while the title of associate professor declined from 19% to 11%. This may indicate that the universities wanted older, more experienced professors within their departments, or that the professors from the previous studies had gained tenure or changed titles.

Table 4.3

Demographic Comparison of Current Study With Previous UCEA Studies: Campbell and Newell (1973) and McCarthy and Kuh (1997)

	Campbell & Newell (1973)		McCarthy & Kuh (1997)		Current study (2009)	
Demographic	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Original participant list	1,139		1,989		1,064	
UCEA professors surveyed	862		940		293	
UCEA institutions surveyed	59		40		78	
Professors who responded	576		486 (100 UCEA)		197	
Response rate		78%		55%		67%
Gender						
Male	564	98%	77	77%	106	53.8%
Female	9	2%	23	23%	91	46.2%
Age						
No response	15	3%				
20-29	9	(2%				
25-34					5	2.6%
30-39	139	24%				
39 or younger			2	2%		
35-44					45	23.1%
40-49	208	36%	35	35%		
45-54					32	16.4%
50-59	132	23%	42	42%		
55-64					82	42.0%
60-69	71	12%	20	20%		
65-74					30	15.4%
70 and over	2	—	2	2%		
75 and over					1	.50%
Race						
No answer	3	—			2	1.0%
Minority			9	9%		
American Indian	1	—			4	2.0%
Black	10	2%			18	9.2%
Asian	1	—			4	2.0%
White	558	97%	91	91%	152	77.6%
Hispanic					10	5.1%
Native Hawaiian/ Pacific Islander					1	.50%
Alaska Native					0	0%
Other	3	1%			5	2.6%

Demographic	Campbell & Newell (1973)		McCarthy & Kuh (1997)		Current study (2009)	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Academic rank of professor						
No response	2	—	—	—	—	—
Dean			—	—	10	4.6%
Department Chair			—	—	15	6.9%
Professor	290	50%	58	58.0%	52	24.0%
Associate Professor	155	27%	30	30.0%	58	26.7%
Assistant Professor	109	19%	11	11%	52	24.0%
Instructor	6	1%	—	—	—	—
Adjunct			—	—	7	3.2%
Other	14	3%	—	—	23	10.6%
University enrollment						
No response	7	1%				
Under 5,000	17	3%	—	—	4	2.1%
5,000-9,999	20	4%	—	—		
5,001-10,000			—	—	11	5.7%
10,000-14,999	58	10%	—	—		
15,000-19,999	134	23%	—	—		
10,001-20,000			—	—	30	15.4%
20,000 and over	340	59%	—	—		
20,001-30,000			—	—	75	38.7%
30,001-40,000			—	—	46	23.7%
40,001-50,000			—	—	18	9.3%
Over 50,000			—	—	10	5.1%

Note. For the current study, the question of academic rank of professor could have more than 1 response. For example, a professor could mark department chair and professor. The *n = 217* for this question, so the percentages are based on 217 responses and not 197 for each respondent. Additionally, McCarthy and Kuh's study did not ask for university enrollment, thus this section was left blank. From *A Study of Professors of Educational Administration,* by R. F. Campbell and L. J. Newell, 1973, Columbus, OH: UCEA; *Continuity and Change,* by M. McCarthy and G. D. Kuh, 1997, Columbia, MO: UCEA.

The current study showed the growth and progress that has occurred within the educational administration faculty and the universities over the past 36 years. The number of UCEA institutions grew from 59 in 1973 to 81 universities in 2009. However, since three remain outside the United States, only 78 were considered for the survey. This increase demonstrates that more universities may want their

educational administration programs to be considered prestigious or elite doctoral granting programs, for they have met the rigorous standards outlined by UCEA to be considered a member institution (UCEA, 1998). Additionally, between 1973 and 2009, 44% more women and 18.4% of people of color have entered the field of educational administration. This could be due to the cultural changes taking place within the United States or to federal laws and policies, such as Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which outlawed discriminatory practices regarding employment (U.S. Department of Labor, 2010). Although the average age of professors increased from 40–49 (36%) in 1973 to 55–64 (42%) in 2009, the percentage of professors within this age range has remained relatively constant. Where once 96% of professors were full professors, assistant professors, or associate professors, now approximately 75% of current professors hold these titles; adjunct faculty members (11%) are now more numerous. This increase in adjunct faculty may allow universities to have more faculty members for a lower cost, or it could be contributed to the limited number of quality professors that are available within the field; the primary reason cannot be determined from the research. Finally, the growth in university enrollment has seen a tremendous increase, from 59% having enrollments over 20,000 in 1973 to more than 76.8% exceeding this number in 2009 (This question was not asked in the 1994 study, so it was not compared with the other studies). This tremendous increase in enrollment could correspond to the current educational expectations that employers have for their employees (that they have a degree), and it seems relative to the current economy and job market.

Results for Research Question 1

Are the components a required learning set in the institution‘s degree or certificate program? In order to answer Research Question 1, professors were asked if the component was a required learning set in their institution‘s degree or certificate program. Appendix E presents the specific survey marking questions designed to address this research question. The data indicated by highest frequency that the components of leadership and vision (88.9%), laws and policies (82.8%), and curriculum and instruction (78.5%) were always required. Special education programming (34.9%) and advocacy (32.0%) were always required in only about a third of the institutional programs. When the answers ―rarely" and ―never" were combined, those components included in programs the least were professional development (8.0%), advocacy (16.9%), and special education programming (20.5%).

With the exception of advocacy and special education programming, the components were always included in 60–90% of the institutional programs as a required learning set. Additionally, 0.6–8.1% of the professors were unsure if the components were required, especially in regards to relationship building and communication (8.1%), special education programming (8.0%), and advocacy (7.0%). Table 4.4 presents the findings for whether each of the 12 components is required learning in the institution‘s degree and certificate program by mean (descending order), frequency, and standard deviation.

Table 4.4

Survey Data Indicating How Often Each Component Is Required Learning

Component (C)	Frequency					*n*	*M*	*SD*
	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Unsure			
C2. Leadership & vision	88.9% (160)	9.4% (17)	0.0% (0)	1.1% (2)	0.6% (1)	180	3.87	.424
C4. Laws & policies	82.8% (149)	12.8% (23)	1.7% (3)	0.6% (1)	2.2% (4)	180	3.82	.467
C5. Curriculum & instruction	78.5% (139)	16.4% (29)	1.7% (3)	0.6% (1)	2.8% (5)	177	3.78	.493
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	75.1% (133)	22.0% (39)	1.1% (2)	0.6% (1)	1.1% (2)	177	3.74	.502
C10. Organization	73.6% (128)	20.1% (35)	4.0% (7)	0.0% (0)	2.3% (4)	174	3.71	.538
C6. Personnel	71.2% (126)	24.3% (43)	1.7% (3)	0.6% (1)	2.3% (4)	177	3.70	.530
C8. Collaboration & consultation	70.9% (124)	25.7% (45)	1.7% (3)	0.6% (1)	1.1% (2)	175	3.69	.535
C1. Relationship building & communication	65.4% (121)	21.6% (40)	2.7% (5)	2.2% (4)	*8.1% (15)*	185	3.64	.659
C3. Budget & capital	67.8% (122)	22.8% (41)	4.4% (8)	2.2% (4)	2.8% (5)	180	3.61	.686
C11. Professional development	59.8% (104)	29.3% (51)	6.9% (12)	1.1% (2)	2.9% (5)	174	3.52	.682
C12. Advocacy	32.0% (55)	*44.2% (76)*	14.0% (24)	2.9% (5)	7.0% (12)	172	3.13	.778
C9. Special education programming	34.9% (61)	36.6% (64)	15.4% (27)	5.1% (14)	8.0% (14)	175	3.10	.875

Note. Mean score based on a Likert scale from 1 (*never*) to 4 (*always*).

Results for Research Question 2

Are professors knowledgeable of, or experts in, the components? In order to answer Research Question 2, two separate questions were asked of the professors: their level of expertise regarding the component and to what extent their personal research agenda was in the component area. Appendix E presents the specific survey

marking questions designed to address these research questions. The data indicated that the professor‘s level of expertise varied by component, but those ―clearly within the professor‘s level of expertise” were leadership and vision (80.1%), relationship building and communication (67.6%), and collaboration and consultation (66.3%). When the survey choices of ―clearly within my expertise” and ―some external input required” were combined, the professor‘s level of expertise ranged from 57.3–96.6% for all components other than special education programming (47.1%). The components that the professors ―would be uncomfortable teaching” were special education programming (27.3%), budget and capital (24.2%), and laws and policies (11.2%). However, when the survey choices of being uncomfortable and of requiring ―extensive external input” were combined, budget and capital (42.7%) and special education programming (52.9%) were the two components where the professors had the least expertise. Table 4.5 presents the findings for the professor‘s level of expertise regarding each component by mean (descending order), frequency, and standard deviation.

Table 4.5

Survey Results on Professors' Level of Expertise in Each Component

	Level of expertise						
Component (C)	Clearly within expertise	Some external input required	Extensive external input required	Would be uncomfortable teaching this component	*n*	*M*	*SD*
C2. Leadership & vision	80.1% (141)	16.5% (29)	2.8% (5)	0.6% (1)	176	3.76	.524
C1. Relationship building & communication	67.6% (125)	25.9% (48)	3.8% (7)	2.7% (5)	185	3.58	.695
C8. Collaboration & consultation	66.3% (114)	23.8% (41)	8.7% (15)	1.2% (2)	172	3.55	.703
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	55.7% (98)	34.7% (61)	6.8% (12)	2.8% (5)	176	3.43	.745
C10. Organization	52.3% (90)	30.2% (52)	11.6% (20)	5.8% (10)	172	3.29	.890
C11. Professional development	47.4% (81)	38.0% (65)	8.8% (15)	5.8% (10)	171	3.27	.853
C5. Curriculum & instruction	42.2% (73)	38.7% (67)	13.3% (23)	5.8% (10)	173	3.17	.872
C12. Advocacy	43.1% (75)	34.5% (60)	12.1% (21)	10.3% (18)	174	3.10	.980
C6. Personnel	40.6% (71)	36.0% (63)	14.3% (25)	9.1% (16)	175	3.08	.956
C4. Laws & policies	29.8% (53)	41.6% (74)	17.4% (31)	11.2% (20)	178	2.90	.957
C3. Budget & capital	23.6% (42)	33.7% (60)	18.5% (33)	24.2% (43)	178	2.57	1.099
C9. Special education programming	16.3% (28)	30.8% (53)	25.6% (44)	27.3% (47)	172	2.36	1.053

Note. Mean based on a Likert scale from 1 (*uncomfortable*) to 4 (*clearly within expertise*).

The next survey question asked each professor to what extent the component was a part of his or her personal research agenda. The data indicated that percentages for each component decreased greatly, compared to the professor's level of expertise

regarding the component. The components with the highest percentages of professors stating ―all" of their research was in that area were leadership and vision (16.3%), relationship building and communication (13.6%), and collaboration and consultation (10.3%). Personnel (2.9%), budget and capital (1.7%), and special education programming (1.7%) had the fewest number of professors completing all of their research in this area. Notably, 51.7% of professors indicated that none of their research is in special education programming. Further, 43.2% of professors indicated no research in budget and capital, and 31.2% reported no research in advocacy. Table 4.6 presents the findings for if the component is part of the professor's research agenda by mean (descending order), frequency, and standard deviation.

Table 4.6

Survey Results on Components as Part of the Professors' Research Agenda

	Frequency of the professor's research in the area						
Component (C)	All of my research	Some of my research	Very little of my research	None	*n*	*M*	*SD*
C2. Leadership & vision	16.3% (29)	65.7% (117)	10.7% (19)	7.3% (13)	178	2.91	.746
C1. Relationship building & communication	13.6% (25)	54.3% (100)	16.3% (30)	15.8% (29)	184	2.66	.904
C8. Collaboration & consultation	10.3% (18)	49.4% (86)	22.4% (39)	17.8% (31)	174	2.52	.904
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	6.3% (11)	52.3% (92)	22.2% (39)	19.3% (34)	176	2.45	.874
C5. Curriculum & instruction	9.1% (16)	39.8% (70)	30.1% (53)	21.0% (37)	176	2.37	.916
C11. Professional development	5.8% (10)	42.4% (73)	28.5% (49)	23.3% (40)	172	2.31	.894
C10. Organization	6.5% (11)	39.6% (67)	27.2% (46)	26.6% (45)	169	2.26	.928
C4. Laws & policies	9.6% (17)	31.6% (56)	32.8% (58)	26.0% (46)	177	2.25	.951
C12. Advocacy	9.4% (16)	31.2% (53)	28.2% (48)	31.2% (53)	170	2.19	.985
C6. Personnel	2.9% (5)	41.0% (71)	27.7% (48)	28.3% (49)	173	2.18	.883
C3. Budget & capital	1.7% (3)	14.2% (25)	*40.9% (72)*	43.2% (76)	176	1.74	.762
C9. Special education programming	1.7% (3)	17.4% (30)	29.1% (50)	*51.7% (89)*	172	1.69	.819

Note. Mean based on a Likert scale from 1 (*none*) to 4 (*all*).

Results for Research Question 3

Do professors feel that the components are essential for preparing future educational administrators and leaders? In order to answer Research Question 3, professors were asked to what extent they feel the component was essential for future

administrators to know, in order to perform their job effectively. Professors reported that the components deemed very important for future administrators to know were relationship building and communication (94.1%), leadership and vision (93.9%) and curriculum and instruction (88.1%). These data supported the empirical literature; relationship building and communication was ranked first and leadership and vision was ranked second in the literature as well. Curriculum and instruction was ranked third in importance by the professors, compared to fifth in the literature.

In contrast, the component areas that had the highest percentage of professors who reported that the component was of low or no importance were advocacy (5.8%), organization (4.5%), and professional development (4.0%). These results were completely in sync with the empirical literature; out of the 12 components needed by administrators, advocacy ranked Number 12, organization ranked Number 10, and professional development ranked Number 11 in the empirical literature. The professors‘ responses validated the literature suggesting that out of the 12 components, these appeared to be the least needed by future administrators. Table 4.7 displays by percentage, mean, frequency, and standard deviation the results for this question.

Table 4.7

Survey Results on Importance of Components for Future Administrators

Component (C)	Degree of importance: Very important	Moderately important	Low importance	Not important	*N*	*M*	*SD*
C1. Relationship building & communication	94.1% (175)	4.8% (9)	1.1% (2)	0% (0)	186	3.93	.295
C2. Leadership & vision	93.9% (168)	5.6% (10)	0.6% (1)	0% (0)	179	3.93	.272
C4. Laws & policies	83.2% (149)	15.6% (28)	1.1% (2)	0% (0)	179	3.87	.412
C6. Personnel	81.5% (145)	15.2% (27)	2.8% (5)	0.6% (1)	178	3.84	.515
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	84.5% (147)	14.9% (26)	0.6% (1)	0% (0)	174	3.82	.384
C11. Professional development	75.3% (131)	20.7% (36)	3.4% (6)	0.6% (1)	174	3.81	.559
C8. Collaboration & consultation	82.4% (145)	16.5% (29)	1.1% (2)	0% (0)	176	3.78	.420
C10. Organization	70.1% (122)	25.3% (44)	3.4% (6)	1.1% (2)	174	3.71	.608
C9. Special education programming	72.0% (126)	24.6% (43)	3.4% (6)	0% (0)	175	3.69	.535
C5. Curriculum & instruction	88.1% (156)	10.7% (19)	1.1% (2)	0% (0)	177	3.65	.369
C3. Budget & capital	68.7% (123)	27.4% (49)	3.9% (7)	0% (0)	179	3.64	.555
C12. Advocacy	63.0% (109)	*31.2% (54)*	*4.6% (8)*	*1.2% (2)*	173	3.56	.641

Note. Mean score based on a Likert scale from 1 (*not important*) to 4 (*very important*).

Results for Research Question 4

Do the classes routinely taught by professors include the identified components? In order to answer Research Question 4, professors were asked to what extent, in all courses they routinely taught, the 12 empirically identified components

(based on the definition given) were included in their syllabi, lectures, readings, training simulations, and field experiences. Appendix E presents the definition for each component and its specific survey questions. Tables 4.8–4.12 display the breakdown of the 12 components within the five individual course areas, respectively: (a) syllabus, (b) lectures, (c) readings, (d) training simulations, and (e) field experiences. Table 4.13 displays the aggregate composite score for the five course areas. Data within the tables are displayed by mean, in descending rank order.

The data indicated that all 12 empirically identified components were being included in the majority of the courses the professors routinely teach. However, the extent to which they were being taught differed greatly, as did the rank order of the components being taught in the classrooms versus that suggested by the empirical literature.

Syllabus

Among participating professors from the UCEA member institutions, 71.5% reported always including the component of leadership and vision in the syllabus. Next, 56.0% of professors reported always including relationship building and communication in the syllabus, compared to 48.9% for collaboration and consultation. By contrast, 25.0% of professors reported never including the component of special education and programming in the syllabus, and 21.5% never included budget and capital. Table 4.8 presents the findings for the components included in the syllabus by percentage, mean (descending order), frequency, and standard deviation.

Table 4.8

Survey Results of Frequency of Professors' Inclusion of Components in Syllabus

Component (C)	All the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never	*n*	*M*	*SD*
C2. Leadership & vision	71.5% (128)	22.3% (40)	3.9% (7)	2.2% (4)	179	3.63	.669
C1. Relationship building & communication	56.0% (102)	30.2% (55)	9.9% (18)	3.8% (7)	182	3.38	.818
C8. Collaboration & consultation	48.9% (85)	39.7% (69)	8.6% (15)	2.9% (5)	174	3.34	.758
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	37.4% (65)	47.7% (83)	12.1% (21)	2.9% (5)	174	3.20	.758
C5. Curriculum & instruction	40.9% (72)	33.5% (59)	19.9% (35)	5.7% (10)	176	3.10	.911
C10. Organization	36.6% (63)	43.0% (74)	12.8% (22)	7.6% (13)	172	3.09	.891
C11. Professional development	36.6% (63)	42.4% (73)	14.5% (25)	6.4% (11)	172	3.09	.874
C4. Laws & policies	29.9% (53)	45.8% (81)	16.9% (30)	7.3% (13)	177	2.98	.876
C6. Personnel	27.3% (48)	*48.3% (85)*	14.8% (26)	9.7% (17)	176	2.93	.898
C12. Advocacy	31.6% (54)	39.8% (68)	14.6% (25)	14.0% (24)	171	2.89	1.008
C9. Special education programming	16.8% (29)	27.2% (47)	30.6% (53)	25.4% (44)	173	2.35	1.038
C3. Budget & capital	11.3% (20)	33.3% (59)	33.9% (60)	21.5% (38)	177	2.34	.941

Note. Mean scores based on a Likert scale from 1 (*never*) to 4 (*all of the time*).

