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Unpacking the Foundations of ISLLC *Standards* and Addressing Concerns in the Academic Community

Joseph Murphy

The purpose of this article is to explore the foundations of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium's (ISLLC's) Standards for School Leaders. First, the eight strategies used to develop the Standards are discussed. Second, responses are provided to six broad issues raised by colleagues who have provided critical reviews of the Standards.

Keywords: *leadership; administrator standards; Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC)*

Over the past quarter century, the field of school administration has experienced considerable turmoil as it has struggled to grow out of its adolescence. During the last half of that time period, in ways that were rarely seen earlier in our profession, a good deal of energy has been invested in coming to grips with the question of what ideas should shape school administration in a posttheory era inside the academy and a postindustrial world for education writ large. This article focuses on arguably the most significant reshaping initiative afoot in the profession during this time, the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC), and it outlines the design of its change engine, the *ISLLC Standards for School Leaders*. Although there is, by necessity, a bit of history in the narrative, it is not an historical story. Rather, it is an analysis of a concerted effort to rebuild the foundations of school administration, both within the practice and academic domains of the profession.

The purpose of this article is twofold: (a) to lay out the foundations that support the *Standards* and (b) to address concerns that have surfaced about the *Standards* by colleagues in the academic community.¹ Correspondingly, following this introduction, the article is divided into two major sections. The

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first objective is addressed in the section titled “Reculturing the Profession: Exposing the Foundations of the *Standards*.” The second purpose is treated in the section titled “Examining the Critique of ISLLC and Its Work.”

The National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA), under the leadership of its then–corporate secretary, Scott Thomson, created ISLLC in 1994 to develop standards to anchor the profession as it headed into the 21st century. At its foundation, ISLLC comprised 24 states, most of the members of the NPBEA, and other key stakeholder groups, such as the National Alliance of Business, with an interest in the health of leadership in America’s schools and school districts.

The objective of the Consortium was twofold: (a) to create a set of standards that would provide the basis for reshaping the profession of school administration in the United States² around the perspectives on school leadership outlined in the next section of the article and (b) to direct action in the academic, policy, and practice domains of the profession consistent with those perspectives across an array of strategy leverage points (e.g., licensure, professional development, administrator evaluation). Thus, the ISLLC *Standards* were crafted to influence the leadership skills of existing school leaders as much as they were to shape the knowledge, performances, and skills of prospective leaders in preparation programs.

An example here is helpful. As noted above, the goal of the Consortium³ was to provide the raw material—that is, the *Standards*—to reshape the profession. One avenue (from about a dozen) that can be used to reshape the profession is “accreditation” of preparation programs. Professional accreditation in school administration is the purview of the Educational Leadership Constituency Council (ELCC). To link the important leverage point of accreditation to the goal of reshaping the profession around the vision of leadership embedded in the ISLLC design, the ELCC guidelines were scaffolded directly on the *Standards*. Indeed, the ELCC guidelines are primarily a restatement of the six ISLLC *Standards*, with the addition of a seventh guideline on the internship.

RE CULTURING THE PROFESSION: EXPOSING THE FOUNDATIONS OF THE STANDARDS

Although numerous sources may be cultivated, norms rooted in the ethos and culture of teaching as a profession provide the most effective basis for leadership in a school. (Greenfield, 1995, p. 75)

A new leadership model must construe school leadership as being about students, learning, and teaching. (Donaldson, 2001, p. 30)

Insofar as there is any empirical evidence on the frequency of actual instructional leadership in the work of school administrators, it points to a consistent pattern: direct involvement in instruction is among the least frequent activities performed by administrators of any kind at any level, and those who do engage in instructional leadership activities on a consistent basis are a relatively small proportion of the total administrative force. (Elmore, 2000, p. 7)

The history of the early work of ISLLC and the leadership of a handful of dedicated state leaders is a fascinating narrative that has never been fully told, although it is partially explored elsewhere (Murphy & Shipman, 1999; 2002; 2003; Murphy, Yff, & Shipman, 2000). It is also beyond the purview of our assignment here. Our goal is narrower—that is, to describe the foundations that support the *Standards* and to address concerns about the *Standards* that have arisen in the academic community. To undertake this assignment, it is important to examine the landscape the Consortium confronted in its quest to develop standards and to cobble together an array of strategies to use to bring those standards to life.

The Existing Landscape

The field of school administration was informed during its initial phase of development by ideas from philosophy and religion, which resulted in something akin to a doctrine of applied philosophy being introduced to the profession (Button, 1966; Callahan & Button, 1964; Moore, 1964). Unfortunately, few of the ideas embedded in the ideal of the administrator as philosopher-educator from the 1800s found their way into the blueprints of the profession (Callahan, 1962; Farquhar, 1968; Harlow, 1962). Instead, school administration was constructed almost entirely on a two-layered foundation built up during the 19th century: (a) concepts from management, especially from the private sector, and (b) theories and constructs borrowed from the behavioral sciences.

The idea of school leaders as business managers first surfaced during the early decades of the 20th century when the paramount hero in the larger society was corporate enterprise and its apotheosis, the CEO (Gregg, 1960; Newlon, 1934; Tyack & Hansot, 1982). This perspective has been re-energized and refined over the decades as each new idea from the corporate sector is held up as a tool or framework that school administrators should adopt (e.g., management by objectives, total quality management, benchmarking, 360 degree evaluation, and so forth).