Lectures

When asked about their course lectures, 61.6% of professors reported always including leadership and vision in the class lectures, with 49.7% always including relationship building and communication in lectures, and 46.2% always including collaboration and consultation. In contrast, 23.4% of professors reported never including special education programming in their lectures, and 18.3% never included

budget and capital. Table 4.9 presents the findings for the components included in the lectures by percentage, mean (descending order), frequency, and standard deviation.

Table 4.9

Survey Results of Frequency of Professors' Inclusion of Components in Lectures

Component (C)	All the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never	*N*	*M*	*SD*
C2. Leadership & vision	61.6% (109)	36.2% (64)	1.1% (2)	1.1% (2)	177	3.58	.579
C1. Relationship building & communication	49.7% (90)	44.8% (81)	4.4% (8)	1.1% (2)	181	3.43	.634
C8. Collaboration & consultation	46.2% (80)	43.9% (76)	6.9% (12)	2.9% (5)	173	3.34	.734
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	34.3% (59)	51.7% (89)	11.0% (19)	2.9% (5)	172	3.17	.737
C5. Curriculum & instruction	37.4% (65)	41.4% (72)	15.5% (27)	5.7% (10)	174	3.10	.867
C11. Professional development	35.1% (60)	44.4% (76)	13.5% (23)	7.0% (12)	171	3.08	.875
C10. Organization	32.7% (56)	46.2% (79)	14.0% (24)	7.0% (12)	171	3.05	.866
C4. Laws & policies	28.6% (50)	48.6% (85)	16.0% (28)	6.9% (12)	175	2.99	.851
C6. Personnel	24.9% (43)	*52.0% (90)*	15.0% (26)	8.1% (14)	173	2.94	.850
C12. Advocacy	30.8% (52)	43.2% (73)	13.0% (22)	13.0% (22)	169	2.92	.978
C3. Budget & capital	10.3% (18)	40.6% (71)	30.9% (54)	18.3% (32)	175	2.43	.906
C9. Special education programming	14.0% (24)	30.4% (52)	32.2% (55)	23.4% (40)	171	2.35	.991

Note. Mean scores based on a Likert scale from 1 (*never*) to 4 (*all of the time*).

Class Readings

When asked about class readings in courses they routinely taught, 59.4% of the professors reported always including leadership and vision, 56.3% reported always including relationship building and communication, and 42.5% reported

always including collaboration and consultation in class readings. Further, 25.1% of the professors reported never including special education programming in the readings, and 19.1% reported never including budget and capital. Table 4.10 presents the findings for the components included in the readings by percentage, mean (descending order), frequency, and standard deviation.

Table 4.10

Survey Results of Frequency of Professors' Inclusion of Components in Class Readings

Component (C)	All the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never	*n*	*M*	*SD*
C2. Leadership & vision	59.4% (104)	36.0% (63)	3.4% (6)	1.1% (2)	175	3.54	0.623
C1. Relationship building & communication	45.3% (82)	45.3% (82)	6.6% (12)	2.8% (5)	181	3.33	0.723
C8. Collaboration & consultation	42.5% (74)	46.6% (81)	8.0% (14)	2.9% (5)	174	3.29	0.736
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	34.7% (60)	*50.3% (87)*	12.1% (21)	2.9% (5)	173	3.17	0.748
C5. Curriculum & instruction	38.4% (66)	37.8% (65)	19.8% (34)	4.1% (7)	172	3.10	0.859
C11. Professional development	34.3% (59)	44.8% (77)	14.5% (25)	6.4% (11)	172	3.07	0.862
C10. Organization	33.1% (57)	44.8% (77)	14.5% (25)	7.6% (13)	172	3.03	0.885
C4. Laws & policies	29.1% (51)	45.1% (79)	19.4% (34)	6.3% (11)	175	2.97	0.861
C6. Personnel	26.2% (45)	49.4% (85)	15.7% (27)	8.7% (15)	172	2.93	0.876
C12. Advocacy	28.7% (49)	43.9% (75)	14.6% (25)	12.9% (22)	171	2.88	0.969
C3. Budget & capital	9.2% (16)	42.2% (73)	29.5% (51)	19.1% (33)	173	2.42	0.902
C9. Special education programming	14.6% (25)	29.2% (50)	31.0% (53)	25.1% (43)	171	2.33	1.012

Note. Mean scores based on a Likert scale from 1 (*never*) to 4 (*all of the time*).

Training Simulations

In all courses routinely taught by the professors, leadership and vision was always taught in the classroom training simulations by 45.7% of the professors. The components of relationship building and communication and of collaboration and consultation were both always included in training simulations by 36.5% of the professors. Further, 32.3% of professors reported never including special education programming, and 28.2% reported never including budget and capital in training simulations. Table 4.11 presents the findings for the components included in the training simulations by percentage, mean (descending order), frequency, and standard deviation.

Table 4.11

Survey Results of Frequency of Professors' Inclusion of Components in Training Simulations

Component (C)	All the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never	*n*	*M*	*SD*
C2. Leadership & vision	45.7% (74)	33.3% (54)	8.0% (13)	13.0% (21)	162	3.12	1.024
C8. Collaboration & consultation	36.5% (58)	37.7% (60)	10.7% (17)	15.1% (24)	159	2.96	1.039
C1. Relationship building & communication	36.5% (61)	35.3% (59)	12.6% (21)	15.6% (26)	167	2.93	1.056
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	30.4% (48)	39.9% (63)	14.6% (23)	15.2% (24)	158	2.85	1.021
C11. Professional development	31.4% (49)	37.2% (58)	15.4% (24)	16.0% (25)	156	2.84	1.044
C10. Organization	27.7% (44)	36.5% (58)	17.6% (28)	18.2% (29)	159	2.74	1.058
C5. Curriculum & instruction	28.4% (46)	35.2% (57)	18.5% (30)	17.9% (29)	162	2.74	1.061
C6. Personnel	23.4% (37)	*43.0% (68)*	15.2% (24)	18.4% (29)	158	2.72	1.023
C12. Advocacy	25.2% (39)	38.1% (59)	13.5% (21)	23.2% (36)	155	2.65	1.097
C4. Laws & policies	20.0% (32)	40.0% (64)	23.1% (37)	16.9% (27)	160	2.63	0.988
C3. Budget & capital	10.3% (16)	37.2% (58)	24.4% (38)	28.2% (44)	156	2.29	0.992
C9. Special education programming	10.8% (17)	24.1% (38)	32.9% (52)	32.3% (51)	158	2.13	0.991

Note. Mean scores based on a Likert scale from 1 (*never*) to 4 (*all of the time*).

Field Experiences

In all courses routinely taught by the professors, half of the professors reported always including leadership and vision in field experiences, with 46.2% reporting including collaboration and consultation, and 45.7% always including relationship building and communication in field experiences. Further, 27.1% of

professors reported never including special education programming in field experiences, and 24.4% reported never including budget and capital. Table 4.12 presents the findings for the components included in the field experiences by percentage, mean (descending order), frequency, and standard deviation.

Table 4.12

Survey Results of Frequency of Professors' Inclusion of Components in Field Experiences

Component (C)	All the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never	*n*	*M*	*SD*
C2. Leadership & vision	50.0% (79)	31.6% (50)	7.0% (11)	11.4% (18)	158	3.20	0.995
C8. Collaboration & consultation	46.2% (72)	33.3% (52)	7.7% (12)	12.8% (20)	156	3.13	1.021
C1. Relationship building & communication	45.7% (75)	31.7% (52)	6.1% (10)	16.5% (27)	164	3.07	1.086
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	36.8% (57)	39.4% (61)	10.3% (16)	13.5% (21)	155	2.99	1.010
C11. Professional development	34.2% (52)	36.7% (55)	16.4% (25)	13.2% (20)	152	2.91	1.016
C10. Organization	34.4% (52)	33.8% (51)	17.9% (27)	13.9% (21)	151	2.89	1.036
C5. Curriculum & instruction	34.6% (54)	34.6% (54)	15.4% (24)	15.4% (24)	156	2.88	1.053
C6. Personnel	29.6% (45)	43.4% (66)	12.5% (19)	14.5% (22)	152	2.88	0.996
C12. Advocacy	26.5% (40)	39.1% (59)	15.2% (23)	19.2% (29)	151	2.73	1.058
C4. Laws & policies	22.2% (35)	41.1% (65)	21.5% (34)	15.2% (24)	158	2.70	0.981
C3. Budget & capital	14.1% (22)	35.3% (55)	26.3% (41)	24.4% (38)	156	2.39	1.007
C9. Special education programming	14.2% (22)	28.4% (44)	30.3% (47)	27.1% (42)	155	2.30	1.020

Note. Mean scores based on a Likert scale from 1 (*never*) to 4 (*all of the time*).

The data indicated that professors included the components at the greatest frequency within their syllabi, and then within their lectures and readings. A decline was observed in the frequency of inclusion when the course areas of training simulations and field experiences are analyzed. This might be because professors have complete control over what they include in their syllabi, readings, and lectures. As many training simulations and field experiences are completed outside of the classroom, the professor might not have any authority over the components included, or might not know what the students experienced.

Composite Score

In order to conduct further analyses, the five course areas (syllabus, lectures, readings, training simulations, and field experiences) were aggregated into one composite score. This composite score was derived for each component by adding the individual professor‘s responses for syllabus, lectures, readings, training simulations, and field experiences and dividing it by 5 (the number of areas in each class that were evaluated). The composite scores and standard deviations are presented in Table 4.13. It should be noted that although the *n* was greater in the individual course areas for each component, when the five course areas were aggregated, the *n* was less than originally presented. Respondents had to have an answer for each of the five individual course areas in order for their answers to be summed in the aggregate. If they skipped one or more areas, their data were considered incomplete and thus not included in the aggregate mean, or *n*. The composite data indicated that leadership and vision ($M = 3.39$), relationship building and communication ($M = 3.22$),

collaboration and consultation (M = 3.20), and professional development (M = 3.02) were included the most within the aggregate of the five course areas, within all courses taught. Special education programming (M = 2.27), budget and capital (M = 2.37), and advocacy (M = 2.81) were included the least within all courses taught, based on the composite scores for each component.

It should also be noted that each component is numbered based on its significance in the literature synthesis. For instance, Component 1, relationship building and communication, was ranked first in the empirical literature as needed the most by future administrators who serve students with disabilities. However, when reviewing the composite scores, the five components routinely included by the professors in their courses at the greatest frequency were ranked Numbers 2, 1, 8, 7, and 11 in the literature. The reason for this discrepancy between the literature and what is being included by the professors cannot be determined, but may be a result of the professors‘ expertise in the component area, research agenda in relation to the component, or their thoughts about the importance of the component to future administrators.

Table 4.13

Aggregate Scores for Components Included in the Syllabus, Lectures, Readings, Trainings, and Field Experiences

Component (C)	*n*	Mean
C2. Leadership & vision	152	3.3934
C1. Relationship building & communication	157	3.2166
C8. Collaboration & consultation	152	3.1974
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	151	3.0834
C11. Professional development	148	3.0176
C5. Curriculum & instruction	151	2.9960
C10. Organization	150	2.9693
C6. Personnel	148	2.9284
C4. Laws & policies	153	2.8575
C12. Advocacy	148	2.8149
C3. Budget & capital	147	2.3701
C9. Special education programming	153	2.2706

Note. Mean scores based on a Likert scale from 1 (*never*) to 4 (*all of the time*).

Results for Research Question 5

Does a requirement to include the components increase the likelihood that the professor will include them within the courses they routinely teach? To answer Research Question 5, the component composite scores (from the syllabi, lectures, readings, training simulations, and field experiences) were correlated to questions: (a) whether the component was a required learning set, (b) the professor‘s level of expertise in the component area, (c) whether the component was part of the professor‘s research agenda, and (d) whether the professor felt that the component was important for future administrators. Pearson‘s correlation coefficients indicated the degree to which professors‘ knowledge and expertise regarding the component, and their belief regarding the importance of the component, influenced its

implementation in the courses they routinely taught (as measured by the component composite score). Although most correlations were statistically significant at the .05 or .01 level, higher correlation coefficients were found in the areas of research agenda and level of expertise than for being a required learning set or considered an important (essential) component for future administrators. In other words, if the component was a part of the professor‘s research agenda or was within their area of expertise, that professor was significantly more likely to teach that component in a course.

Further, there was no significant relationship found between a component being part of the required learning set within the institution‘s degree plan or certification and the likelihood of the component being included in the course. Additionally, no relationship was found between the professor‘s perception of the importance of the component for future administrators and including that component in a course. Apparently, what components are taught in the professors‘ courses has everything to do with the professors‘ areas of interest and expertise and little to nothing to do with institutional requirements or perceived importance to a future administrator. Table 4.14 illustrates these results.

Table 4.14

Component Composite Scores Correlated to Required Learning Set, Level of Expertise, Research Agenda, and Perceived Importance of Component

Component	Required learning set	Level of expertise	Part of research agenda	Importance
1. Relationship building & communication				
Pearson correlation	450**	592**	562**	271**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.001
N	144	156	155	157
2. Leadership & vision				
Pearson correlation	.187*	.571**	.365**	.0153
Sig. (2-tailed)	.021	.000	.000	.059
N	152	148	150	152
3. Budget & capital				
Pearson correlation	.124	.599**	.413**	.334**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.138	.000	.000	.000
N	144	145	143	146
4. Laws & policies				
Pearson correlation	.142	.696**	.528**	.280**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.083	.000	.000	.000
N	150	151	151	152
5. Curriculum & instruction				
Pearson correlation	.219**	.764**	.581**	.382**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.000	.000	.000
N	146	147	149	150
6. Personnel				
Pearson correlation	.478**	.766**	.554**	.383**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
N	144	145	143	148
7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers				
Pearson correlation	.320**	.656**	.559**	.320**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
N	150	151	150	149
8. Collaboration & consultation				
Pearson correlation	.399**	.648**	.600**	.511**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
N	152	148	150	152
9. Special education programming				
Pearson correlation	.378**	.771**	.582**	.355**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
N	142	151	150	153

Component	Required learning set	Level of expertise	Part of research agenda	Importance
10. Organization				
Pearson correlation	.346**	.691**	.598**	.361**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
N	147	148	145	150
11. Professional development				
Pearson correlation	.394	.643**	.543**	.428**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
N	145	145	146	148
12. Advocacy				
Pearson correlation	.561**	.738**	.738**	.648**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
N	138	148	146	148

*$p < .05$ (2-tailed). **$p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Results for Research Question 6

Is there an association between the classes routinely taught by the professors and the inclusion of the identified components in their courses? To expand on the primary research question, and to determine if there was a relationship between the classes routinely taught by the professor and the inclusion of the identified components (based on composite scores) within the courses, Pearson‘s correlation was used to analyze the data. Classes taught were coded dichotomously: 0 = never taught and 1 = taught. The data presented in Table 4.15 are of the components that were statistically significant. Appendix G presents all results for these data. Not all courses or components had significant relationships.

The courses in the area of administration/leadership and curriculum and in the area of instruction/professional development both had 7 of the 12 components show a statistically significant relationship. The significant components within both courses appeared as vital to the course and were areas in which all administrators would need

to focus, based upon the course area and the content taught. Interestingly, the course area of socio- and multicultural contexts and special populations had no components found to be statistically significantly related, meaning that there was not a significant relationship between the course area and any of the 12 components. The lack of a relationship with the components of special education programming or advocacy was surprising, as these courses primarily focus on special population groups (students receiving special education services, English language learners, students of color, etc.) who normally need greater services or advocacy. Additionally, the component of advocacy was not found to be statistically significant in any of the courses. The reason for this cannot be determined based on the data, but the results support the literature, where advocacy ranked last of the 12 components.

Table 4.15

Relationship Between Courses Routinely Taught and Inclusion of Components (Based on Composite Scores) in the Courses

Course and components	Pearson correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	*N*
Administration and leadership			
C1. Relationship building and communication	.232**	.003	157
C2. Leadership & vision	.299**	.000	152
C3. Budget & capital	.170*	.039	147
C5. Curriculum & instruction	.244**	.003	151
C6. Personnel	.169*	.041	148
C8. Collaboration & consultation	.169*	.037	152
C10. Organization	.313**	.000	150
Research			
C1. Relationship building & communication	-.171*	.032	157
C2. Leadership & vision	-.202*	.013	152
C4. Laws & policies	-.299**	.000	153
C6. Personnel	-.192*	.019	148
C9. Special education programming	-.175*	.031	153
Internships, seminars, and supervision			
C3. Budget & capital	.190*	.021	147
C10. Organization	.271**	.001	150
Ethics			
C5. Curriculum & instruction	-.185*	.023	151
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	-.284**	.000	151
C8. Collaboration & consultation	-.195*	.016	152
C11. Professional development	-.247**	.002	148
Law, policy, and reform			
C4. Laws & policies	-.245**	.002	153
C8. Collaboration & consultation	-.242**	.003	152
C11. Professional development	-.202*	.014	148
Socio- and multicultural contexts and special populations			
None	—	—	—
Curriculum and instruction/professional development			
C1. Relationship building & communication	.191*	.017	157
C2. Leadership & vision	.164*	.043	152
C5. Curriculum & instruction	.380**	.000	151
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, teachers, & students	.160*	.050	151
C8. Collaboration & consultation	.186*	.022	152
C9. Special education programming	.164*	.043	153
C11. Professional development	.357**	.000	148
School finance and human resources/capital			
C6. Personnel	.216**	.008	148
Relationships (personal, school, and community)			
C1. Relationship building and communication	.194*	.015	157
C8. Collaboration and consultation	.219**	.009	152
C10. Organization	-.177*	.031	150
All other courses			
C11. Professional development	.202*	.014	148

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Additional Results: Professor Recommendations

The end of the survey asked each professor to answer the following question: ―Are there any components other than the 12 that you responded to, that you feel are essential for administrator preparation, in regards to serving students with disabilities (i.e., emerging issues, things discussed in class, etc.)?" Systemic professor recommendations varied but could be coded into the following categories: (a) social justice, (b) diversity regarding special population groups, (c) ethics and decision making, (d) joint accountability, (e) advocacy and collaboration, (f) research, (g) internships and field experiences, and (h) general comments. Although some of the categories or topics were addressed within the component definition or survey, these individual professors felt that this additional information should be covered within the courses they teach.