After World War II, the mosaic of American society and the issues confronting school leaders began to change (Hencley, 1962; Norton, 1957; Watson, 1977). Scientists, not businesspeople, were held in highest regard

TABLE 1
A Typical Masters of School Administration Program

| <i>Management</i> | <i>Behavioral Sciences</i> |
|---------------------------------|---|
| School business administration | Research methods statistics (psychology) |
| School personnel administration | School community relations and/or politics of education (political science) |
| School facilities | Organizational theory (sociology) |
| Supervision of employees | School finance and/or economics of education (economics) |
| Pupil personnel administration | Qualitative methods (anthropology) |
| | History and/or philosophy of education (history, philosophy) |

(Halpin, 1960), and a quest for a science of administration in schools was engaged (Culbertson, 1964, 1965; Greenfield, 1988). Forged from withering attacks on “the hortatory, seat-of-the pants literature already in place” (Crowson & McPherson, 1987, pp. 447-448) and a movement “away from techniques-oriented substance based on practical experience” (Culbertson & Farquhar, 1971, p. 9; Halpin, 1957) and crafted from clamorings for more scientifically based underpinnings for the profession (Getzels, 1977; Griffiths, 1957; Grace, 1946; Halpin, 1960), knowledge blocks from the behavioral and social sciences were laid into the foundation of school administration. While advocates of the behavioral sciences were somewhat successful in cementing a science of administration into the profession, historical reviews are much less sanguine about their efforts to dismantle the existing management pillars supporting school administration (Campbell, Fleming, Newell & Bennion, 1987; Murphy, 1992b). Instead, what developed was a two-column foundation for the profession, with one pillar fostering the growth of ideas from management and the other column nurturing the development of concepts from the social sciences. Anyone who seeks confirmation of this reality need look no further than the traditional curriculum that defines graduate study in school administration (see Table 1)—courses, for the record, that “are not informed by a vision for leading change to meet students’ needs” (Fay, 1992, p. 72).

This was the intellectual landscape confronting ISLLC when it began its work—that is, fairly well-established patterns but significant discontent with those motifs, a fair amount of critique, and a few rudimentary change initiatives in play. A corollary was the reliance in the profession on a well-worn strategy for trying to garner improvements, that is, by adding material to either or both of the existing foundational pillars. For example, if current

management ideology is not performing to expectations, add new ideas from our corporate colleagues (e.g., transformational leadership or Baldrige models). Or if knowledge from the currently highlighted portfolio of behavioral sciences is proving inadequate, add new ones. Anyone who has a history in the profession will remember when first sociology (organizational theory), then political science (politics of education), and then anthropology (qualitative methods) were introduced as new paradigms to put the challenges confronting school administration to rest (Murphy, 1991a).

Alternative Pathways: The ISLLC Architecture

Based on extensive reviews of the literature in school administration, the Consortium decided early on that rebuilding school administration by polishing up or extending the current foundations (i.e., expanding the current underpinning of the profession) would likely be less than fruitful. While cognizant that ideas from these two domains are of importance to school administrators, we concluded that they no longer merited their exclusive franchise (see also Sergiovanni, 1990). We decided, therefore, not to focus on the two questions that had guided the development of the field for the past century: (a) What is afoot in the corporate world that we can borrow to rethink the work of school leaders? and (b) What is unfolding in the behavioral sciences that can be applied to power reform efforts? That is, all of the existing tables and equations for calculating the nature of school administration were set aside. We sought alternative and what we hoped would be more productive pathways to our goal of regrounding the profession.

Because many colleagues had already exposed problems with the current state of the field (see for example Anderson, 1990; Beck, 1994; Donmoyer & Scheurich, 1994; Erickson, 1977; Foster 1984; Greenfield, 1988; Griffiths, Stout, & Forsyth, 1988; Hills, 1975) [and for comprehensive historical treatments of problems, see Callahan, 1962; Campbell et al., 1987; Murphy, 1992b; and Newlon, 1934], organizing the critical analysis was a less arduous aspect of the ISLLC work. Considerably more effort needed to be devoted to developing alternative blueprints that might be productive to follow in rebuilding school administration and in securing and arranging the raw material to be employed in the construction process. A portfolio of eight strategies was assembled in addition to examining the status quo in the field at large and reviewing standard-like ideas already in play in the associations. Each of the pathways is noted below in the form of a question followed by brief review of the answer developed to shape the formulation of the standards and to help re-center school administration. We begin with two questions at the heart of the matter.

*1. What Do We Know About Schools
Where All Youngsters Achieve at High Levels?*

A significant chunk of the *Standards* is supported by the empirical findings from studies of effective schools and from the larger body of research on school improvement in which school effects studies are nested. The framework employed by ISLLC was developed by Murphy and Hallinger in the early 1980s (see Murphy, Hallinger, & Mesa, 1985; Murphy, Weil, Hallinger, & Mitman, 1985),⁴ and by the time of the formation of the Consortium, it had been deepened by a decade of additional research (for poststandards development reviews, see Beck & Murphy, 1996; Murphy, Beck, Crawford, & Hodges, 2001; Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000).⁵ The framework also included the research on teacher effects (see Brophy & Good, 1985; Murphy, Weil, & McGreal, 1986; Rosenshine, 1983). The definition of effective, or success, or improvement is the one forged by school effectiveness researchers in the early 1980s—that is, (a) high levels of student achievement (quality dimension), (b) achievement results that are fairly distributed across the student population (equity dimension), and (c) outcomes that are attributable to the school (value-added dimension) (Murphy, Hallinger, & Peterson, 1986).

The body of research on school improvement underscores a variety of conditions linked to the core technology that helps explain student learning (e.g., opportunity to learn, direct instruction of basic skills, tightly aligned curriculum, careful and systematic monitoring of student performance) as well as a host of school-level cultural or environmental variables associated with achievement (e.g., a safe, orderly learning environment; academically focused rewards and incentives; a personalized learning environment in which children are well known and cared for; a sense of community among staff; well-developed and academically focused linkages between home and school). The collective body of research on school effects also features important perspectives and values largely absent from education for most of the 20th century: (a) the need to backward map administrative action from student outcomes, (b) the belief that all youngsters can learn, (c) the understanding that schools are responsible for student outcomes, and (d) the knowledge that schools work best when they operate as organic wholes rather than as collections of disparate systems and elements (see Murphy, 1992a, 1992c, for earlier discussions, and Murphy & Datnow, 2003a, 2003b, for poststandards development discussions of these four points).

Empirical evidence on the centrality of mission (vision) and community is also laced throughout the effective schools research. So too, the spotlight in this literature is clearly directed at youngsters who had been left behind in America's schools for nearly a century, especially children from low-income

homes, students of color, and pupils with a first language other than English (Edmonds, 1979; Ellis, 1975; Gault & Murphy, 1987; Murphy, 1995a; Weber, 1971).

While the early research on school effectiveness was flawed in important ways (Huberman, 1993; Murphy, Hallinger, & Mesa, 1985; Ralph & Fennessey, 1983; Rowan, Bossert, & Dwyer, 1983; Sirotnik, 1985), in its second-generation package, it provided a robust collection of findings that could be used by the Consortium to help reshape understanding of the purposes of school administration and the appropriate functions of school leaders. The aim of the development team was then to define leadership in terms of connections to conditions of schooling (e.g., high and appropriate expectations, clear academic goals) that explain student achievement—to backward map leadership from student learning. (See Evertson & Murphy, 1992; Murphy, 1991b. For a comprehensive poststandards discussion, see Murphy, 1991c, 2004.)

2. *What Do We Know About the Actions and Values of the Women and Men Who Lead Effective Schools and Productive School Systems?*

In developing the *Standards*, the Consortium also relied heavily on the research on principals and superintendents who were especially productive in leading high-performing organizations—again, with performance being established by reference to the three-part definition of effectiveness outlined above (quality, equity, and value-added). We employed “instructional leadership” frameworks developed by Murphy and Hallinger from their empirical studies and their reviews of existing research available at the time the Consortium began its work (for principals, see Beck & Murphy, 1992, 1993; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985b; Louis & Murphy, 1994; Murphy 1990d, 1994c; Murphy & Hallinger, 1992; Murphy, Hallinger, Weil, & Mitman, 1983a; for superintendents, see Hallinger & Murphy, 1982; Murphy, 1994a, 1995b; Murphy & Hallinger, 1986, 1988; Murphy, Hallinger, Peterson, & Lotto, 1987; Peterson, Murphy, & Hallinger, 1987; and for critical analyses, see Hallinger & Murphy, 1987; Murphy, 1988b; Murphy, Hallinger, Lotto, & Miller, 1987; Murphy, Hallinger, Weil, & Mitman, 1983b).

At the risk of considerable oversimplification, the research revealed portraits of effective leaders who had a deeper understanding of and who were much more heavily invested in the core business of schooling—learning and teaching—than was the norm in the profession (McNeil, 1988). A narrative surfaced of leaders who were concerned with nourishing the educational as well as the managerial arteries of influence. It provided a picture of school

administrators who had a gift for “infus[ing] organizational routines with educational meaning” (Rallis, 1990, p. 201). Thus, answers to this question again led the Consortium to conclude that the organizing animus for school administration should be student learning and that the professional spotlight should shine on outcomes in this area. Or as Evans (1991) so nicely captures it, “the deep significance of the task of school administration is to be found in the pedagogical ground of its vocation. . . . It is the notion of education that gives the idea of leader its whole purpose” (pp. 17, 3).

In addition to examining empirical findings on productive schools and their leaders, the Consortium also explored how the educational industry itself was changing and what those changes might suggest for leadership in a postindustrial environment. Questions 3 and 4 directed our inquiry in this area.

3. What Trends Are Visible in the Environment in Which Schooling Is Embedded That Are Likely to Reshape the Educational Enterprise?

Having repositioned learning on center stage of the school administration play, the Consortium looked outward. The starting point here was the understanding that almost all of the major forces that have shaped schooling in significant ways have come from outside education. That is, changes are traceable to larger shifts in the economic, political, and social environments in which education is nested (Murphy, 1991b, 1992b; for poststandards development work on this topic, see Murphy, 2000; Murphy, Beck, Knapp, & Portin, 2003). The Consortium believed that powerful forces underway in these three domains were in the process of reshaping the contours of schooling and would, in turn, exert considerable influence on the types of leadership required to lead these organizations.