Social Justice

One professor commented,

> My focus really is social justice, inclusion, and equity—and they overlap many of these area. I do not, for example, teach finance, but how do you talk about justice without touching on budgets, etc? Likewise—professional development for what? Curriculum also overlaps with dialogue and inclusivity, etc. I would have like a separate component about this.

Another noted, ―The linkage between social justice and serving students with disabilities is not talked about as often in social justice _circles.'" Another commented, ―I try and teach policy with a social justice, critical theory lens—special education and disabilities comes up frequently in this context." One wrote, ―Social

justice is a strong component of our program, which I assume is similar to your category of Advocacy." Additional comments were related to the following:

- issues related to social justice, for example, racism as related to disability;
- social justice, building a learning community that empowers teachers around issues of teaching and learning, and building a learning organization;
- social justice, gender equity, and women in leadership;
- the politics of education (who gets what and why);
- social justice and democracy;
- recognition that social justice/advocacy includes topics related to gender and sexuality;
- commitment to social justice for all students; and
- social justice and equity issues across racial and ethnic groups.

Diversity Regarding Special Population Groups

Professors commented on diversity issues and sensitivity to differences and individual needs. This included working in community schools, in urban schools, and with socioeconomically disadvantaged students. One professor responded,

> Administrators need to see how serving kids with disabilities is similar to serving kids who are English language learners, at-risk, etc. Trying to define expertise that is unique to special education administration, as this survey does, is part of the problem.

Another noted that future administrators ~~n~~need to understand the appropriate use and misuse of special education services and the disparate impact and particular groups of

students." A professor suggested, "It would be helpful to look at the Maternal and Child Health competencies for administrator preparation, in regards to contributing to the health and well-being of our nation's most vulnerable population groups, and to inspire other to do likewise." One noted, "I'm not sure where over-representation and disproportionality come into your 12-factor rubric, but understanding that phenomenon is important for all school leaders." Another cited "cultural diversity, White privilege, equity and excellence, special education overrepresentation of students of color and males of color in particular in special education classes." A respondent added, "Language acquisition theory, the nexus between [English language learners] and special education, the role of extracurricular activities in special education students' mainstreaming and their progress." This respondent cited "programming and political obstacles and opportunities" to meet the needs of English language learners. Finally, a special education certified professor expressed concern that "state education agencies who influence teacher certifications do not require Special Education and Multicultural training for teachers and administrators."

Ethics and Decision Making

Five professors recommended ethics or "decision making informed by ethical analysis." A respondent commented, "I would think a formal background in decision making would help administrators identify problems in special education and develop solutions." Another cited "the ethical imperative of school leadership to provide educational opportunity to all students, including students with disabilities."

Joint Accountability

Comments referred to collaboration and joint accountability between regular education and special education teachers and administrators. One professor suggested, "Joint accountability for student outcomes between general and special educators. This goes beyond the traditional notions of collaboration." Another noted "the relationship between special and regular education leadership; the importance of the role of leadership in providing Free and Appropriate Public Education (FAPE)." A professor cited NCLB:

> NCLB's (and ELCC's [Educational Leadership Constituent Council]) notion of leadership is grossly outdated and rooted in early 20th century assumptions. However, effective leadership is crucial to the success of school administrators. Leadership can be defined as: The ability to (a) create conditions that enable the organization to adapt, act creatively, and learn; and (b) any act of adaption, creativity, or learning that has an impact beyond the individual.

Finally, a respondent stated,

> Administrators, especially building administrators, must begin to take *full* responsibility for all students with disabilities in their schools. That means responsibility for the curriculum, attending their IEPs, including them in all the activities in the school, and connecting in a positive way with the parents of the disabled.

Advocacy and Collaboration

Professors offered the following suggestions in the area of advocacy and collaboration:

- interagency collaboration;
- passionate understanding;
- oversight and coordination of the IEP process;

- parent involvement and community service providers;
- the involvement and role of tribal, state, and national governments;
- student success using multiple measures;
- the "bigger picture in education"—its relationship to the economy, health, political, and social concerns and issues; and poverty factors.

Research

Another suggestion for competencies to teach aspiring future educational leaders was "how to consume and critique research." A professor also wrote,

> Increasing numbers of students in prep programs are unable to read the empirical literature in the field, which cuts them off from using research to inform decision making. This is a problem that involves special education as well as other important areas of administrative practice.

Internships and Field Experiences

Respondents suggested more extensive and thoughtfully planned field experiences. For instance, a professor cited "internship experience with students with disabilities while school is in session" as well as participation in child study team meetings, home visits, and "follow-a-child activities."

General Comments

One respondent commented,

> I'm somewhat stunned to see a total lack of social foundations, such as history of education or philosophy of education. Seems like we are preparing data managers rather than humanistic thinkers and leaders. Where would leaders ever learn about the market-driven, privatizing, neoliberal colonization of schooling? I suspect that many of us cover all of the things in the standards, but we do it very differently depending on the paradigm from which we work. A special education faculty member would teach about disability very differently than a disabilities studies faculty member, for instance.

Other general comments covered the following topics:

- dispositions;
- inclusionary and distributed leadership;
- understanding and facilitating the change process in an organization;
- learning theory, curriculum design, and politics;
- cultivating trust with families and within the school community, bolstering teacher and student self-efficacy;
- technology‘s impact on relationships and curriculum delivery; and politics and policy.

Finally, one commented, ―Don‘t you think there is something wrong if *everything* is very important for the principal?”

Results for Overarching Research Question

Do leading doctorate-granting institutions include in their preparation of educational leadership personnel empirically identified components critical to serving students with disabilities? The results of the six research questions would answer the overarching question.

In summary, the online survey measured if and to what extent 12 empirically identified components were included within courses of 197 professors at UCEA member institutions. Additional questions to be answered were whether the component was a required learning set within the institution‘s degree or certificate program, whether the professor was knowledgeable or an expert regarding the component, whether the component was part of the professor‘s research agenda, and

whether the professor felt that the component was essential for future administrator‘s to know.

The data indicated that the components were included at various extents and frequencies within the courses and their course areas (syllabus, lectures, readings, training simulations, and field experiences). When the professor had greater control over the component‘s inclusion in the course (such as within the syllabus, class readings, or lectures), the components were included at a great frequency. Yet, the components were included less frequently (or the professor was uncertain of their inclusion) when the professor did not have control of their inclusion, such as within field experiences or training simulations, which might occur off campus or within practicum settings. However, in all course areas, advocacy and special education programming were consistently included the least in the professor‘s courses.

The data presented for the component being a required learning set within the institution‘s degree or certificate program indicated that almost all components (other than advocacy and special education programming) were always or sometimes required. Leadership and vision and the component of laws and policies were required at the greatest frequency, whereas, as noted, advocacy and special education programming were required the least. It was also interesting that some of the professors were unsure if the component was even required within their program.

When the professor‘s degree of knowledge or expertise in the component area was compared to whether the component was part of the professor‘s research agenda, the two components (a) leadership and vision and (b) relationship building and

communication were ranked the highest by the professors for both questions. The components of (a) budget and capital and (b) special education programming were ranked at the bottom. The data for leadership and vision indicated that it is the component required the most by the institutions, coinciding with the data showing it to be the component area where the professors have the most knowledge and research. Yet, laws and policies was the second-place component required within the institution‘s degree programs but ranked in the bottom quarter when it came to the professor‘s level of expertise and research area.

Overall, 60% or more of all professors felt that every component was very important. Approximately 95% of all professors found all components to be either moderately or very important, and thus necessary. However, the components of relationship building and communication and of leadership and vision remained at the top. Advocacy and budget and capital were ranked last in terms of importance.

When all questions were combined, the components of relationship building and communication and of leadership and vision were found to rank at the top of the professor‘s answer choices. Overall, budget and capital, special education programming, and advocacy always ranked towards the bottom. Numerous professors offered their recommendations for additional components that should be offered within the courses. Although ethics was not one of the original 12 components found within the empirical literature, it continues to be a component or course that appears necessary for future administrators. Finally, the statement made by the professor, ―Don‘t you think that something is wrong if *everything* is very important for the

principal?" sums up the research questions, the empirical literature, and the new roles and responsibilities of the school administrator since the since the implementation of NCLB. The data indicated that although every component appears important in the literature and to the professor teaching the class, not all components are being taught to preservice administrators to the degree or extent in which they are warranted—so that future administrators are equipped to appropriately serve all students, including those with disabilities.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to describe whether and to what extent 12 empirically identified components were being taught by 197 professors in educational administration programs, within 78 UCEA institutions. The study was designed to determine if the following variables impacted the extent to which the component was included in the courses the professors routinely taught: (a) whether the component was a required learning set in the institution‘s degree or certificate programs, (b) the professors‘ level of expertise in the component, (c) relevance of the component to the professor‘s research agenda, and (d) the professors‘ perceptions of the component as essential for future administrators to know.

Patterns

Courses Routinely Taught by the Professor

Research Question 5 looked at to what extent the empirically identified components for training are included in the UCEA professor‘s syllabi, lectures, readings, training simulations, and field experiences. The results indicated that leadership and vision; relationship building and communication; collaboration and consultation; evaluation of data, programs, students and teachers; and professional development were included the most based on frequency and percentage. Special education programming, budget and capital, and advocacy were included the least. Additionally, within the five areas of the professor‘s course, the components were included within the course (at the greatest frequency) in the following order: (a)

syllabus, (b) lectures, (c) readings, (d) field experiences, and (e) training simulations. All 12 components validated in the empirical literature as essential did not appear to be so within the course or classroom instructional setting. This indicates that in theory, the components appear important enough to be addressed within the syllabus, lectures, and readings; however, in practical situations, such as within the training simulations and field experiences, the importance is reduced. Readings and lectures can tell an administrator what the law says or what needs to occur in a specific situation, but the training simulations and field experiences are where future administrators have hands-on experience in what is occurring in current practice. Regardless, all components must be included at a greater rate in the field experiences and training simulation portion of the course, so that future administrators are exposed to the actual job, responsibilities, and situations that may arise in practice.

Component as a Required Learning Set

Research Question 1 asked whether each of the identified training components was a required learning set within the universities‘ educational administration programs. Leadership and vision; laws and policies; curriculum and instruction; and evaluation of data, programs, students, and teachers were the courses that were required the most. Special education programming, advocacy, and professional development were required the least. The components required the least within the university program are also more likely to be excluded from the professors‘ courses with the greatest frequency, for it appears that there is no need to include a component within a course if it is not required.

The implication of this finding is that it refutes the common refrain, in which the components are part of the course and do not require separate courses. Yet, since each component is not always part of the required learning set within the course or university program, a separate course may indeed be needed to focus specifically on the individual component.

Level of Expertise and Research Agenda

Research Questions 2 asked whether professors were experts in the empirically identified components. Regarding their level of expertise and research efforts, leadership and vision; relationship building and communication; and evaluation of data, programs, teachers, and students; and collaboration and consultation ranked the highest. Budget and capital and special education programming ranked the lowest. These data are consistent with the previous questions and the ranking of these components. Plus, within the special education programming and law and policy components, the professor‘s level of expertise in the area is closest to their research agenda. These two areas are more specialized, so perhaps the expertise and research in each area are more closely aligned. In contrast, the professor‘s level of expertise and their research agendas were farthest apart in the areas of collaboration and consultation and evaluation of data, programs, teachers, and students. This may be due to the broadness of these component areas.

It is interesting to note that although evaluation of data, programs, students, and teachers ranked 4th out of 12 components in the composite score for being included in the professors‘ syllabi, lectures, readings, training stimuli, and field

experiences, the professors‘ research agendas are furthest from their level of expertise in this area. Additionally, although collaboration and consultation ranked 3rd out of 12 components for the professor‘s level of expertise and research agenda, and in the composite score for inclusion in the professor‘s syllabus, lectures, readings, training simulations, and field experiences, it also showed the greatest discrepancy between the professors‘ level of expertise and inclusion in their research agendas. Therefore, it could be deduced that although professors include collaboration and consultation in their courses and have a greater level of expertise with the component, they are not necessarily focusing their research on this area.

Importance of Component

Research Question 3 asked whether professors felt the components are essential for future administrators to know. The results remained consistent. Relationship building and communication as well as leadership and vision ranked the highest; budget and capital and advocacy ranked lowest. In regards to the empirical literature, the two components that were ranked by the professors as the top components—relationship building and communication, and leadership and vision—aligned with what the empirical literature suggested. These were the top-ranked components found within the literature. The professor‘s responses regarding the components of advocacy and special education programming were also aligned to the literature. Special education programming was ranked 9th and advocacy as 12th in the empirical literature; both ranked at the bottom for all professors‘ responses. However, the component that showed different findings in this study compared to

previous literature is budget and capital. In the empirical literature, the component is ranked 3rd as needed by future administrators; in all but one of the questions, professors in this study consistently ranked it last or next to last. The reason for this mismatch cannot be determined but should be noted for future research.

Comparison of All Results

A comparison of all results for the areas of empirical literature, course composite, required learning set, level of expertise, research agenda, and importance for future administrators was completed by ranking each component from 1–12, based upon its mean score within each area. The component ranked 1 had the highest mean score, meaning that it was included the most within that area. A rank of 12 indicated that the component was included the least. Figures 5.1–5.3 display these data and show the total pattern of the bar graphs, including the major inconsistencies (outliers) within the areas of law and policies, curriculum and instruction, and collaboration and consultation.

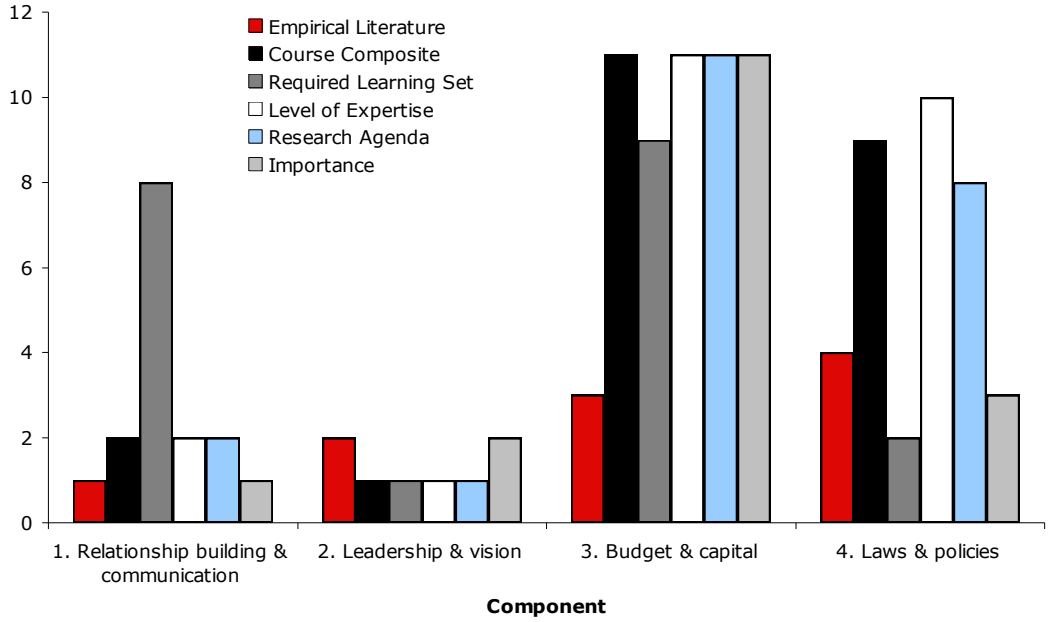


Figure 5.1. Ranking of Components 1–4 (on a scale of 1–12) based on mean scores in each area.

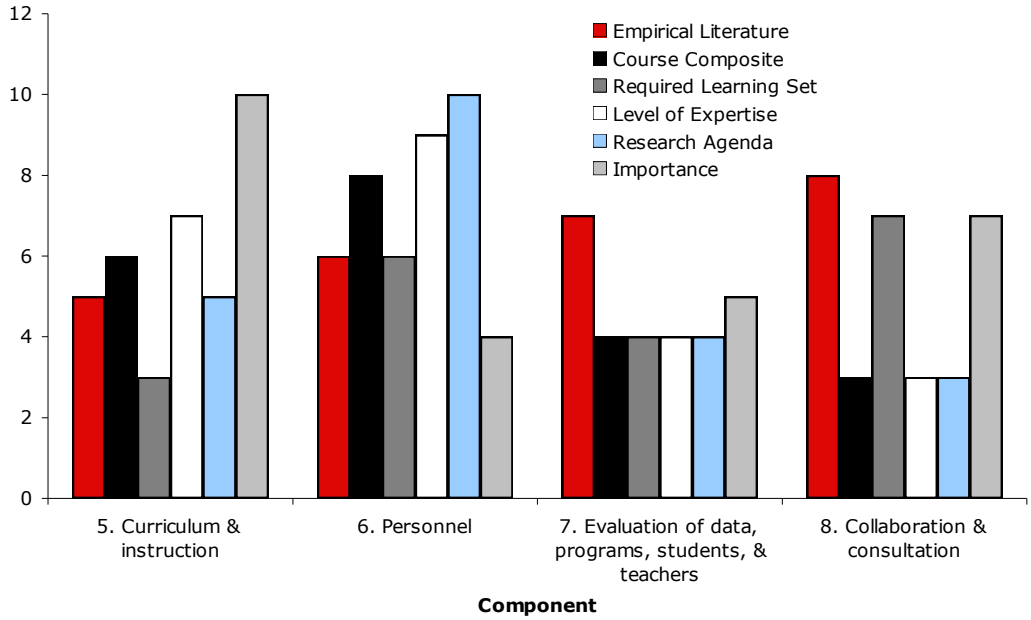


Figure 5.2. Ranking of Components 5–8 (on a scale of 1–12) based on mean scores in each area.