On the social front, we identified two major trends: (a) a reweaving of the societal tapestry (e.g., changing family complexion, increased immigration, shifting social patterns) and (b) an unraveling of the fabric for many youngsters and their families (e.g., increasing poverty, declining indices of physical well-being for youngsters) (Wagstaff & Gallagher, 1990). On the political front, the Consortium discerned a decline in the prominence of the democratic welfare state that defined America for most of the 20th century. We saw an increase in the use of markets to achieve public objectives and a crumbling of the firewall that stood between the government and market spheres of activity (Murphy, 1992b, 1996; for poststandards development work, see Murphy, 1999a; Murphy, Gilmer, Weise, & Page, 1998). Finally, on the economic horizons, we perceived a postindustrial world in

which globalism, competition, and market forces would be more pronounced (Marshall & Tucker, 1992; Murnane & Levy, 1996) and would continue to exert even greater influence over schooling (e.g., standards, accountability, choice).

4. *What Are the Major Changes Underway in the Schooling Enterprise Itself?*

The development of the *Standards* was also influenced by analysis of key changes unfolding in each of the three levels of the school organization—in the core technology, in the procedures and arrangements by which schools are organized and managed, and in the ways schools work with their constituents—often as a consequence of the external forces noted above (Murphy, 1991b; Murphy & Hallinger, 1993; for a poststandards discussion of changes in these three areas, see chapters 8 through 19 in the *Handbook of Research on Educational Administration* [Murphy & Louis, 1999]). In the area of learning and teaching, from the cognitive sciences, we saw the emergence of a new theory of learning, a regrouping of education around principles of learning (rather than around teaching strategies), and an explicit acknowledgment of the cultural and social dimensions of learning. The Consortium also perceived a deepening of instructional perspectives (and accompanying views of assessment) beyond the transmission and delivery models of teaching that had proven their worth in helping youngsters master basic skills. We foresaw a more pronounced place in the pedagogical portfolio for constructively grounded perspectives (e.g., scaffolded instruction, cognitively guided instruction) (Bransford, 1991; Cohen, 1988; for reviews employed by the consortium, see Evertson & Murphy, 1992; Hallinger, Leithwood, & Murphy, 1993; Murphy, 1991b; 1992b; for an especially illuminating recent review of research in this area, see the National Research Council report on learning by Bransford, Brown, and Cocking, 2000).

In the organization and management domain, the Consortium observed trend lines moving away from the heavy reliance on hierarchical forms and bureaucratic tenets that characterized schools in the 20th century (Sykes & Elmore, 1989; Weick & McDaniel, 1989). We saw instructional values vis-à-vis managerial values “gain[ing] a new currency” (Johnson, 1989, p. 110). We saw organization being informed by and in the service of learning (Little, 1987)—of organization growing from our best theories of learning (Elmore, 1990, 1991, 1996; Evertson & Murphy, 1992; Marshall, 1990). We discerned a recoupling of administration and teaching (Evertson & Murphy, 1992). We discussed an evolution to smaller, flatter, knowledge-shaped, and market-influenced organizational forms (e.g., small schools, charter schools,

networks of home-schooled youngsters) as well as a wider distribution of influence, judgment, and leadership, (e.g., teacher leadership, site-based management) (Murphy, 1994b; Murphy & Beck, 1995). The central shift underway was from a focus on schools as organizations to schools as communities—to “the metaphor of the school as community” (Little & McLaughlin, 1993a, p. 189) (see especially Beck, 1994; Sergiovanni, 1984, 1994). The notion of community that found its way into the *Standards* was composed of three key ideas, building powerful connections: (a) between home and school (home-school community), (b) among adults in the school (community of practice, “ethic of collaboration” [Lieberman & Miller, 1999, p. 64], and “community of leadership” [Barth, 1988, p. 129]), and (c) between adults and youngsters (a personalized learning climate [Sizer, 1984]). (For a review, see Beck & Murphy, 1996; for a poststandards review, see Murphy, in press.)

On relations with environmental actors, the Consortium judged that in the educational system of the future, considerably more influence would be exerted by parents, by direct governance (e.g., charter schools), or through market mechanisms (e.g., various forms of choice) (see Murphy, 1996, for a review of the material employed by the Consortium during the *Standards* development process and Murphy, 1999a, 2000; Murphy and Shiffman, 2002, for updated analyses). We also foresaw an enhanced role for other environmental actors from the government and business community (Murphy, 1990a).

Building from the raw material garnered from the four earlier inquiries,⁶ the Consortium also asked two questions that helped deepen the research-anchored, value threads that became woven into the *Standards*. One question raised the assignment of teasing out the valued outcomes of schooling, while the second directed the Consortium to a consideration of the valued outcomes of preparation programs in school administration.

5. *What Are the Valued Ends of Schooling?*

Consistent with the logic employed throughout the development process, we believed that blueprints for school leadership would be stronger and more elegant if the focus was less on the dynamics of administration and more on what was best for youngsters in schools. To continue operationalization of this guiding principle, attention was directed to the preferred ends of schooling, of which three stood out for us: school improvement, community, and social justice (Beck & Murphy, 1993, 1994; Murphy, 1992b; also see Murphy, 2002a, 2002b, for poststandards development analyses of this framework). Because the former two ends have already received significant

attention above, the focus here is on the concept of social justice. As Riehl (2000) has noted, when we turn to schooling, social justice decomposes into two large and interconnected strands of ideas. One dimension is directed toward the role of the school in creating a more just society. The other attends to the just treatment of youngsters and adults inside the "school community." It was scholarship in this latter area that most heavily influenced the work of the Consortium (Bates, 1984; Starratt, 1991; for scholarship employed by the Consortium, see reviews by Beck, 1994; Beck & Murphy, 1994; Beck, Murphy, & Associates, 1997; for a more recent comprehensive examination of this topic in school administration, see Capper & Young, in press; Larson & Murtadha, 2002; Riehl, 2000; Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2001).