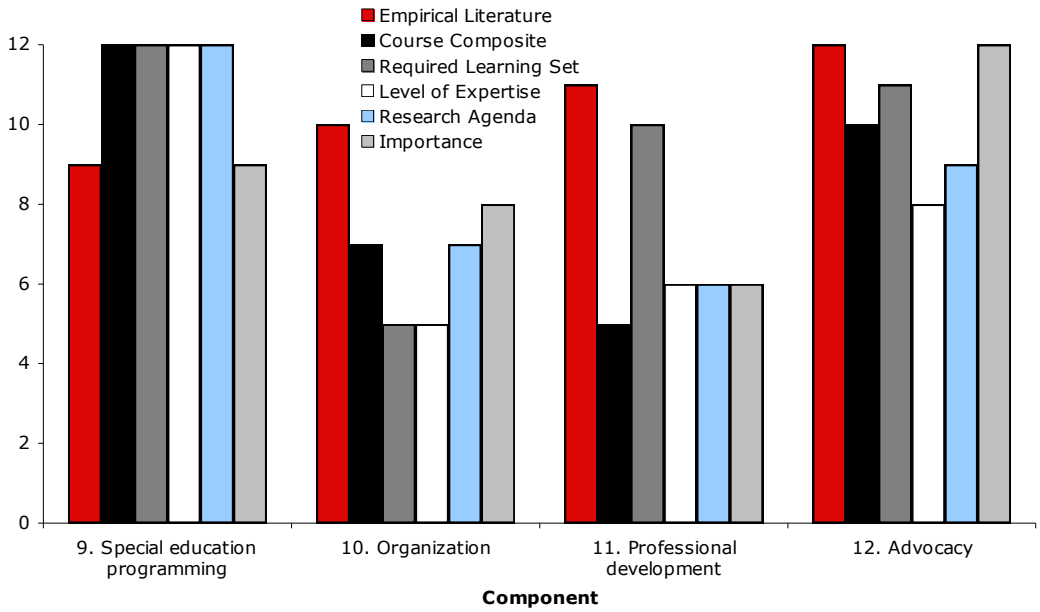


Figure 5.3. Ranking of Components 9–12 (on a scale of 1–12) based on mean scores in each area.

Relationship building and communication. This component was ranked 8th as a required learning set, but in every other area it ranked 1st or 2nd. Although it was not always a required learning set, this component was found within the empirical literature and taught at the highest levels within the courses (see Figure 5.1).

Leadership and vision. This component was the most consistent within all areas, ranking 1st or 2nd. Considering these results are for educational administration courses, it is good to know that this component was taught and included within the empirical literature at one of the greatest frequencies (see Figure 5.1).

Budget and capital. The results of this component are extremely concerning, for although it ranked 3rd within the empirical literature, it ranked 9th to 11th in all

other areas. Lack of knowledge in this component could cause administrators to lose their jobs, if funds are handled inappropriately or if a budget is not maintained; yet, it is not being taught (see Figure 5.1).

Laws and policies. This is another component where lack of knowledge could cost administrators their jobs or create litigation. University program leaders realize its importance, for it ranks 2nd as a required learning set. However, in all other areas it ranks between 8th and 10th. Although laws and policies are part of the required learning set, since the component is not a common part of the professors' level of expertise or research agenda, or thought to be essential, it is not being taught (see Figure 5.1).

Curriculum and instruction. This component ranked 3rd as a required learning set, but anywhere between 5th and 10th in all other areas. It is interesting to note that the 10th place ranking was for the area of being essential for future administrators to know (see Figure 5.2).

Personnel. The personnel component was ranked 4th as being essential for future administrators to know, but in all other areas it ranked between 6th and 10th. So although thought to be important, it was not being taught or found within the empirical literature at the same level (see Figure 5.2).

Evaluation of data, programs, students, and teachers. Ranked 7th in the empirical literature, this component ranked 4th to 5th in all other areas. The difference may be attributed to the implementation of NCLB (2002), which has made data an

important component for administrators, school, and districts, especially in relation to making AYP (see Figure 5.2).

Collaboration and consultation. This component ranked 8th in the empirical literature and 7th in both required learning set and essential for future administrators to know. In all other areas it ranked 3rd. This indicated that it was taught more within the professor's courses, even though it was not a required learning set at the same level. However, it should be noted that for this component, professor's research agendas and level of expertise were also ranked 3rd and in alignment with the level of inclusion in the course based on the composite scores (see Figure 5.2).

Special education programming. Ranked 9th within the empirical literature, and as an essential component that administrators should know, this component ranked in last place (12th) in all other areas. The data regarding special education programming creates an uncertainty as to why professors ranked it higher in its level of importance than in any other question. This may be due to NCLB (2002) mandates or accountability through AYP that now makes it the responsibility of the administrator to ensure all students' success. Regardless, there is a definite discrepancy between how important this component is thought to be for future administrators versus its presence in the classroom and within the professor's knowledge base and research agendas (see Figure 5.3).

Organization. Although the empirical research ranked this component in 10th place, and it was ranked 8th as essential for future administrators to know, in all other areas it was ranked below 7th place. This indicates that the component was a required

learning set and was found to be included in the professor's courses, research agenda, and level of expertise at a higher rate than they feel is important (see Figure 5.3).

Professional development. There appears to be a great discrepancy between this component's rank in the empirical literature (11^{th}) and its ranking in all other areas (6^{th} or below). One explanation could be the years in which the empirical research was conducted. Only 6 of the 17 studies were conducted after the implementation of NCLB (2002), indicating certain components may have become more important afterwards. Thus, the campus administrator and teachers are held accountable, making it extremely important that all school staff receive the necessary professional development to help every student succeed (see Figure 5.3).

Advocacy. The rankings for the component of advocacy ranged between 8^{th} and 12^{th}, making it the second least important component (to special education programming). This finding is ironic, because administrators should need to know how to advocate for their school, programs, students, and special population groups; without advocacy, there is no change or progress (see Figure 5.3).

Twelve Empirical Components Compared to ISLLC Standards

Although the bar graphs were a means to depict the discrepancies (by rank) within the six areas of the research study, they do not address the discrepancies found between what the empirical literature states are needed components for administrators; and what is recommended by national organizations, such as the ISLLC, within their administrator standards. When the two are compared (see Table 5.1), all 12 empirically identified components can fit within the six ISLLC standards

in some manner, but not necessarily using the same definition as found in the empirically identified components. It appears that a portion of the component's definition may have been in agreement with the ISLLC standard, but it is not inclusive to the whole. Therefore, major ideas and conceptualizations found within the component definitions do not match up as tightly to the ISLLC standards. This is of great concern because ISLLC standards drive program evaluation and accrediting bodies, administration preparation programs, and certification or licensure programs. Since major universities and administrator preparation programs use the ISLLC standards to design their programs, this is of some concern. Are the current standards based on empirical research or philosophical viewpoints? Regardless, there must be a greater alignment between the two, so that future administrators are truly being trained and prepared on the components that they will face daily.

Table 5.1

Twelve Empirically Identified Components Compared to Current Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) National Standards for School Leaders.

ISLLC standard	Component
Standard 1. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community.	C2. Leadership & vision
Standard 2. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.	C5. Curriculum & instruction C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers C9. Special education programming C11. Professional development C12. Advocacy
Standard 3. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.	C1. Relationship building & communication C3. Budget & capital C6. Personnel C10. Organization
Standard 4. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.	C1. Relationship building & communication C8. Collaboration & consultation
Standard 5. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.	C4. Laws & policies
Standard 6. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context.	C4. Laws & policies

Note. ISLLC standards taken from *Educational Leadership Policy Standards.* by ISLLC, 2008, retrieved April 14, 2009 from http://www.ccsso.org/content/pdfs/elps_isllc2008.pdf

Implications

Results of this study may be used to determine (a) the current level of preparation that is occurring within elite U.S. institutions and their departments of educational administration and leadership, regarding the critical identified components; (b) whether any discrepancies are present between what was found in the empirical research and what is being practiced (as reported by the participants of the study); (c) whether, and in what areas, educational administration and leadership programs need to be reconstructed or reconceptualized so that research and practice are consistent; and (d) future research needs in the area of administrator preparation and leadership. The following sections delineate implications for practice and future research.

Implications for Practice

The literature synthesis identified 12 components as critical for all administrators. In each component, special education programs and policies were embedded. Therefore, special education must no longer remain a specialization area, but instead an area of necessity for the preparation of all administrators. Legislation over the past 50 years has shifted the responsibility of the delivery of special education services to general education administrators. Administrators now spend significant portions of their time addressing special education issues and responsibilities. Added responsibilities and tremendous pressures tied to accountability, with a shortage of appropriately trained general and special educational administrators, have caused districts to look at alternatively trained

administrators as a means to address their leadership needs. Effective leadership impacts schools, and licensure requirements for administrator preparation programs have had limited content or requirements related to serving students with disabilities. Special education has faded as a vertical designation or separate part of the system, which has brought greater complexity within the conceptual framework for administrator preparation. A new urgency has emerged for special and general education to work as a unified system, thus providing a rationale for training these administrators together.

Implications for Preparation Programs

General education administrators must be trained in greater depth on the 12 identified components. Although the component category itself is broad, the skills and knowledge base pertaining to special education—once considered specialized (for special education administrators)—are now shared components for all administrators. Administrator preparation programs should no longer be vertically aligned and separated by complementary disciplines, for this research study indicates that legislation, philosophy, and practice require a unified or common preparation and practice. The assessments and high-stakes testing practices implemented by NCLB (2002) for all students require programs, services, and interventions to be linked in a unified system. This shared accountability generates a new and greater urgency for leaders of preparation programs for general education administrators to look at their prescribed programs and organizational designs to assure competent educational leadership for students with special needs. Thus, preparation for special education

administrators will need to include greater content associated with these increased organizational development skills Additionally, preparation programs must include in their programs, content that is derived not only from standards recommended by ISLLC or other councils; but those which are found within the empirical literature..

Implications for Research

Very few empirical studies have been completed related to the competencies required for general education administrators. Most competencies have been deduced from literature reviews, conceptual or theoretical development, and opinion papers. Many of the conceptual, experiential, and logical skills associated with educational leadership have not been studied in controlled ways that permit generalizations to discipline preparation or certification requirements. Controlled investigations of leadership competencies for educational organization are needed to define and satisfy societal concerns and misperceptions related to educational leadership. Empirical research is needed on the 12 components identified in the literature synthesis as critical for all educational administrators.

Many empirical studies appear highly linked or time dependent upon occurrences outside the discipline such as legislation, the political system, changing philosophical viewpoints, current or emerging trends, and shifts in the economy. This outside-the-discipline influence may partially explain the lack of commonality of content, rigor, and public perception of educational leadership preparation. There has been a paucity of empirical research on special education administrator competencies since the early 1990s. However, the landscape in this field has changed significantly.

The field must be excited by continuous press and fresh ideas that are not driven by new law or policies, but instead by interest and the need within the field. Renewed investigations of this complementary discipline are timely if not critical for competent leadership in special education practices.

Finally, in order to build collaboration and broaden the field across disciplines, interdisciplinary research must be completed. Whether between special education, administration, curriculum and instruction, educational policy, social work, or psychology, research that links the disciplines and adds to both fields is an integral part of growth and reform.

Recommendations

Recommendations for the Professional Discipline

Findings from the study indicate specific mandates or policy changes to consider or reconsider:

- Organizations that are dedicated to the improvement of educational administration preparation must reevaluate their standards to include the 12 identified components (if they are not already included) and must write (and enforce) policies and expectations of what professors will teach.
- Universities should reconsider the manner in which they hire and evaluate faculty. Policies should be written to ensure that professors are teaching the standards outlined by their governing body. Ultimately, the preparation of future administrators and the education, success, and growth of the students and staff they lead are in the professor‘s hands. Administrators

cannot be expected to be successful if they are not going into the situation knowledgeable of the various issues they will encounter.

Recommendations for Practice

The major conclusions from the study support the following practices:

- Empirically identified components for all student groups must be aligned with what is being taught within educational administration courses. High-priority components are not being taught within the courses at the same level as identified by the literature. There must be greater consistency between the two.
- The structure of educational administration preparation programs must be realigned to meet the components and competencies needed by the present-day administrator. Administrators must be trained to serve all student populations. Therefore, additional classes should be added to the educational administration preparation programs, or information regarding special population groups must be incorporated into the current curriculum at a greater rate. For instance, while teaching about budget and finance, administrators should be taught about Title funding and special education funding.
- The data indicate that professors are more likely to teach the information they are knowledgeable of or that is part of their research agenda (and not that which is a required learning set or thought to be important by them). Therefore, professors should be matched and assigned to teach within

those areas of their expertise or research agenda. This may ensure that the information is being covered within the classroom at a greater rate.

- Professors must find a way to incorporate advanced training simulations and field experiences into their curricula and courses, in order to prepare future administrators for the real-life experiences they will encounter; they must be given these training opportunities in advance.

Recommendations for Future Research

Findings from the study suggest numerous areas for future research. Sample topics that may be pursued are the following:

- It would be interesting to revisit Campbell and Newell (1973) and McCarthy and Kuh's (1997) studies, asking all of the same questions (with the same marking cues) that were incorporated into the originals. Doing so would help to determine who current professors are, how far the field has come in recruiting quality professors, and whether there are any influences or relationships between professor attributes and the courses they teach.
- A comparative study could examine UCEA and non-UCEA educational administration preparation programs (including alternative and pilot training programs). Specifically, research could cover training administrators to serve all special population groups (English language learners, students with disabilities, and at-risk and economically disadvantaged students) that are subcategories for AYP accountability.

- A similar study to the current study should be conducted, but professors would be asked to answer all component questions for each individual (unique) course they teach. This would allow for greater comparison, correlation, and association of each component to the specific course.

The Overall Impact

Greater responsibility, increased time expectations, assessment, accountability, and the implementation of federal legislation focused on all students have made the role and function of the educational administrator more complex. Where once existed a dual or parallel system of general and special education service delivery now stands a unified system. Competencies once considered specialized only to special education administrators are now shared by all educational administrators. The challenge is to

> redefine educational leadership, transform the dual system of general and special education administration to a distributed system of leadership . . . one that collaboratively supports the use of proven practices to achieve school-wide improvement for all students including those with disabilities. (Boscardin, 2005, p. 24)

Gilhool (1976) predicted that one day legislation would mandate that the public school system develop curriculum and instruction for every child based on individual needs. The child would no longer be required to fit into the school organizational structures or disability categorical constraints. Instead, the school would fit the student, special education would become general, and general education would become special. Almost 35 years later, the implementation of such a process is developing, creating urgency for the establishment of complementary structures

within the educational organization at all levels. Educational leadership of the past can no longer successfully exist in the new system. A significant paradigm shift appears inevitable. The current emerging demands require an alignment of conceptual and theoretical bases, policies, organizational structures, preparation, and practice. From such integration, the societal commitment to educate "all" can move from a promise begun over 30 years ago towards reality.

APPENDIX A

INITIAL 82 IDENTIFIED COMPETENCIES FOR GENERAL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS

Accommodations/modifications
Accountability
Administer drugs
Advocating for school and students
Assessment/testing
Behavior management/PBS
Budget
Climate/environment
Collaboration
Communication
Community relations
Community relations (agency)
Confidentiality of student records
Consultation
Counseling
Curriculum (develop and supervise)
Definitions of disabling conditions
Develops capital
Discipline
District initiatives
District policies
Due process
Ethics
Evaluation of data
Evaluation of programs
Evaluation of students
Evaluation of teachers
Facilities
Federal laws, policies
Filling out special education forms
General knowledge
General technology
History of special education
Home visits
Inclusion
In-service training
Instruction
Interventions
Knowledge of child development
Knowledge of current trends
Knowledge of research
Knowledge of special education programs
Laws and policies
Leadership
Learning differences
Maintains and controls student records
Mediation, conflict resolution
Mentoring faculty
Modeling teaching
Morale in school
Multitask
Operations of school
Organization
Parent involvement
Personnel
Planning for special education
Planning for school
Planning, goal setting
Professional development
Promotes vision, goals, and mission
Public relations
Recognizing constituencies
Relationship building
Safety and security
Scheduling
Screens students for disabilities
Serves on an IEP team
Special education budget
Special education delivery systems
Special education meetings (in district)
Special education meetings (outside)
Special education referrals
Special education technology
State laws and policies
Student achievement
Student records
Teacher improvement
Teaching resources
Transition planning
Transportation
Volunteers
Writes/helps develop an IEP

APPENDIX B

UCEA WEBSITE BLURB REGARDING THE SURVEY

University Council for Educational Administration

Home

University Council for Educational Administration

The University Council for Educational Administration is a consortium of major research universities with doctoral programs in educational leadership and policy. The dual mission of UCEA is to improve the preparation of educational leaders and promote the development of professional knowledge in school improvement and administration. UCEA headquarters is currently hosted by the University of Texas at Austi

Current Issues and Events

- 2009 Robert Kottkamp Outstanding Dissertation Award
- 2009 Outstanding Service to the Profession Award
- Fifth Annual UCEA Conference Proceedings: Convention 2008
- UCEA is in support of the on-going study that explores, "Empirically Based Components Related to Students with Disabilities in Tier I Research Institution's Educational Administration Preparation Programs". As a UCEA faculty member, please consider responding to the on-line survey that was emailed to you, for your input and expertise is important for the study and its use in improving future preparation programs. Click here for details.
- Convention 2009 Call for Proposals
- Call for Nominees 2009 Excellence in Educational Leadership Award Deadline: April 1, 2009
- UCEA/JRLE 1st Annual Emerging Scholar Competition NEW
- Fifth Annual UCEA Conference Proceedings: Convention 2008
- Wallace sponsored NYTimes townhall meeting at UCEA-- "Breaking the Mold to Create Effective Leadership Development Programs "--available by webcast
- The UCEA program center on Values and Ethics in Educational Leadership announces its 2008 Conference and Call for Proposals
- UCEA Faculty are invited to register for SREB's Leadership Modules Training

***Implications* from UCEA**

- Implications from UCEA - February 2008 (328 KB)
- Implications from UCEA - March 2008 (332 KB)
- Implications from UCEA - June 2008 (348 KB)
- Implications from UCEA - July 2008 (336 KB)

College of Education
Department of Educational Administration
The University of Texas at Austin
1 University Station-D5400
Austin, Texas 78712-0374
Ph: 512-475-8592
Fax: 512-471-5975
If you have questions or comments about this site, please contact Pei-Ling Lee at: plinglee@austin.utexas.edu
Site last updated: February 12, 2009

APPENDIX C

UCEA'S INFORMAL SUPPORT LETTER

UNIVERSITY COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION, INC.
Headquartered at The University of Texas at Austin, College of Education
1 University Station – D5400 • Austin, TX 78712-0374
PHONE: (512) 475-8592 • FAX: (512) 471-5975

January 20, 2009

Dear UCEA Professors:

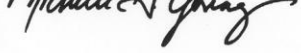
In the near future, you will be receiving a survey that is being sent to all UCEA faculty. Although the survey is not formally sponsored by UCEA, we are supportive of it, and feel the results could add to the improvement of administrator preparation programs.