Consistent with the earlier analysis, the three-dimensional social justice spotlight of care, critique, and justice was pointed directly at the equitable or inequitable provision of access to conditions of classrooms and schools that explain student learning (time, quality instruction, personalization, content coverage, academic press, and so forth) (for reviews used by the Consortium, see Murphy, 1988a, 1993b; Murphy, Hallinger, & Lotto, 1986), what Murphy and Hallinger (1989) refer to as "equity as access to learning." Another element of this work focused on the reality that inequities in access to powerful conditions of learning, and often the resources that ensure their availability, fall disproportionately on children of color and youngsters from low-income homes, as the following quote from one of the early effective schools studies illustrates:

Go into a city, find where the poor people live, visit one of the elementary schools their children attend, and the overwhelming likelihood is that you will be in a school that is failing to teach its students to read. (Ellis, 1975, p. 4)

Throughout most of the 20th century, schools educated well about one third of their young charges. Another 40% were schooled but hardly well educated. And about a quarter of the children were left behind all together (Murphy et al., 2001; Powell, Farrar, & Cohen, 1985; Sedlack, Wheeler, Pullin, & Cusick, 1986). Poor minority children were disproportionately clustered in these latter two groups. The great tragedy here is that the profession's 100-year infatuation with management practices and chunks of knowledge from the behavioral sciences rarely pushed the field of school administration to acknowledge, let alone address, this reality. The Consortium found this unacceptable.⁷ In reaching that conclusion, we developed a platform that demands, as one critic of the *Standards* laments, "school leaders [who] wield political and legal levers to advance social justice" (Hess, 2003, p. 14).

6. *What Are the Valued Goals of Educational Programs in School Administration?*

Because in many ways school administration as an applied field is defined by its preparatory structure in the United States, ISLLC team members asked themselves, in light of everything else we were learning, in broad strokes, what should be the aims of preparation programs? Relying on analyses of the historical development of these programs as well as the critical reviews of their strengths and weaknesses available at the time (Campbell et al., 1987; Donmoyer & Scheurich, 1994; Griffiths et al., 1988; Murphy, 1990e; Silver, 1982; Silver & Spuck, 1978), the Consortium identified four key outcomes we valued for graduates of educational administration programs. Stated alternatively, we focused on four broad program objectives: (a) facilitating the development of inquiry skills, or enhancing the thinking abilities of candidates; (b) helping candidates develop a robust understanding of education—of learning, teaching, and school improvement; (c) promoting development of broad-based knowledge of people (as individuals, as members of groups, as parts of organizations, and as members of society) and the skills required to work productively with others; and (d) assisting candidates in developing an explicit set of values and beliefs (e.g., student learning is the fundamental purpose of schooling, diversity enriches the school) to shape their actions in leading schools where all students succeed at high levels (see Murphy, 1990b, 1990c, 1991a, 1992b, 1993a, for an extended treatment of the framework employed by ISLLC; see Murphy, 1999b, and Murphy & Forsyth, 1999, for a postdevelopment analysis).

Concurrent with engaging the inquiry process outlined above, ISLLC team members kept one eye focused on understanding the needs of customers and one directed toward discerning the expectations of resource providers, thus the final two questions.

7. *What Are the Needs and Wants of the Customers of School Administration Preparation Programs?*

Three groups were highlighted here: (a) principal candidates in preparation programs, (b) employing organizations, and (c) professional associations. On the first issue, we turned to critiques of educational leadership programs cited earlier, many of which were animated by voices from the practice arm of the field (i.e., former graduate students). On the second area, we had members of the team collect input and gather feedback on the draft *Standards* from practicing principals and superintendents throughout the country. At

the central level, we relied on input from a team of highly effective principals to inform the development process. In assessing the needs of the practice-based professional associations, we depended on the perspectives provided by representatives of those associations who were represented on the Consortium.

8. *What Are the Expectations of Resource Providers?*

Three sub groups were in play here also: (a) citizens, (b) government oversight agencies, and (c) host universities. In reviewing the expectations of the general population (i.e., citizens and taxpayers), by necessity, more attention was devoted to education writ large than to school administration in particular. The research of the Public Agenda group was especially informative. Because the Consortium was populated primarily by colleagues from the various oversight agencies and had a fair representation of university faculty, we depended heavily on them—including collecting feedback from their constituents—to help answer the inquiry about the expectations of resource providers.

The ISLLC Platform: *Standards for School Leaders*

In answering these eight questions, the Consortium produced a foundation for the profession that is quite distinct from the architecture described earlier. That platform is composed of the set of core principles and standards found in Table 2.

The consortium maintains that the *Standards for School Leaders*—and the intellectual pillars on which they rest—provide the means to shift the metric of school administration from management to educational leadership and from administration to learning while linking management and behavioral science knowledge to the larger goal of student learning. In so doing, the ISLLC work corrects perhaps the most significant deficiency in the development of school administration—namely, when we became “conceived as a special field within the larger field of Administration rather than as a special field within the larger field of Education” (Boyan, 1963, p. 12; see also Callahan, 1962; Evans, 1991; Newlon, 1934).

EXAMINING THE CRITIQUE OF ISLLC AND ITS WORK

[The Standards] endorse a doctrinaire philosophy of educational leadership motivated by a particular vision of “social justice” and “democratic commu-

TABLE 2
The Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC)
Principles and Standards

Principles

1. Standards should reflect the centrality of student learning.
2. Standards should acknowledge the changing role of the school leader.
3. Standards should recognize the collaborative nature of school leadership.
4. Standards should be high, upgrading the quality of the profession.
5. Standards should inform performance-based systems of assessment and evaluation of school leaders.
6. Standards should be integrated and coherent.
7. Standards should be predicated on the concepts of access, opportunity, and empowerment for all members of the school community.

Standards

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.
 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.
 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.
 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.
 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.
 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.
-

nity” and *dismissive of conventional management theory*. (Hess, 2003, p. 13, emphasis added)

The standards have emerged from a complex mixture of ideological sources, but perhaps the most influential is the business-oriented influence of the administrative progressives that have shaped the field over the past 100 years. (Anderson, 2001, p. 202)

Mark these two critiques of the *Standards*. I return to them throughout this section.

In this final section of the article, I explore issues raised by colleagues who have provided critical reviews of the *Standards* and the Consortium’s strategy of employing the *Standards* to re-center the profession. A few points are

raised to get us started. First, because as Ayn Rand from the right and Paul Goodman from the left have astutely observed, no one ever wins an argument, I will endeavor to avoid that path in this discussion. Rather, and consistent with the descriptions provided above, I will focus on providing explanations for the decisions that we made in the hope that such information will be helpful to colleagues thinking through points of contention. In the words of Anderson (2001), I present our “position on the issues” (p. 205) inside the *Standards*. Second, the focus is on critical reviews. I avoid the temptation to catalogue favorable responses. And I do not examine the body of literature that explores the use of the *Standards* throughout the nation. Third, and not surprisingly given the responsibility of university faculty to provide critical perspectives, my comments are directed almost exclusively to products of colleagues in the academy. Indeed, colleagues from the practice and policy domains of the profession have provided almost no written criticism of the *Standards* or their deployment. Fourth, I attempt to stay locked on the ISLLC *Standards* and school administration as much as possible. That is, many of the issues in regards to the ISLLC *Standards* and their use have been raised by analysts in reference to the Interstate New Teachers Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) *Standards* for teachers. In addition, there is a growing body of critical analysis on most of the issues embedded in the ISLLC narrative (e.g., standards-based reform, licensure, accreditation) quite independent of any reference to school administration and ISLLC. Most of this later corpus of information is to be found in and around the school reform literature. Here, I am interested in these topics only in the context of school administration and the ISLLC *Standards*.

Finally, as the two quotes that opened this section make transparent, where one is positioned on the intellectual and reform landscape and the perspectives one employs have a good deal to say about the nature of the critique provided. Three examples illustrate this point nicely. First, reviewers coruscating over the *Standards* from one vantage point discern an attempt by the government-professional cartel (i.e., the iron triangle of state government, universities, and professional associations) that currently has control of the profession to solidify its dominance, an attempt to reinforce producer control over the profession (Hess, 2003). Other writers examining the same phenomena see one sector of the cartel (i.e., state agencies) fighting to augment their power at the expense of the other cartel players (i.e., universities), a type of recalibration of the control dynamics inside the family if you will (Foster, 2003; Marshall & McCarthy, 2002). Still others view the process of standards deployment and implementation as a blatant effort to wrest control of the profession away from historically privileged members of the cartel, especially

as a type of frontal assault on the long-ingrained control by universities (English, 2003).

Turning to a second example, critics inspecting the *Standards* from one intellectual vantage point chastise the Consortium for what they discern as evidence of “industrial psychology” in the architecture of the *Standards* (Anderson et al., 2002). At the same time, different analysts denounce the *Standards* for their “endorsement” of constructivist psychology and pedagogy (Hess, 2003).

A third example illustrates our hypothesis on perspective—or the phenomenon known as “believing is seeing” (Lotto, 1983). One set of critics lambasts developers for “ISLLC’s belief [that] school leaders ought to wield political and legal levers to advance social justice” (Hess, 2003, p. 14) and for the heavy emphasis on “diversity” (Hess, 2003, p. 14) in the *Standards*. Other critics lament what they perceive as insufficient attention to these two worthwhile ideas (Anderson, 2001; Marshall & McCarthy, 2002; Young & Liable, 2000).

A key point to these and related examples is that all the reviewers cannot be correct. The *Standards* cannot be both dismissive of management and privilege it at the same time. Neither can they both strengthen the iron hand of the government-university cartel over the education of school leaders and consciously undermine its power. Nor can they be so prescriptive as to be reductionist and so loose as to provide no prescriptions. To engage the charge, I cluster the major critiques into six comprehensive themes or issues for analysis.