Megan Cusson, a doctoral candidate at the University of Texas at Austin, is conducting the study that explores, "Empirically Based Components Related to Students with Disabilities in Tier I Research Institution's Educational Administration Preparation Programs."

First, you will receive a self- qualifying question, which should take one minute to complete. Then, if you self-qualify, you will receive the actual survey, which should take approximately 10 minutes to complete.

We ask that you participate in the survey, for your input and expertise is important for the study and its use in improving future preparation programs.

Respectfully,



Michelle D. Young, Ph.D.
Executive Director, UCEA

APPENDIX D

UCEA MEMBER UNIVERSITIES IN THE STUDY

Arizona State University
Auburn University
Bowling Green State University
Brigham Young University
Clemson University
College of William and Mary
Duquesne University
Florida Atlantic University
Florida State University
Fordham University
Georgia State University
Hofstra University
Illinois State University
Indiana University
Iowa State University
Kansas State University
Kent State University
Lehigh University
Louisiana State University
Miami University
Michigan State University
New Mexico State University
New York University
North Carolina State University
Northern Illinois University
Ohio State University
Oklahoma State University
Pennsylvania State University
Portland State University
Rutgers University
St. Johns University
St. Louis University
Sam Houston State University
Temple University
Tennessee State University
Texas A&M University
Texas State University–San Marcos
University of Alabama
University of Arizona
University at Buffalo–SUNY
University of Cincinnati
University of Connecticut
University of Dayton
University of Florida
University of Georgia
University of Houston
University of Illinois
University of Iowa
University of Kansas
University of Kentucky
University of Louisville
University of Maryland
University of Michigan
University of Minnesota
University of Missouri–Columbia
University of Nebraska–Lincoln
University of Nevada
University of New Mexico
University of North Carolina–Chapel Hill
University of North Carolina–Greensboro
University of Oklahoma
University of Oregon
University of Pittsburg
University of Tennessee at Knoxville
University of Texas at Austin
University of Texas at San Antonio
University of Texas Pan American
University of Toledo
University of Utah
University of Virginia
University of Washington
University of Wisconsin at Madison
University of Wisconsin at Milwaukee
Washington State University
Wayne State University

APPENDIX E

PHASE 2: SURVEY

Section 1: Qualifying Question

Is part of your teaching responsibility/role as a professor to prepare public school K–12 leaders for an administrative/leadership position (such as an assistant principal, principal, central office administrator, superintendent, etc.)?

__ Yes (If the professor answers ―Yes" to this question, they complete the remainder of the questions).

__ No (If the professor answers ―No" to this question, then they are thanked for their participation and the survey ends).

Section 2: Demographic Information/Participant

Gender

__ Male
__ Female

Age

__ 24 or younger
__ 25-34
__ 35-44
__ 45-54
__ 55-64
__ 65-74
__ 75 or older

Race

__ Black/ African American
__ Hispanic/ Latino
__ White (Non-Hispanic)
__ Asian
__ Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
__ American Indian
__ Alaska native
__ Other (please specify)

Highest degree completed?

__ Master's
__ Ed.D.
__ Ph.D.
__ Other (please specify)

Section 2: Demographic Information/Experience in Higher Education

1. What is your current position?

__ Dean
__ Department Chair
__ Full Professor
__ Associate Professor
__ Assistant Professor
__ Adjunct Professor
__ Other (please specify)

2. Within the Department of Educational Administration/Leadership, what courses have you ROUTINELY taught in the past three (3) years?

[Please type in your response]

3. What are your TOTAL years of service teaching in institutions of higher education?

__ 1-5 years
__ 6-10 years
__ 11-15 years
__ 16-20 years
__ 21-29 years
__ 30 years or more

4. How large is the student population at the institution where you currently teach?

__ Less than 5,000 students
__ 5,001-10,000 students
__ 10,001-20,000 students
__ 20,001-30,000 students
__ 30,001-40,000 students
__ 40,001-50,000 students
__ Over 50,000 students

5. Does your institution offer a Special Education Administration Program?

__ Yes
__ No
__ Unsure

6. In what department does the Special Education Administration program reside?

__ Education Administration/Leadership Department
__ Special Education Department
__ Unsure

Section 3a: K–12 Public School Experience Inclusionary Question

1. Prior to teaching at a postsecondary institution, did you have work experience within the K–12 public school system?

__ Yes (Complete next section: *Demographic Information/K–12 Public School Experience*)
__ No (Skip next section: *Demographic Information/K–12 Public School Experience)*

Section 3b: Demographic Information/K–12 Public School Experience

1. How many years has it been since you last taught/worked within the K–12 public school setting?

__ I currently work in a K–12 public school setting
__ 1-5 years
__ 6-10 years
__ 11-19 years
__ 20 or more years

2. What is/was the TOTAL number of years you worked within the K–12 public school system?

__ 1-5 years
__ 6-10 years
__ 11-15 years
__ 16-24 years
__ 25 or more years

3. **While working in the K–12 public school system, what was/were the position(s) you held?**

__ Teacher
__ Assistant/Associate Principal
__ Principal
__ Dean
__ Counselor
__ Diagnostician/Licensed School Psychologist
__ Director or Coordinator (in an administrative role)
__ Assistant Superintendent
__ Superintendent

4. **What K–12 public school certifications do you currently hold or have you held (regardless if they are currently active)?**

[Please type in your response]

5. Your primary K–12 public school assignment/experiences were within which educational setting?

__ General Education
__ Special Education
__ Both

6. While working in the K–12 public school system, what percentage of your time did you spend teaching and/or working with students with disabilities?

__ None of my time
__ Under 10% of my time
__ 11-25% of my time
__ 26-50% of my time
__ 51-75% of my time
__ 76-99% of my time
__ 100% of my time

Section 4: Components

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) have brought the education of students with disabilities into the context of general education administrator‘s responsibility.

This survey includes twelve (12) components derived from a literature synthesis of content to be included in leadership preparation.

Each component has a unique definition. After reading it, please answer the following questions to determine if the 12 components are included in your institution‘s leadership preparation program.

Please think of the component in relation to:

1. The courses you routinely taught in the past three years.
2. The concept of serving ―all‖ students.

Component 1: Relationship Building and Communication

RELATIONSHIP BUILDING and COMMUNICATION

DEFINITION:

* THE ABILITY TO READ, WRITE, AND SPEAK IN A MANNER THAT EFFECTIVELY COMMUNICATES INFORMATION TO ALL STAKEHOLDERS, INCLUDING THOSE INVOLVED IN SPECIAL EDUCATION DELIVERY OR PROGRAMMING.

* BUILDS COMMUNITY RELATIONS WITH STAKEHOLDERS AND CONSTITUENTS WHO MAY BE INVOLVED IN SERVING ALL STUDENTS' NEEDS, INCLUDING THOSE WITH DISABILITIES.

* COUNSELS FACULTY, PARENTS, AND STUDENTS, INCLUDING THOSE WITH DISABILITIES.

---

1. In the courses you routinely teach, to what extent do you include the component, RELATIONSHIP BUILDING and COMMUNICATION, in your:

	All of the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never
Syllabus	_____	_____	_____	_____
Lectures	_____	_____	_____	_____
Readings	_____	_____	_____	_____
Training simulations	_____	_____	_____	_____
Field experience	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. RELATIONSHIP BUILDING and COMMUNICATION is a required learning set in your institution's degree/certificate program?

__ Always
__ Sometimes
__ Rarely
__ Never
__ Unsure

3. What is your level of expertise regarding the component, RELATIONSHIP BUILDING and COMMUNICATION?

__ Clearly within my expertise
__ Requires some external input
__ Requires extensive external input
__ I would be uncomfortable teaching this component

4. To what extent is the component, RELATIONSHIP BUILDING and COMMUNICATION included in your personal research agenda (research conducted or papers published)?

__ All of my research is in this area
__ Some of my research is in this area
__ Very little of my research is in this area
__ None of my research is in this area

5. To what extent do you feel that RELATIONSHIP BUILDING and COMMUNICATION is an essential component for future educational administrators/leaders to know in order to perform their job effectively?

__ It is very important
__ It is moderately important
__ It is of low importance
__ It is not important

Component 2: Leadership and Vision

LEADERSHIP & VISION

DEFINITION:

* PROVIDES LEADERSHIP BY PROMOTING THE VISION, MISSION, AND GOALS OF THE SCHOOL FOR ALL STUDENTS; INCLUDING THOSE WITH DISABILITIES.

* MAINTAINS THE CLIMATE, ENVIRONMENT, AND MORALE IN THE SCHOOL.

* STRIVES TO BE ETHICAL AND MAKE GOOD DECISIONS THAT ARE IN THE BEST INTEREST OF ALL STUDENTS; INCLUDING THOSE WITH DISABILITIES

---

1. In the courses you routinely teach, to what extent do you include the component, LEADERSHIP and VISION, in your:

	All of the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never
Syllabus	_____	_____	_____	_____
Lectures	_____	_____	_____	_____
Readings	_____	_____	_____	_____
Training simulations	_____	_____	_____	_____
Field experience	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. LEADERSHIP and VISION is a required learning set in your institution's degree/certificate program?

__ Always
__ Sometimes
__ Rarely
__ Never
__ Unsure

3. What is your level of expertise regarding the component, LEADERSHIP and VISION?

__ Clearly within my expertise
__ Requires some external input
__ Requires extensive external input
__ I would be uncomfortable teaching this component

4. To what extent is the component, LEADERSHIP and VISION included in your personal research agenda (research conducted or papers published)?

__ All of my research is in this area
__ Some of my research is in this area
__ Very little of my research is in this area
__ None of my research is in this area

5. To what extent do you feel that LEADERSHIP and VISION is an essential component for future educational administrators/leaders to know in order to perform their job effectively?

__ It is very important
__ It is moderately important
__ It is of low importance
__ It is not important

Component 3: Budget and Capital

BUDGET & CAPITAL

DEFINITION:

* DEVELOPS CAPITAL AND MAINTAINS THE BUDGET, FACILITIES, AND OPERATION OF THE SCHOOL; BOTH FOR GENERAL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION.

* ENSURES THAT ALL TEACHERS AND STUDENTS HAVE THE NEEDED SUPPLIES AND RESOURCES.

* FORECASTS, PLANS, AND BUDGETS FOR THE FUTURE NEEDS OF THE SCHOOL.

---

1. In the courses you routinely teach, to what extent do you include the component, BUDGET and CAPITAL, in your:

	All of the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never
Syllabus	_____	_____	_____	_____
Lectures	_____	_____	_____	_____
Readings	_____	_____	_____	_____
Training simulations	_____	_____	_____	_____
Field experience	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. BUDGET and CAPITAL is a required learning set in your institution's degree/certificate program?

__ Always
__ Sometimes
__ Rarely
__ Never
__ Unsure

3. What is your level of expertise regarding the component, BUDGET and CAPITAL?

__ Clearly within my expertise
__ Requires some external input
__ Requires extensive external input
__ I would be uncomfortable teaching this component

4. To what extent is the component, BUDGET and CAPITAL included in your personal research agenda (research conducted or papers published)?

__ All of my research is in this area
__ Some of my research is in this area
__ Very little of my research is in this area
__ None of my research is in this area

5. To what extent do you feel that BUDGET and CAPITAL is an essential component for future educational administrators/leaders to know in order to perform their job effectively?

__ It is very important
__ It is moderately important
__ It is of low importance
__ It is not important

Component 4: Laws and Policies

LAWS & POLICIES

DEFINITION:

* IMPLEMENTS DISTRICT, STATE, AND FEDERAL LAWS/MANDATES.

* UNDERSTANDS SPECIAL EDUCATION LAW AND THE LEGALITIES INCLUSIVE OF IT.

* COORDINATES GRIEVANCES AND DUE PROCESS PROCEDURES FOR GENERAL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION.

* IS FAMILIAR WITH MEDIATION AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION.

---

1. In the courses you routinely teach, to what extent do you include the component, LAWS and POLICIES, in your:

	All of the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never
Syllabus	_____	_____	_____	_____
Lectures	_____	_____	_____	_____
Readings	_____	_____	_____	_____
Training simulations	_____	_____	_____	_____
Field experience	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. LAWS and POLICIES are a required learning set in your institution's degree/certificate program?

__ Always
__ Sometimes
__ Rarely
__ Never
__ Unsure

3. What is your level of expertise regarding the component, LAWS and POLICIES?

__ Clearly within my expertise
__ Requires some external input
__ Requires extensive external input
__ I would be uncomfortable teaching this component

4. To what extent is the component, LAWS and POLICIES included in your personal research agenda (research conducted or papers published)?

__ All of my research is in this area
__ Some of my research is in this area
__ Very little of my research is in this area
__ None of my research is in this area

5. To what extent do you feel that LAWS and POLICIES are an essential component for future educational administrators/leaders to know in order to perform their job effectively?

__ It is very important
__ It is moderately important
__ It is of low importance
__ It is not important

CURRICULUM & INSTRUCTION

DEFINITION:

* HELPS TO DEVELOP, IMPLEMENT, AND SUPERVISE CURRICULUM & INSTRUCTION FOR GENERAL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION.

* MODELS "BEST PRACTICE"

* IS AWARE OF CURRENT TRENDS IN GENERAL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION AND CAN HELP TEACHERS LEARN AND USE IT (RESEARCH BASED INSTRUCTION, DIFFERENTIATED INSTRUCTION, INCLUSION, AND SO FORTH)

* IS FAMILIAR WITH LEARNING STAGES AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT.

* INSTRUCTS PROFESSIONAL STAFF ON HOW TO IMPLEMENT ACCOMMODATIONS AND MODIFICATIONS INTO THE CLASSROOM CURRICULUM, IN ORDER TO ENSURE SUCCESS FOR "ALL" STUDENTS, INCLUDING THOSE WITH DISABILITIES.

---

1. In the courses you routinely teach, to what extent do you include the component CURRICULUM and INSTRUCTION in your:

	All of the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never
Syllabus	_____	_____	_____	_____
Lectures	_____	_____	_____	_____
Readings	_____	_____	_____	_____
Training simulations	_____	_____	_____	_____
Field experience	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. CURRICULUM and INSTRUCTION is a required learning set in your institution's degree/certificate program?

__ Always
__ Sometimes
__ Rarely
__ Never
__ Unsure

3. What is your level of expertise regarding the component CURRICULUM and INSTRUCTION?

__ Clearly within my expertise
__ Requires some external input
__ Requires extensive external input
__ I would be uncomfortable teaching this component

4. To what extent is the component, CURRICULUM and INSTRUCTION included in your personal research agenda (research conducted or papers published)?

__ All of my research is in this area
__ Some of my research is in this area
__ Very little of my research is in this area
__ None of my research is in this area

5. To what extent do you feel that CURRICULUM and INSTRUCTION is an essential component for future educational administrators/leaders to know in order to perform their job effectively?

__ It is very important
__ It is moderately important
__ It is of low importance
__ It is not important

Component 6: Personnel

PERSONNEL

DEFINITION:

* HIRES & TERMINATES ALL SCHOOL PERSONNEL.

* MAINTAINS FACULTY RECORDS/ FILES.

* MENTORS AND BUILDS RELATIONSHIPS WITH SCHOOL PERSONNEL.

* PROVIDES GROWTH OPPORTUNITIES FOR ALL MEMBERS OF THE LEARNING COMMUNITY.

---

1. In the courses you routinely teach, to what extent do you include the component PERSONNEL, in your:

	All of the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never
Syllabus	_____	_____	_____	_____
Lectures	_____	_____	_____	_____
Readings	_____	_____	_____	_____
Training simulations	_____	_____	_____	_____
Field experience	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. PERSONNEL are a required learning set in your institution's degree/certificate program?

__ Always
__ Sometimes
__ Rarely
__ Never
__ Unsure

3. What is your level of expertise regarding the component, PERSONNEL?

__ Clearly within my expertise
__ Requires some external input
__ Requires extensive external input
__ I would be uncomfortable teaching this component

4. To what extent is the component, PERSONNEL included in your personal research agenda (research conducted or papers published)?

__ All of my research is in this area
__ Some of my research is in this area
__ Very little of my research is in this area
__ None of my research is in this area

5. To what extent do you feel that PERSONNEL is an essential component for future educational administrators/leaders to know in order to perform their job effectively?

__ It is very important
__ It is moderately important
__ It is of low importance
__ It is not important

Component 7: Evaluation of Data, Programs, Students, and Teachers

---

EVALUATION OF DATA, PROGRAMS, STUDENTS, & TEACHERS

DEFINITION:

* DISAGGREGATES/ EVALUATES STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT (GRADES /TESTING)

* DETERMINES IF TEACHING, CURRICULUM, AND PROGRAMMING IS EFFECTIVE AND EQUITABLE FOR ALL STUDENTS, INCLUDING THOSE WITH DISABILITIES.

* CONDUCTS TEACHER OBSERVATIONS AND EVALUATES INSTRUCTION.

* PROVIDES MENTORING, SUPERVISION, AND ADDED SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS.

* DETERMINES IF TEACHERS NEED INTERVENTION.

* IMPLEMENTS DATA-BASED DECISION MAKING.

* ANALYZES DISCIPLINE REPORTS AND COMPLETES AN ASSESSMENT OF THEM.

* EVALUATES SPECIAL EDUCATION REFERRALS AND INDIVIDUAL EDUCATION PLAN (IEP) IMPLEMENTATION.

* ENSURES ACCOUNTABILITY.

---

1. In the courses you routinely teach, to what extent do you include the component, EVALUATION OF DATA, PROGRAMS, STUDENTS, and TEACHERS in your:

	All of the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never
Syllabus	_____	_____	_____	_____
Lectures	_____	_____	_____	_____
Readings	_____	_____	_____	_____
Training simulations	_____	_____	_____	_____
Field experience	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. EVALUATION OF DATA, PROGRAMS, STUDENTS, and TEACHERS is a required learning set in your institution's degree/certificate program?

__ Always
__ Sometimes
__ Rarely
__ Never
__ Unsure

3. What is your level of expertise regarding the component, EVALUATION OF DATA, PROGRAMS, STUDENTS, and TEACHERS?

__ Clearly within my expertise
__ Requires some external input
__ Requires extensive external input
__ I would be uncomfortable teaching this component

4. To what extent is the component, EVALUATION OF DATA, PROGRAMS, STUDENTS, and TEACHERS included in your personal research agenda (research conducted or papers published)?

__ All of my research is in this area
__ Some of my research is in this area
__ Very little of my research is in this area
__ None of my research is in this area

5. To what extent do you feel that EVALUATION OF DATA, PROGRAMS, STUDENTS, and TEACHERS is an essential component for future educational administrators/leaders to know in order to perform their job effectively?

__ It is very important
__ It is moderately important
__ It is of low importance
__ It is not important

Component 8: Collaboration and Consultation

COLLABORATION & CONSULTATION

DEFINITION:

* MAINTAINS A COMMUNITY OF LEARNERS WITHIN THE SCHOOL, SO THAT STUDENTS, PARENTS, FACULTY, AND ALL STAKEHOLDERS HAVE INPUT.

* INTERACTS WITH COMMUNITY/ STATE AGENCIES IN ORDER TO PROVIDE SERVICES FOR ALL STUDENTS, INCLUDING THOSE WITH DISABILITIES.

* ALLOWS AND ENSURES TEACHERS TIME TO COLLABORATE ON CURRICULUM, BEST PRACTICES, STUDENTS, AND TOPICS OF IMPORTANCE FOR ALL STUDENTS, INCLUDING THOSE WITH DISABILITIES.

* COLLABORATES WITH TEACHERS AND PARENTS WHEN THERE ARE CONCERNS ABOUT A STUDENT.

---

1. In the courses you routinely teach, to what extent do you include the component, COLLABORATION & CONSULTATION in your:

	All of the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never
Syllabus	_____	_____	_____	_____
Lectures	_____	_____	_____	_____
Readings	_____	_____	_____	_____
Training simulations	_____	_____	_____	_____
Field experience	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. COLLABORATION & CONSULTATION is a required learning set in your institution's degree/certificate program?

__ Always
__ Sometimes
__ Rarely
__ Never
__ Unsure

3. What is your level of expertise regarding the component, COLLABORATION & CONSULTATION

__ Clearly within my expertise
__ Requires some external input
__ Requires extensive external input
__ I would be uncomfortable teaching this component

4. To what extent is the component, COLLABORATION & CONSULTATION included in your personal research agenda (research conducted or papers published)?

__ All of my research is in this area
__ Some of my research is in this area
__ Very little of my research is in this area
__ None of my research is in this area

5. To what extent do you feel that COLLABORATION & CONSULTATION is an essential component for future educational administrators/leaders to know in order to perform their job effectively?

__ It is very important
__ It is moderately important
__ It is of low importance
__ It is not important

Component 9: Special Education Programming

SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMING AND DELIVERY

DEFINITION:

* THE ADMINISTRATOR IS FAMILIAR WITH THE REFERRAL AND INDIVIDUALIZED EDUCATION PLAN(IEP) PROCESS, AND CAN:
- Understand the basics of evaluation
- Define disabling conditions
- Serve on the IEP team
- Help develop and write IEP goals/ transition plans
- Fill out the needed paperwork
- Coordinate due process

* IS FAMILIAR WITH CURRENT TRENDS AND RESEARCH BASED PRACTICES IN SPECIAL EDUCATION.

* ASSESSES THE NEEDS AND PROGRAMMING/ SERVICE DELIVERY FOR STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES.

---

1. In the courses you routinely teach, to what extent do you include the component, SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMING AND DELIVERY in your:

	All of the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never
Syllabus	_____	_____	_____	_____
Lectures	_____	_____	_____	_____
Readings	_____	_____	_____	_____
Training simulations	_____	_____	_____	_____
Field experience	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMING AND DELIVERY is a required learning set in your institution's degree/certificate program?

__ Always
__ Sometimes
__ Rarely
__ Never
__ Unsure

3. What is your level of expertise regarding the component, SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMING AND DELIVERY?

__ Clearly within my expertise
__ Requires some external input
__ Requires extensive external input
__ I would be uncomfortable teaching this component

4. To what extent is the component, SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMING AND DELIVERY included in your personal research agenda (research conducted or papers published)?

__ All of my research is in this area
__ Some of my research is in this area
__ Very little of my research is in this area
__ None of my research is in this area

5. To what extent do you feel that SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMING AND DELIVERY is an essential component for future educational administrators/leaders to know in order to perform their job effectively?

__ It is very important
__ It is moderately important
__ It is of low importance
__ It is not important

ORGANIZATION

DEFINITION:

* IS FAMILIAR WITH ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND MANAGEMENT.

* HAS THE ABILITY TO ORGANIZE HIS OR HER TIME AND SCHEDULE, RELATED TO THE JOB DUTIES.

* MAINTAINS: THE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT, TRANSPORTATION, STUDENT RECORDS, PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT, PERSONNEL, MAINTENANCE AND FACILITIES, AND THE SCHOOL AS A WHOLE.

---

1. In the courses you routinely teach, to what extent do you include the component, ORGANIZATION in your:

	All of the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never
Syllabus	_____	_____	_____	_____
Lectures	_____	_____	_____	_____
Readings	_____	_____	_____	_____
Training simulations	_____	_____	_____	_____
Field experience	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. ORGANIZATION is a required learning set in your institution's degree/certificate program?

__ Always
__ Sometimes
__ Rarely
__ Never
__ Unsure

3. What is your level of expertise regarding the component, ORGANIZATION?

__ Clearly within my expertise
__ Requires some external input
__ Requires extensive external input
__ I would be uncomfortable teaching this component

4. To what extent is the component, ORGANIZATION included in your personal research agenda (research conducted or papers published)?

__ All of my research is in this area
__ Some of my research is in this area
__ Very little of my research is in this area
__ None of my research is in this area

5. To what extent do you feel that ORGANIZATION is an essential component for future educational administrators/leaders to know in order to perform their job effectively?

__ It is very important
__ It is moderately important
__ It is of low importance
__ It is not important

Component 11: Professional Development

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

DEFINITION:

* PROMOTES AND PROVIDES TIME FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT.

* DEVELOPS, ORGANIZES, AND HOLDS IN-SERVICE TRAININGS.

* MAKES FACULTY AWARE OF CURRENT TRENDS, PRACTICES, AND TOPICS OCCURRING WITHIN GENERAL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION.

---

1. In the courses you routinely teach, to what extent do you include the component, PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT in your:

	All of the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never
Syllabus	_____	_____	_____	_____
Lectures	_____	_____	_____	_____
Readings	_____	_____	_____	_____
Training simulations	_____	_____	_____	_____
Field experience	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT is a required learning set in your institution's degree/certificate program?

__ Always
__ Sometimes
__ Rarely
__ Never
__ Unsure

3. What is your level of expertise regarding the component, PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT?

__ Clearly within my expertise
__ Requires some external input
__ Requires extensive external input
__ I would be uncomfortable teaching this component

4. To what extent is the component, PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT included in your personal research agenda (research conducted or papers published)?

__ All of my research is in this area
__ Some of my research is in this area
__ Very little of my research is in this area
__ None of my research is in this area

5. To what extent do you feel that PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT is an essential component for future educational administrators/leaders to know in order to perform their job effectively?

__ It is very important
__ It is moderately important
__ It is of low importance
__ It is not important

Component 12: Advocacy

ADVOCACY

DEFINITION:

* ADVOCATES FOR THE SCHOOL, ITS STUDENTS, AND PERSONNEL.

* IS CURRENT ON TOPICS AND ISSUES WHERE ADVOCACY IS NEEDED (EX: SPECIAL EDUCATION)

* CONDUCTS HOME VISITS AND INTERACTS WITH AGENCIES OR PROGRAMS THAT BENEFIT STUDENTS, SCHOOL PERSONNEL, AND FAMILIES.

* COMMUNICATES AND INTERACTS WITH CONSTITUENTS WHO CAN ALSO ADVOCATE FOR THE SCHOOL AND ITS STUDENTS.

* BELONGS TO PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS THAT ADVOCATE FOR STUDENTS AND SCHOOLS.

---

1. In the courses you routinely teach, to what extent do you include the component, ADVOCACY in your:

	All of the time	Some of the time	Rarely	Never
Syllabus	_____	_____	_____	_____
Lectures	_____	_____	_____	_____
Readings	_____	_____	_____	_____
Training simulations	_____	_____	_____	_____
Field experience	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. ADVOCACY is a required learning set in your institution's degree/certificate program?

__ Always
__ Sometimes
__ Rarely
__ Never
__ Unsure

3. What is your level of expertise regarding the component, ADVOCACY?

__ Clearly within my expertise
__ Requires some external input
__ Requires extensive external input
__ I would be uncomfortable teaching this component

4. To what extent is the component, ADVOCACY included in your personal research agenda (research conducted or papers published)?

__ All of my research is in this area
__ Some of my research is in this area
__ Very little of my research is in this area
__ None of my research is in this area

5. To what extent do you feel that ADVOCACY is an essential component for future educational administrators/leaders to know in order to perform their job effectively?

__ It is very important
__ It is moderately important
__ It is of low importance
__ It is not important

Professor Recommendations/ Insight

Are there any components other than the 12 that you responded to, that you feel are essential for administrator preparation, in regards to serving students with disabilities? (e.g., emerging issues, things discussed in class, etc.)

[Please type your response]

Thank You

Your time and willingness to participate in this survey is greatly appreciated! After clicking the done button, the survey is complete.

Thank you for your participation!

Would you like results from the survey to be sent to you once the data are analyzed?

__ Yes
__ No

APPENDIX F

NATIONALLY ACCREDIDATED NCATE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS USED FOR THE PILOT STUDY

University/college	Programs	Action date
	ALASKA	
University of Alaska Anchorage	Educational Leadership, Principal Endorsement, Superintendent Endorsement (*New Standards*)	01/13/04
	ARKANSAS	
Arkansas State University State University	Elementary Principal, Secondary Principal, Superintendent, Curriculum Director	05/30/02
Arkansas Tech University Russellville	Educational Leadership Program (*New Standards*)	07/22/04
Harding University Searcy	Elementary Principal, Secondary Principal	12/02/00
Henderson State University Arkadelphia	Educational Leadership (*New Standards*)	01/13/04
Southern Arkansas University Magnolia	Educational Leadership (*New Standards*)	01/23/03
University of Arkansas Fayetteville	Educational Administration - M.Ed, Educational Administration - Ed.S (*New Standards*)	01/13/04
University of Arkansas Little Rock	Educational Administration (School Building Level) (*New Standards*)	01/18/03
University of Central Arkansas Conway	School Leadership, Management, and Administration; Educational Leadership Specialist (*New Standards*)	12/04/98 09/05/03
	COLORADO	
Adams State College Alamosa	Principal	12/01/01
Colorado State University Fort Collins	Principal	05/30/02
University of Colorado Colorado Springs	Curriculum w/emphasis in Ed Administration, Principal Licensure, Administrator (Superintendent) (*New Standards*)	07/22/04
University of Colorado Denver	Principal, Superintendent (*Pilot-Electronic*)	01/20/05
	CONNECTICUT	
Central Connecticut State University New Britain	Intermediate Administrative Supervisor	05/30/02

University/college	Programs	Action date
Southern Connecticut State University New Haven	Principal, Curriculum Director, Supervisor	05/30/02
University of Connecticut Storrs	Principal, Curriculum Director, Supervisor, Superintendent	12/01/01
University of Hartford W. Hartford	Principal (*New Standards*)	05/18/01
	DELAWARE	
University of Delaware Newark	Principal (*New Standards*)	01/20/05
	DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA	
Trinity College Washington, DC	Educational Leadership (*New Standards*)	07/22/04
	GEORGIA	
North Georgia College & State Unit Dahlonega	Educational Leadership, Educational Specialist in Teacher Leadership (*New Standards*)	01/20/05
	ILLINOIS	
Bradley University Peoria,	Principal	12/09/99
Chicago State University Chicago	Educational Leadership/Administration	04/17/98 01/13/04
Concordia University River Forest	Principal	05/18/01
DePaul University Chicago	Educational Leadership – Principal‘s Endorsement	01/23/03
Eastern Illinois University Charleston	Superintendent, Principal	05/18/01 12/01/01
Governors State University University Park	Principal	01/23/03
Illinois State University Normal	Principal, Superintendent (*New Standards*)	01/23/03
Loyola University - Chicago Wilmette	Principal, Superintendent	05/30/02
National-Louis University Wheeling	Administration and Supervision, Educational Leadership (*New Standards*)	06/30/99 01/13/04
Northeastern Illinois University Chicago	Principal	01/18/03
Northern Illinois University DeKalb	Principal, Superintendent	05/30/02

University/college	Programs	Action date
Roosevelt University Chicago	Principal, Superintendent, Curriculum Director, Supervisor	05/30/02
Southern Illinois University Edwardsville	Principal, Superintendent	12/09/99
Southern Illinois University Carbondale	Principal, Superintendent	12/01/01
Western Illinois University Macomb	Principal, Superintendent, Supervisor	05/30/02
	LOUISIANA	
Louisiana State University Baton Rouge	Educational Leadership (*New Standards*)	07/22/04
Louisiana State University Shreveport	Educational Administration (*New Standards*)	07/22/04
Northeast Louisiana University Monroe	Elementary School Principal, Secondary School Principal, Supervisor, Superintendent	05/19/98
Northwestern State University of Louisiana Natchitoches	Educational Leadership (*New Standards*)	01/20/05
Southern University Baton Rouge	Principal Supervisor	05/18/01
University of Louisiana Monroe	Elementary Principal, Secondary Principal, Superintendent, Supervision of Instruction (*New Standards*)	01/20/05
University of New Orleans New Orleans	Principal	06/15/00
Xavier University of Louisiana New Orleans	Principal (Elementary & Secondary), Supervision of Instruction	01/13/04
	MARYLAND	
Bowie State University Bowie	Principal, Superintendent	09/05/03
College of Notre Dame Baltimore	Administration and Supervision	12/02/00
Frostburg State University Frostburg, MD	Principal Supervisor	05/18/00
McDaniel College Westminster	Educational Administration (*New Standards*)	01/23/03
Salisbury State University Salisbury	School Administration Supervision	06/30/99
University of Maryland College Park	Education Leadership and Policy Studies – M.A., Ed.D., post-MA (*New Standards*)	12/09/99 09/05/03

University/college	Programs	Action date
	MASSACHUSETTS	
Boston College Chestnut Hill	Principal, Superintendent, Supervisor, Special Education Administrator	12/02/00
Bridgewater State College Bridgewater, MA	Principal, Superintendent, Curriculum Director, Supervisor	05/18/00
Salem State College Salem	Principal, Curriculum Director, Supervisor	05/18/01
University of Massachusetts Amherst	Principal, Superintendent, Curriculum Director, Supervisor	05/18/01
University of Massachusetts Boston	Principal, Superintendent, Curriculum Director, Supervisor	12/02/00
University of Massachusetts Lowell	Educational Administration	05/30/02
Westfield State College Westfield	Principal	12/01/01
Wheelock College Boston	Principal, Supervisor	12/02/00
	MICHIGAN	
Central Michigan University Mount Pleasant	Principal, Specialist in General Educational Administration	12/02/00
Eastern Michigan University Ypsilanti,	Educational Leadership, Masters; Educational Leadership, Specialist	09/05/03 01/13/04
Grand Valley State University Grand Rapids	Educational Leadership (*New Standards*)	01/20/05
Oakland University Rochester	Principal (Masters level); 6thyr Specialist level: Principal; Superintendent; Curriculum Director; Supervisor	12/01/01 05/18/00
Western Michigan University Kalamazoo	Principal, Superintendent, Central Office Administrator, Chief School Business Official	05/18/01
	MISSISSIPPI	
Delta State University Cleveland	Principal, Superintendent	05/18/01
Jackson State University Jackson	Educational Administration and Supervision	12/02/00
Mississippi College Clinton	Principal (*New Standards*)	07/26/05
Mississippi State University Mississippi State	Principal, Assistant Principal	05/30/02