Issue 1: The Standards Lack an Empirical Base

Critics from various points on the political continuum have assailed ISLLC for what they contend is a lack of a research base undergirding the *Standards*. In his policy brief on licensure, Hess (2003) asserts that the *Standards* “are rooted in no systematic evidence” (p. 23, note 62). English (2000, 2003), in an assortment of venues, makes a similar claim. As a way of addressing this point, I direct the reader to the earlier section of the article on “Alternative Pathways,” especially to the first and second questions, where I explain that the *Standards* rest heavily on the research on productive schools and districts and on investigations of the women and men who lead schools where all children are well educated—with, given the foundation of this research, a bias toward schools that work well for students of color and youngsters from low-income homes. At the same time, as I have already noted and expand on below, the “base” for the *Standards* includes a good deal

of craft knowledge, or “the wisdom of practice” (Bransford et al., 2000, p. 4; see Shulman, 1987) from colleagues in the practice of school administration as well as a healthy amount of attention to important values that the Consortium agreed should shape the profession and the work of its members.

In retrospect, it is clear that we were remiss in not disseminating information on the empirical knowledge base on which the *Standards* were scaffolded, or in the words of Leithwood and Steinbach (in press), in “not systematically describ[ing] the evidence on which the [the *Standards*] are based.” I hope that the earlier analysis helps to address this need.

Issue 2: The Standards Are Based Too Heavily on Nonempirical Ideals

A corollary to the lack of empirical evidence critique is the judgment that the *Standards* are too loose, that they (a) “represent vague ideas rather than prescriptions for practice” (Hess, 2003, p. 23, note 62), that “ISLLC shrouds banalities and ideology in the guise of standards” (p. 7); (b) attend to nonempirical beliefs and, in so doing, take on the trappings of religion (English, 2000); and (c) require faith on the part of readers (Leithwood & Steinbach, in press). While no one on the ISLLC team set out to create a religion, we certainly did attempt to privilege “ideals” and “nonempirical beliefs” (e.g., that leadership should be transparent and privilege collaboration, that diversity enriches the school) in the *Standards*, as well as empirical evidence.

While I say more about this below under the discussion of “dispositions,” an example of the Consortium’s thinking here might be helpful. Before the school-effects research on which these *Standards* are based, one could count on one or two hands the school districts in the United States that disaggregated student achievement data by race, ethnicity, income status, gender, or any other category. As I noted above, research on especially productive schools and districts and leaders brought us not only important empirical evidence to shape leadership (e.g., the significance of systematic monitoring of student learning) but also a central set of values (e.g., the belief that all children can learn, the commitment to organize schooling to make that outcome occur, the belief that schools should be responsible for student performance) that in many respects are more important than the specific research findings (Murphy, 1992c; Scheurich & Liable, 1995). There is no empirical evidence that tells educators that they should improve the education of children by better serving students placed at risk. There are a number of ways to improve achievement that would not pursue this path (e.g., concentrating resources on youngsters below but near the success bar). The point is that this is a nonempirical conclusion, a value about what is important. Disaggregation’s

roots, and its consequent products, are in the seedbed of justice as much as they are in the soil of empirical evidence.

For better or worse, depending on where one falls in the debate, the ISLLC team held that a standards framework that helped inform the meaning of school leadership would be insufficient absent these and related values. Thus, the Consortium consciously acknowledges the importance of non-empirical material. At their core, the *Standards* are empirically anchored and values grounded. Or, in the words of Gronn (2002), they highlight the domains of “morality and epistemology” (p. 555)—they address “values dispositions and depth of expertise” (Little & McLaughlin, 1993b, p. 6).

Issue 3: The Standards Do Not Cover Everything; or They Do Not Include “X” Concept or Examine “Y” Concept Deeply Enough

On the first issue—comprehensiveness (see Keeler, 2002)—I can only report that this was the intention of the Consortium. The design never called for mapping all the dimensions of educational leadership and every indicator of practice in every context. The explicit goal, based on the empirical evidence discussed earlier, was to underscore learning and teaching. Maps of the full professional landscape can be found elsewhere—in the domain analysis provided by the NPBEA and in job analyses undertaken by the professional associations over the years and by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) in conjunction with the new school leader assessment. Our intention was to illuminate the knowledge that should occupy center stage in school administration and to show how other aspects of the profession can promote more effective student learning and more productive schools.

In terms of missing or underemphasized material, the response to date has been somewhat surprising. With the exception of Hess (2003), there has been almost no pushback from those who are being affected by recalibrating the field around learning, especially from colleagues in areas such as school finance, school facilities, and so forth, that have traditionally held some of the high ground in the profession. And while Hess (2003) oversells his critique (a surprisingly uniform feature of almost all of the critical literature reviewed) of ISLLC’s “dismissive stance toward conventional management theory” (p. 13), he is essentially correct in his assessment of the Consortium’s intent—as opposed to reviewers from the left who believe our goal was to spotlight “old assumptions of a conservative field that has historically been heavily influenced by business” (Anderson et al., 2002, p. 2). As I discussed in detail earlier, the clear intention of ISLLC, and I would argue the outcome of its work, was to replace the heavy emphasis on management with

empirical evidence and values from productive schools and to link everything else instrumentally to student learning.

The most consistent complaint about missing content over the last decade is directed at the absence of a separate standard on technology—a criticism emerging almost entirely from the practice arm of the profession. Indeed, when states adapt the *Standards* rather than adopting them outright, technology is the area that is most frequently added.