University/college	Programs	Action date
University of Mississippi Oxford	Principal (Master's level)	12/01/01
	MISSOURI	
Central Missouri State University Warrensburg	Principal, Superintendent	05/30/02
Saint Louis University St. Louis, MO	Principal, Superintendent	09/05/03
Southeast Missouri State University Cape Girardeau	Principal, Superintendent	12/01/01
Southwest Missouri State University Springfield	Principal, Superintendent	12/01/01
University of Missouri Columbia	Master's of Education w/emphasis on Learning & Instruction, Principal – Education Specialist (*New Standards*)	01/23/03
	NEVADA	
University of Nevada Las Vegas	Principal	01/18/03
	NEW HAMPSHIRE	
Plymouth State College Plymouth	Principal	01/18/03
	NEW JERSEY	
Kean University Union	Educational Leadership: Supervisor, Principals & Supervisors (*New Standards*)	09/05/03
New Jersey City University Jersey City	Educational Leadership (*New Standards*)	01/20/05
Rider University Lawrenceville	Principal, Supervisor (*New Standards*)	01/20/05
Rowan University Glassboro	School Administration, Supervision, Curriculum Development	06/30/99
Seton Hall University South Orange	Principal/Supervisor, School Administrator Certificate, Supervisor Certificate (*New Standards*)	07/22/04
The College of New Jersey Ewing	Educational Leadership Program	05/18/01
William Paterson University Wayne	Educational Leadership (*New Standards*)	07/22/04
	NEW YORK	
Adelphi University Garden City	Educational Leadership and Technology (*New Standards*)	01/20/05

University/college	Programs	Action date
Bank Street College New York	Core Leadership Programs, Principal's Institute	05/18/01
Canisius College of Buffalo Buffalo	School Administration and Supervision, School District Administration, Educational Leadership (*New Standards*)	01/20/05
CUNY- College of Staten Island Staten Island	Educational Leadership (*New Standards*)	01/20/05
Dowling College Oakdale, NY	School Administrator and Supervisor, Principal & Supervisor/School District Administrator	01/13/04
Fordham University New York	Catholic Education Leadership Program (Certified), VIA Leadership Program	05/30/02
Hofstra University Hempstead	Advanced Studies in Educational Leadership (*New Standards*)	01/18/03
Hunter College New York	School Administrator, School District Administrator (*New Standards*)	09/05/03
Iona College New Rochelle	Principal, Assistant Principal	05/30/02
Manhattanville College Purchase	Educational Leadership (*New Standards*)	01/13/04
Niagara University Niagara	Principal, Superintendent, Curriculum Director, Supervisor	12/04/98
Pace University New York	Early Childhood Administration, Educational Administration (*New Standards*)	07/22/04
St. Bonaventure University St. Bonaventure	Principal K-12, Superintendent, Supervisor of Curriculum & Instruction (*New Standards*)	07/22/04
St. John Fisher College Rochester	Principal	09/05/03
SUNY at Brockport Brockport	Principal	05/30/02
SUNY – Buffalo State College Buffalo	Educational Leadership and Facilitation	12/01/01
SUNY - Cortland Cortland	School Administrator/Supervisor, School District Administrator	01/13/04
SUNY – Fredonia Fredonia	Educational Administration	09/05/03
SUNY at New Paltz New Paltz	Educational Administration, CAS in Educational Administration (*New Standards*)	01/18/03
SUNY at Oswego Oswego	Administration and Supervision (Principal, Supervisor)	01/18/03
SUNY at Plattsburgh Plattsburgh	Principal, Superintendent	05/30/02
Syracuse University Syracuse	Educational Administration (*New Standards*)	01/23/03

University/college	Programs	Action date
Teachers College/ Columbia University New York	Future School Administrators Academy, Educational Leadership Practice, Private School Leadership Program, Public School & District Leadership (*New Standards*)	07/22/04
The City College of New York New York	School Administrator and Supervisor, School District Administrator (*New Standards*)	09/05/03
The College of Saint Rose Albany	Educational Administration & Supervision, School District Administration (*New Standards*)	09/05/03
University of Rochester Rochester, NY	Catholic School Administrator, School Administrator and Supervisor, School District Administrator (*New Standards*)	01/23/03 09/05/03
	NORTH CAROLINA	
East Carolina University Greenville	School Administration Program	05/18/01
	NORTH DAKOTA	
Tri-College University Fargo	Elementary/Secondary Principal, Superintendent, P-12 Principal (*New Standards*)	01/20/05
	OHIO	
Ashland University Ashland	Principal, Superintendent, Administrative Specialist in Curriculum, Instruction, Professional Development, Pupil Services, Administration	05/16/98 12/02/00
Baldwin-Wallace College Berea	Principal Supervisor	12/09/99
John Carroll University University Heights	Educational Administration Program (*New Standards*)	07/22/04
Miami University Oxford	Educational Leadership (Budging/District Levels) (*Pilot-Electronic*)	01/20/05
Ohio University Athens	Principal, Superintendent	12/02/00
University of Akron Akron	Principal, Superintendent, Educational Research Specialist, Educational Staff Administration, Pupil Services Administration, Curriculum & Instruction, School Community Relations	09/05/03
University of Dayton Dayton	Principal, Superintendent, Curriculum & Instruction, Staff Personnel, Educational Administration, Principal-Catholic Schools, Educational Specialist	05/30/02
Wright State University Dayton	Principal, Superintendent, Curriculum Supervisor	09/05/03
	PENNSYLVANIA	
Duquesne University Pittsburgh	Educational Administration & Supervision, Interdisciplinary Prig for Ed Leaders (*Pilot - Electronic*)	01/20/05

University/college	Programs	Action date
East Stroudsburg University E. Stroudsburg	Principal (*Pilot - Electronic*)	01/20/05
Indiana University of Pennsylvania Indiana	Administration and Leadership Studies, School Principal (Elementary/Secondary) (*New Standards*)	01/20/05
Maywood University Scranton	Principal, Superintendent, Curriculum Director, Supervisor	05/18/00
Pennsylvania State University University Park	Principal, Educational Leadership, Superintendent (*New Standards*)	01/20/05
University of Scranton Scranton, PA	Principal, Supervisor, Assistant Superintendent/ Superintendent	07/22/04
	RHODE ISLAND	
Rhode Island College Providence	Principal, Superintendent	09/05/03
	SOUTH CAROLINA	
Charleston Southern University Charleston	Principal	05/18/00
Furman University Greenville	Principal Supervisor	12/02/00
South Carolina State University Orangeburg	Principal, Superintendent	12/01/01
The Citadel Charleston	Elementary School Administration, Secondary School Administration, Specialist in Educational Leadership (*New Standards*)	07/22/04
University of South Carolina Columbia	Principal	09/05/03
Winthrop University Rock Hill	Principal Superintendent	12/04/98 09/05/03
	TEXAS	
Baylor University Waco	Educational Leadership Program-Principal (*New Standards*)	01/23/03
Sam Houston State University Huntsville	Principal, Superintendent, Supervisor	05/18/00
Stephen F. Austin State University Nacogdoches	Principal, Superintendent	05/18/01 12/02/00
Texas A&M University College Station	Principal, Superintendent	12/01/01
Trinity University San Antonio	School Administration (*New Standards*)	09/05/03

University/college	Programs	Action date
University of North Texas Denton	Principal	09/05/03
	UTAH	
Brigham Young University Provo	Educational Administration (*New Standards*)	01/22/05
Southern Utah University Cedar City	Principal, Supervisor	05/30/02
	VERMONT	
University of Vermont Burlington	Educational Leadership	12/01/01
	VIRGINIA	
George Mason University Fairfax	Principal	12/04/98 09/05/03
James Madison University Harrisonburg	Educational Leadership (*New Standards*)	09/05/03
Longwood University Farmville	Education Leadership – Masters, Licensure	09/05/03
Norfolk State University Norfolk	Principal, Curriculum Director, Supervisor	12/01/01
Old Dominion University Norfolk	Educational Leadership Programs (School Building and District Levels) (*New Standards*)	01/18/03
Radford University Radford	Educational Leadership (Masters), Educational Leadership (Specialist) (*New Standards*)	01/23/03
The College of William and Mary Williamsburg	Educational Leadership (Principal, Curriculum Director, Supervisor)	01/18/03
University of Virginia Charlottesville	Principal, Superintendent	12/02/00
Virginia Commonwealth University Richmond	Principal, Supervision of Instruction	05/18/00
Virginia Tech & State University Blacksburg	Principal, Supervisor, Curriculum Director	11/20/98 05/30/02
	WASHINGTON	
Central Washington University Ellensburg	Principal, Curriculum Director	12/09/99

University/college	Programs	Action date
	WEST VIRGINIA	
Marshall University South Charleston	Principal, Superintendent, Supervisor	05/30/02
West Virginia University Morgantown	Principal, Superintendent, Supervisor	05/30/02

APPENDIX G

COURSE–COMPONENT CORRELATION DATA

Table G1

Course: Administration and Leadership

Component (C)	Pearson correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	*n*
C1. Relationship building & communication	.232**	.003	157
C2. Leadership & vision	.299**	.000	152
C3. Budget & capital	.170*	.039	147
C4. Laws & policies	.050	.538	153
C5. Curriculum & instruction	.244**	.003	151
C6. Personnel	.169*	.041	148
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	-.052	.523	151
C8. Collaboration & consultation	.169*	.037	152
C9. Special education programming	-.027	.740	153
C10. Organization	.313**	.000	150
C11. Professional development	.136	.099	148
C12. Advocacy	.115	.166	148

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table G2

Course: Research

Component (C)	Pearson correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	*n*
C1. Relationship building & communication	-.171*	.032	157
C2. Leadership & vision	-.202*	.013	152
C3. Budget & capital	-.069*	.409	147
C4. Laws & policies	-.299**	.000	153
C5. Curriculum & Instruction	-.149	.068	151
C6. Personnel	-.192*	.019	148
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	.086	.296	151
C8. Collaboration & consultation	-.037	.651	152
C9. Special education programming	-.175*	.031	153
C10. Organization	-.140	.087	150
C11. Professional development	-.125	.130	148
C12. Advocacy	-.037	.652	148

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table G3

Course: Internships, Seminars, and Field Experiences

Component (C)	Pearson correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	*n*
C2. Leadership & vision	.099	.223	152
C3. Budget & capital	.190*	.021	147
C4. Laws & policies	.091	.266	153
C5. Curriculum & instruction	.157	.054	151
C6. Personnel	.113	.171	148
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	.069	.399	151
C8. Collaboration & consultation	.126	.122	152
C9. Special education programming	.139	.087	153
C10. Organization	.271**	.001	150
C11. Professional development	.079	.343	148
C12. Advocacy	.148	.073	148

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table G4

Course: Ethics

Component (C)	Pearson correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	*n*
C2. Leadership & vision	.033	.686	152
C3. Budget & capital	-.137	.098	147
C4. Laws & policies	-.003	.973	153
C5. Curriculum & instruction	-.185*	.023	151
C6. Personnel	-.038	.648	148
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	-.284**	.000	151
C8. Collaboration & consultation	-.195*	.016	152
C9. Special education programming	-.017	.834	153
C10. Organization	-.150	.066	150
C11. Professional development	-.247**	.002	148
C12. Advocacy	.012	.889	148

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table G5

Course: Law and Policy

Component (C)	Pearson correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	*n*
C2. Leadership & vision	-.078	.342	152
C3. Budget & capital	-.003	.968	147
C4. Laws & policies	-.245**	.002	153
C5. Curriculum & instruction	-.149	.069	151
C6. Personnel	-.097	.241	148
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	-.111	.176	151
C8. Collaboration & consultation	-.242**	.003	152
C9. Special education programming	-.040	.620	153
C10. Organization	-.128	.120	150
C11. Professional development	-.202*	.014	148
C12. Advocacy	.075	.364	148

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table G6

Course: Sociocultural Contexts and Special Populations

Component (C)	Pearson correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	*n*
C2. Leadership & vision	.119	.143	152
C3. Budget & capital	.089	.282	147
C4. Laws & policies	.155	.056	153
C5. Curriculum & instruction	.122	.173	151
C6. Personnel	-.050	.544	148
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	-.024	.770	151
C8. Collaboration & consultation	.139	.087	152
C9. Special education programming	.132	.104	153
C10. Organization	.074	.367	150
C11. Professional Development	.098	.235	148
C12. Advocacy	.136	.101	148

Table G7

Course: Curriculum and Instruction

Component (C)	Pearson correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	*n*
C2. Leadership & vision	.164*	.043	152
C3. Budget & capital	-.019	.815	147
C4. Laws & policies	.001	.991	153
C5. Curriculum & instruction	.380**	.000	151
C6. Personnel	-.010	.909	148
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	.160	.050	151
C8. Collaboration & consultation	.186*	.022	152
C9. Special education programming	.164*	.043	153
C10. Organization	.053	.520	150
C11. Professional development	.357**	.000	148
C12. Advocacy	.059	.479	148

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table G8

Course: Finance and Human Resources

Component (C)	Pearson correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	*n*
C2. Leadership & vision	-.012	.884	152
C3. Budget & capital	.141	.088	147
C4. Laws & policies	.117	.150	153
C5. Curriculum & instruction	-.138	.091	151
C6. Personnel	.216**	.008	148
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	.019	.817	157
C8. Collaboration & consultation	-.031	.708	152
C9. Special education programming	.046	.569	153
C10. Organization	.083	.312	150
C11. Professional development	.027	.742	148
C12. Advocacy	-.059	.477	148

**$p < .01$.

Table G9

Course: Community and Personal Relations

Component (C)	Pearson correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	*n*
C2. Leadership & vision	.121	.137	152
C3. Budget & capital	.046	.582	147
C4. Laws & policies	-.017	.830	153
C5. Curriculum & instruction	-.014	.860	151
C6. Personnel	.114	.169	148
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	-.002	.980	151
C8. Collaboration & consultation	.219**	.009	152
C9. Special education programming	-.015	.857	153
C10. Organization	-.177*	.031	150
C11. Professional development	-.063	.444	148
C12. Advocacy	.129	.118	148

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table G10

All Other Courses

Component (C)	Pearson correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	*n*
C2. Leadership & vision	.103	.209	152
C3. Budget & capital	.089	.281	147
C4. Laws & policies	-.014	.865	153
C5. Curriculum & instruction	.031	.702	151
C6. Personnel	-.007	.936	148
C7. Evaluation of data, programs, students, & teachers	-.002	.985	151
C8. Collaboration & consultation	-.004	.957	152
C9. Special education programming	.011	.893	153
C10. Organization	-.024	.767	150
C11. Professional development	.202*	.014	148
C12. Advocacy	.004	.965	148

*$p < .05$.

REFERENCES

References marked with an asterisk indicate studies included in the meta-analysis.

Alreck, P. L., & Settle, R. B. (1995). *The survey research handbook*. Boston, MA: Irwin-McGraw-Hill.

*Arick, J. R., & Krug, D. A. (1993). Special education administrators in the United States: Perceptions on policy and personnel issues. *The Journal of Special Education*, *27*(3), 348-364.

Boscardin, M. L. (2005). The administrative role in transforming secondary schools to support inclusive evidence-based practices. *American Secondary Education, 33*(3), 21-32.

Bowser, B. A. (2001, May). Principal shortage. *News hour with Jim Lehrer* [Television broadcast]. New York: Public Broadcasting Service.

Boyan, N. J. (1963). Common and specialized learning for administrators and supervisors: Some problems and issues. In D. J. Leu & H. J. Rudman (Eds.), *Preparation programs for school administrators: Common and specialized learnings* (pp. 1-23). East Lansing: Michigan State University**.**

Boyer, E. L. (1983). *High school: A report on secondary education in America.* New York: Harper & Row.

*Burrello, L. C., & Zadnik, D. J. (1986). Critical success factors of special education administrators. *The Journal of Special Education, 20*(3), 367-374.

Button, H. W. (1965). Doctrines of administration: A brief history. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 2,* 217-223.

Callahan, R. E. (1966). *The superintendent of schools: A historical analysis.* St. Louis, MO: Washington University.

Campbell, R. F., Fleming, T., Newell, L. J., & Bennion, J. W. (1987). *A history of thought and practice in educational administration.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Campbell, R. F., & Newell, L. J. (1973). *A study of professors of educational administration: Problems and prospects of an applied academic field.* Columbus, OH: University Council for Educational Administration.

Clark, D. (1999). *Competencies.* Retrieved September 8, 2008, from http://www .nwlink.com/~donclark/hrd/case/compet1.html

Clark, D. (2008). *David McClelland.* Retrieved September 8, 2008 from http://www .nwlink.com/~donclark/hrd/case/McClelland.html

Cline, R. (1981). Principals' attitudes and knowledge about handicapped children. *Exceptional Children, 48*(2), 172-174.

Connor, L. E., (1961). *Administration of special education programs.* New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, Bureau of Publications.

Cook, C., Heath, F., & Thompson, R. (2000). A meta-analysis of response rates in web or Internet-based surveys. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 60,* 821-836.

Cooner, D., Tochterman, S., & Garrison-Wade, D. (2005). *Preparing principals for leadership in special education: Applying ISLLC standards.* Retrieved February 28, 2010, from http://www.principals.org/Portals/0/Content/ 49135.pdf

Council for Exceptional Children. (2002). *What does a principal need to know about inclusion?* Retrieved January 14, 2009, from http://www.cec.sped.org

Council of Chief State School Officers. (1996). *Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards for school leaders.* Washington, DC: Author. Available from http://www.ccsso.org/content/pdfs/isllcstd.pdf

*Cruzeiro, P. A., & Morgan, R. L. (2006). The rural principal's role with consideration for special education. *Education*, *126*(3), 569-579.

Culbertson, J. A. (1963). Common and specialized content in the preparation of administrators. In D. J. Leu & H. J. Rudman (Eds.), *Preparation programs for school administrators: Common and specialized learnings* (pp. 34-60). East Lansing: Michigan State University.

Culbertson, J. A. (1969). The federal force in education. In J. Culbertson, R. H. Farquhar, A. K. Gaynor, & M. R. Shibles (Eds.), *Preparing educational leaders for the seventies* (pp. 9-29). Columbus, OH: University Council for Educational Administration.

Culbertson, J. (1983). Theory in educational administration: Echoes from critical thinkers. *Educational Researcher*, *12*(10), 15-22.

Culbertson, J. (1988). A century‘s quest for a knowledge base. In N. Boyan (Ed.), *Handbook of research on educational administration: A project of the American Educational Research Association* (pp. 3-26). New York: Longman.

Culbertson, J. (1995). *Building bridges: UCEA's first two decades.* University Park, PA: University Council for Educational Administration.

Daresh, J. (2002). *What it means to be a principal: Your guide to leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press. (ERIC Document Service Reproduction No. ED457601)

Davis, J., & Jazzar, M. (2005). Seven habits of effective principal preparation programs. *Principal, 84*(5), 18-21.

Davis, P., Naughton, J., & Rothwell, W. (2004). New roles and new competencies for the profession. *Training and Development, 58* (4), 26-36.

DiPaola, M., Tschannen-Moran, M., & Walter-Thomas, C. (2004). School principals and special education: Creating the context for academic success. *Focus on Exceptional Children*, *37*(1), 1-10.

DiPaola, M., & Walther-Thomas, C. (2003). *Principals and special education: The critical role of school leaders* (Report No. EC309925). Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (ERIC Document Service Reproduction No. ED477115)

Doud, J. L., & Keller, E. P. (1998). *The K–8 principal in 1998.* Alexandria, VA: National Association of Elementary School Principals.

Downey, L. W. (1963). The secondary school principal. In D. J. Leu & H. J. Rudman (Eds.), *Preparation programs for school administrators: Common and specialized learnings* (pp. 123-136). East Lansing: Michigan State University.

Education for All Handicapped Children Act, 20 U.S.C. 1400 et seq. (1975).

Educational Research Service. (1998). *Is there a shortage of qualified candidates for openings in the principalship? An exploratory study.* Arlington, VA: Author.

Educational Research Service. (2000). *The principal, keystone of a high achieving school: Attracting and keeping the leaders we need.* Arlington, VA: Author.

Edwords, A. D. (2006). *The training of future professors: Supervisors' views on doctoral teaching assistant training*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University, Commerce). UMI 3245228

Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Pub. L. No. 85-10 (1965). Retrieved March 16, 2007, from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Elementary_and _Secondary_Education_Act

Farkas, S., Johnson, J., Duffett, A., Foleno, T., & Foley, P. (2001). *Trying to stay ahead of the game: Principals and superintendents talk about leadership.* Washington, DC: Public Agenda.

Fenwick, L. T., & Pierce, M. C. (2002). *Professional development of principals* (Report No. ED99CO0007). Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (ERIC Document Service Reproduction No. ED477731)

*Gibbs, A. S., & Slate, J. R. (2003). A meta-ethnographic analysis of the leadership activities of secondary school principals. *Research for Educational Reform*, 8 (4), 3-34.

Gilhool, T. (1976). Changing public policies: Roots and forces. In M. Reynolds (Ed.), *Mainstreaming: Origins and implications* (pp. 8-13). Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children.

*Gillung, T. B., Spears, J., Campbell, P., & Rucker, C. N. (1992). Competencies for administrators of special education. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education, 6,* 71-90.

Goodland, J. I., & Lovitt, T. C. (Eds.). (1993). *Integrating general and special education.* Columbus, OH: Merrill/Macmillan.

Goodwin, R. H., Cunningham, M. L., & Childress, R. (2003). The changing role of the secondary principal. *NASSP Bulletin, 87*(634), 26-42.

*Gorton, R. A., & McIntyre, K. E. (1978). *The senior high school principalship. Volume II: The effective principal.* Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Green, R. L. (2001). *Practicing the art of leadership: A problem-based approach to implementing the ISLLC standards.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Griffiths, D. E. (1959). *Administrative theory.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Grigoryev, P. (2006). Hiring by competency models. *The Journal for Quality and Participation, 29*(4), 16-18.

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

Grosenick, J. K., & Reynolds, M. C. (1978). *Teacher education: Renegotiating roles for mainstreaming,* Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED159156)

Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. H. (1996). Reassessing the principal's role in school effectiveness: A review of empirical research, 1980–1995. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 32*(1), 5-45.

Hargan, M., & Forringer, P. (1977). *Special education: A guide to needs assessment, to determining needs and setting priorities for: Materials, services, curriculum, mainstreaming, resources, and in-service training*. Westport, CN: Market Data Retrieval.

Harris, W. T. (1886). Method of pedagogical inquiry. In National Education Association, *The Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the National Education Association* (pp. 493-503). Peoria, IL: National Education Association.

Haskell, T. L. (1977). *The emergence of professional social science.* Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

*Hebert, E. A., & Miller, S. I. (1985). Role conflict and the special education supervisor: A qualitative analysis. *The Journal of Special Education*, *19*(2), 215-229.

Hill, D. A. (1993). *The realities of principalship* (Report No. EA025512). Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED364972)

Hirth, M. A., & Valesky, T. C. (1990). Survey of universities: Special education knowledge requirements in school administrator preparation programs. *Planning and Changing, 21*(3), 165-172.

Individuals With Disabilities Education Act Amendments of 1997, Pub. L. No. 102-17 (1997).

Individuals With Disabilities Education Improvement Act, Pub. L. No. 108-446 (2004).

Institute for Educational Leadership. (2000, October). *Leadership for student learning: Reinventing the principalship: A report of the Task Force on the Principalship.* Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved March 1, 2007, from http://www.iel.org

Isaac, S., & Michael, W. B. (1995). *Handbook in research and evaluation: A collection of principles, methods, and strategies useful in the planning, design, and evaluation of studies in education and the behavioral sciences* (3rd ed). San Diego, CA: EDITS.

Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium. (1997). *Standards.* Retrieved April 14, 2009 from http://coe.fgcu.edu/faculty/valesky/ISLLCStandards.htm

Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium. (2008). *Educational leadership policy standards.* Retrieved April 14, 2009 from http://www.ccsso.org/content/pdfs/elps_isllc2008.pdf

Kaplowitz, M. D., Hadlock, T.D., & Levine, R. (2004). A comparison of web and mail survey response rates. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *68*(1), 98-101.

Kerchner, C. T. (1988). Bureaucratic entrepreneurship: The implications of choice for school administration. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 24*(4), 381-392.

Kittleson, M. J. (1997). Determining effective follow-up of e-mail surveys. *American Journal of Health Behavior, 21*(3), 193-196.

Konkol, M. J. (2001, March 27). Schools face matter of principals: Shortage has city looking to pilot program for help. *Daily Southtown,* p. 1.

Kuhn, T. S. (1962). *The structure of scientific revolutions. Foundations of the unity of science series, Vol. 2* (pp. 1-210). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Lashley, C. L., & Boscardin, M. L. (2003). Special education administration at a crossroads. *Journal of Special Education Leadership*, *16*, 63-75.

Lashway, L. (2003). Transforming principal preparation. *ERIC Digest, 165*. Retrieved February 22, 2009, from http://eric.uoregon.edu/publications/digests/digest165

Leach, D. C. (2008, September). Competencies: From deconstruction to reconstruction and back again, lessons learned. *American Journal of Public Health, 98*(9), 1562-1564.

*Lietz, J., & Kaiser, J. S. (1979). The principal's role in administering programs for exceptional children. *Education*, *100*(1), 31-41.

Litwin, M. S. (2003). *How to assess and interpret survey psychometrics* (2nd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Lucia, A. D., & Lepsinger, R. (1999). *The art and science of competency models.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass/Pfeiffer.

*Mackie, R. P., & Engel, A. M. (1955). *Directors and supervisors of special education in local school systems.* (U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Bulletin No. 13). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Mann, L. M. (2002). Selling the principalship. *Principal*, *82*(1), 32.

Mansfield, R. S. (2000, November). *Practical questions for building competency models.* Paper presented at Insight Information Company Conference: Competency Based Management for the Federal Public Service, Ottawa, Canada.

Marshman, L. R. (1965). *Job description for director of special education, Jefferson Township School District.* Unpublished manuscript, The University of Texas, Austin.

Martin, D. S. (1986). Special education vs. ~~r~~egular" education: Bridging the cultural gap. *The Clearing House*, 59, 259-262.

Martin, E. (1976). Integration of the handicapped child into regular schools. In M. Reynolds (Ed.), *Mainstreaming: Origins and implications* (pp. 5-7). Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children.

Matz, C. M. (1999). *Administration of web versus paper surveys: Mode effects and response rates.* Master's thesis, University of North Carolina. (ERIC Document Reproduction Services No. ED439694)

McCarthy, M., & Kuh, G. D. (1997). *Continuity and change: The educational leadership professoriate.* Columbia, MO: University Council for Educational Administration.

McClelland, D. C. (1973). Testing for competence rather than for intelligence. *American Psychologist, 28,* 1-14.

McWilliams, M. A., (2007). A leadership competency model: Guiding NAON processes. *Orthopedic Nursing*, *26*(4), 211-213.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Mirabile, R. J. (1997). Everything you wanted to know about competency modeling. *Training and Development, 51*(8), 73-77.

Montier, R., Alai, D., & Kramer, D. (2006, July). Competency models develop top performance. *Training and Development, 60*(7), 47-50.

Murphy, J. (2001, September). *Re-culturing the profession of educational leadership: New blueprints.* Paper commissioned for the meeting of the National Commission for the Advancement of Educational Leadership Preparation, Racine, WI. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED464380)

National Association of Elementary School Principals. (2008). *Special education.* Retrieved January 15, 2009 from http://www.naesp.org/principal2008ND.aspx

National Association of Secondary School Principals. (2005). *A listing of nationally recognized educational leadership preparation programs at CATE accredited colleges and universities.* Retrieved February 22, 2009, from http://www .principals.org/s_nassp/bin.asp?CID=1198&DID=26752&DOC=FILE

National Association of Secondary School Principals. (2008). *Strengthening principal preparation.* Retrieved February 22, 2009, from http://www.principals.org/ s_nassp

National Education Association. (2004). *School improvement.* Retrieved August 21, 2005, from http://www.nea.org/esea/eseaschools.html

*Nevin, A. (1979). Special education administration competencies required of the general education administrator. *Exceptional Children*, *45*(5), 363-365.

*Newman, K. S. (1970). Administrative tasks in special education. *Exceptional Children, 36*, 521-524.

No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, Pub. L. No. 107-110 (2002).

Norton, J. (2002). *Preparing school leaders: It's time to face the facts.* Atlanta, GA: Southern Regional Education Board.

Owings, W. A., & Kaplan, L. S. (2003). *Best practices, best thinking, and emerging issues in school leadership.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Payne, W. H. (1886). *Contributions to the science of education.* New York: Harper.

Pierce, P. R. (1935). *The origin and development of the public school principalship.* Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Poret, G. C. (1930). *The contributions of William Harold Payne to public education.* Nashville, TN: George Peabody College for Teachers.

*Portion, B., Schneider, P., DeArmond, M., & Gundlach. (2003). *Making sense of leading schools: A study of the school principalship* (Report No. EA 032 811). Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED481977)

*Raske, D. E. (1979). The role of general school administrators responsible for special education programs. *Exceptional Children, 45*(8), 645-646.

Reynolds, M., & Birch, J. (1982). *Teaching exceptional children in all America's schools* (2nd ed.). Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children.

*Rude, H. A., & Sasso, G. M. (1988). Colorado special education administrative competencies. *Teacher Education and Special Education, 11*(4), 139-143.

Sable, J., & Hill, J. (2006). *Overview of public elementary and secondary students, staff, schools, school districts, revenues, and expenditures: School Year 2004–05 and Fiscal Year 2004* (NCES 2007-309). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.

Schwab, J. J. (1964). The professorship in educational administration: Theory-art-practice. In D. J. Willower & J. A. Culbertson (Eds.), *The professorship in educational administration.* Columbus, OH: University Council for Educational Administration.

Simpson, R. L., LaCava, P. G., & Graner, P. (2004), The No Child Left Behind Act: Challenges and implications for educators. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, *40*(2), 67-75.

Southwest Educational Development Laboratory. (2009). *American Educational Research Association.* Retrieved June 25, 2009, from http://txcc.sedl.org/links/index.html

Stainback, W., & Stainback, S. (1984). A rationale for the merger of special and regular education. *Exceptional Children, 51*(2), 102-111.

State Board of Educator Certification. (2002). *Revised Code of Ethics and standard practices for Texas educators.* Austin, TX: Author.

Sternberg, R. J. (2007). A systems model of leadership. *American Psychologist, 62*(1), 34-42.

*Stevenson-Jacobson, R., Jacobson, J., & Hilton, A. (2006). Principals' perceptions of critical skills needed for administration of special education. *Journal of Special Education Leadership, 19*(2), 39-47.

Strayer, G. D. (1925). Professional training for superintendents of schools. *Teachers College Record*, *26*(10), 815-826.

Sue, V. M. (2007). *Conducting online surveys.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

SurveyMonkey. (1999). *Online survey tool.* Available from http://www .surveymonkey.com

Telford, C., & Sawyer, J. (1981). *The exceptional individual* (4th ed). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Thomas, S. J. (2004). Using web and paper questionnaires for data-based decision making: From design to interpretation of the results. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Turnbill, H. R., & Cilley, M. (1999). *Explanations and implications of the 1997 Amendments to IDEA*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill-Prentice.

U.S. Department of Education. (2004). *Title I—Improving the academic achievement of the disadvantaged, as found in Section 1001 of the No Child Left Behind Act.* Retrieved April 14, 2009, from http://www.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/ esea02/pg1.html

U.S. Department of Education. (2005). *Spelling announces new special education guidelines, details workable, "common-sense" policy to help states implement No Child Left Behind* (Press release). Retrieved August 21, 2005, from http:// www.ed.gov/print/news/pressreleases/2005/05/05102005.html

U.S. Department of Education. (2006). *Raising achievement: Alternate assessments for students with disabilities.* Retrieved April 14, 2009, from http://www.ed .gov/policy/elsec/guid/raising/alt-assess-long.html

U.S. Department of Labor. (2010). *Equal Opportunity Employment.* Retrieved March 3, 2010, from http://www.dol.gov/dol/topic/discrimination/index.htm

University Council for Educational Administration. (1998). *UCEA membership policy and procedures.* Retrieved March 5, 2010, from http://www.ucea.org/membership-policy-and-procedur/

University Council for Educational Administration. (2009). *Values, vision, & goals.* Retrieved March 5, 2010, from http://www.ucea.org/values-vision-goals

University of Texas at Austin. (2004). *Graduate catalog, College of Education: Educational Administration Program.* Retrieved January 10, 2010, from http://www.utexas.edu/student/registrar/catalogs/grad05-07/ch4/.../eda.crs.html

University of Texas at Austin. (2009). *Principalship: Program plan worksheet.* Retrieved February 27, 2010, from http://www.edb.utexas.edu/education/assets/files/EdAdmin/documents/UT%20Principalship%20Program%20Plan%20.pdf

Valesky, T. C., & Hirth, M. A. (1992). Survey of the states: Special education knowledge requirements for school administrators. *Exceptional Children*, *58*(5), 399-406.

*Wakeman, S. Y., Browder, D. M., Flowers, C., & Ahlgrim-Delzell, L. (2006). Principals‘ knowledge of fundamental and current issues in special education. *NASSP Bulletin, 90*(2), 153-174.

Weinstein, D. F. (1989). The school administrator and special education programs: Quality control of placement and instruction. *ERS Spectrum*, *1*(3), 35-40.

Weisenstein, G. R., & Damien-Gall, M. (1978). Adapting teacher education to include mainstreaming: Dean's grant project. *Journal of Teacher Education, 29*(6), 22-24.

Wigle, S. E., & Wilcox, D. J. (1999). The special education competencies of general education administrators. *Reading Improvement*, *36*(1), 4-15.

Wigle, S. E., & Wilcox, D. J. (2002). Special education directors and their competencies on CEC-identified skills. *Education, 123*(2), 276-88.

Will, M. (1986). Educating children with learning problems: A shared responsibility. *Exceptional Children, 52*, 411-415.

Yates, J.R. (Ed.). (1976). *The integration of general and special education administration: Model, program, and product development and evaluations.* Columbus, OH: University Council for Educational Administration. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED136328)

Young, M. D., Petersen, G. J., & Short, P. M. (2002). The complexity of substantive reform: A call for interdependence among key stakeholders. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 38,* 137-175.

Ysseldyke, J. E., Nelson, J. R., Christenson, S., Johnson, D., Dennison, A., . . . & Hawes, M. (2004). What we know and need to know about the consequences of high-stakes testing for students with disabilities. *Exceptional Children*, *71*(1), 75-94.

VITA

Megan M. Cusson graduated from Lake Central High School, Saint John, IN. She entered Indiana University at Bloomington, where she earned a Bachelor‘s of Science degree in Education. Upon her graduation, she was employed as a high school English and English as a Second Language teacher, Varsity Girl‘s soccer coach, Parenting Education Coordinator, and Class Sponsor in San Antonio, Texas. During this time, she attended Our Lady of the Lake University, San Antonio, Texas where she received her Master‘s of Social Work. The following years she was employed as a social worker and school counselor in the San Antonio, Texas area. In 2004, she entered the Graduate School at The University of Texas at Austin to pursue her doctorate in Special Education Administration. It is through her academic research that she has been given the opportunity to present at numerous national conferences regarding: special education, No Child Left Behind, administrator preparation programs and teacher education training, in relation to inclusive practices. Concurrently, she was employed as a high school counselor in both Austin and Round Rock Independent School Districts. She graduated from the University of Texas at Austin in May 2010, and hopes to continue her career in public education to teach and serve students of diverse populations.

This manuscript was typed by the author.