From the academic community, Anderson and his colleagues (2002), Furman and English (2000), Marshall and McCarthy (2002), and Young and Liable (2000) have raised concerns about whether two of the three concepts that support the *Standards*—community and social justice—are treated in sufficient depth and/or with the correct pitch. Holding aside for the moment the fact that “community” is the concept with the most play in the *Standards*—being mentioned roughly four times as often as all of the traditional management concepts collectively—the critics raise important points about the work of ISLLC that reveal differences of intention. For example, Furman sees the fact that “community is co-opted to serve . . . the instrumental purpose of increasing student achievement” (Anderson et al., 2002, p. 2) as problematic. She also believes that the construct of learning community ribboned throughout the *Standards*, one in which the concept is “limited to student performance” (p. 2), is flawed. While I share the concerns of many that achievement can be narrowly defined in ways that do more harm than good (Darling-Hammond, 1988; Huberman, 1993), to set community up independent of measures of student learning—and the metrics that assess such learning—seemed to the Consortium not to be an especially good idea. In short, because “in schools the only lasting definition of success is the achievement of children” (Young, Petersen, & Short, 2002, p. 158), we plead guilty to the charge, given robust rather than anemic measures of achievement. In the ISLLC framework, community is clearly conceptualized instrumentally in the service of student learning. Little (1987) captured this point nicely when she noted that “the relations that teachers establish with fellow teachers or with other adults will—and must—be judged by their ability to make teachers’ relations with students more productive” (p. 493). So too have Lieberman and Miller (1999):

Schools can organize in many different ways, improve the professional lives of teachers and expand their roles, challenge regulations, and remove boundaries, but if student learning and engagement are not the focus they will accomplish little of value for students. School change and improvement must focus on students. This is not simply a gimmick that will lead to an understanding of what the school stands for. This is what helps shape the values and beliefs of a school

community. In fact, it is what builds commitment to a real learning community.
(p. 84)

At the same time, in her analysis, Professor Furman does uncover a gap in the definition of community laced through the *Standards*. As I outlined in an earlier section, the ISLLC concept of community decomposes into three ideas: (a) a personalized learning environment for students (building powerful bonds between adults and youngsters), (b) communities of practice and leadership for teachers, and (c) school-home community. What Furman helps us see is that this framework fails to sufficiently address communities of students. Based on this analysis and on appeal to scholarship in this area by Webb, Corbett, and Wilson (1993) and Osterman (2000), I believe that bell hooks's concept of "homeplace" might provide a good fourth dimension to the initial conceptualization of community integrated across the *Standards*.

Issue 4: The Standards Are Over- (or Under-) Specified

Some analysts find that the *Standards* are not sufficiently specified. The three critical points here have been laid out by Leithwood and Steinbach (in press). The first criticism relates to an issue previously examined, the assessment that the *Standards* do not cover everything—what the authors refer to as "errors of omission." Leithwood and Steinbach (in press) focus especially on missing practices needed by leaders in accountable contexts (see also Elmore, 2003). Second, they lament that the *Standards* do not sufficiently address the contexts in which school leaders toil (see also Dantley & Cambron-McCabe, 2001, cited in Marshall & McCarthy, 2002). Finally, they find it troubling that the *Standards* fail to specify the criteria required to meet, or to be successful on, any given practice. Hess (2003) makes the same claim, asserting that the *Standards* are vague and lack specificity.

Others inspecting the same material reach quite different conclusions. They maintain that the ISLLC framework is so specific that it promotes reductionism and standardization in the profession writ at large and in preparation programs in particular (English in Creighton & Young, 2003; Furman & English, 2002).

While the intent of the ISLLC project was to move our best understanding of learning to the heart of school administration, the *Standards* were left deliberately broad to allow concepts to evolve as research evidence accumulated. For example, from answers to the first and second questions above, we know that the principal's ability to support the professional and personal learning of teachers is related to student learning. Yet the knowledge base

about the principles, elements, and qualities of productive professional development has grown significantly over the past decade (see, e.g., Desimone, Porter, Garet, Yoon, & Birman, 2002; Murphy, 2004; Sparks & Hirshman, 1997; and Stigler & Hiebert, 1999, for a review). The terrain today is more developed and clearer than it was around 1995, and so are the indicators one might look for as evidence of leadership in this area. Because, as Shulman (1987) reminds us, knowledge is neither fixed nor final, the *Standards* were designed to accommodate such growth. The language was also kept broad to allow colleagues to arrive at the goals embedded in the *Standards* by varied paths and by multiple modes of travel.

From our vantage point, it is difficult to see how at the level of the “principles” (e.g., access, opportunity, and empowerment for all members of the school community) or the “standards” (e.g., a school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner) the profession is in any danger of standardization because of ISLLC, especially in light of the remarkable uniformity already in play in preparation programs throughout the United States (Gronn, 2002). Rather, at this level, the critique of underspecification is more accurate, a censure to which the Consortium is honored to acquiesce.

For some, the rub, as they say, is in the specificity provided by the nearly 200 “indicators,” although as Keeler (2002) and Leithwood and Steinbach (in press) correctly note, this is hardly a comprehensive list of all possible practices, chunks of information, and beliefs. What seems to be poorly understood here, a fault that rests at the Consortium’s feet to be sure, is that these indicators are examples of important knowledge, practices, and beliefs, not a full map. No effort was made to include everything or to deal with performances in the myriad of leadership contexts. Leadership is a complex and context-dependent activity. To attempt to envelope the concept with a definitive list of indicators is a fool’s errand. Likewise, to claim success in a preparation program or in an evaluation system because there is evidence of the 200 indicators is also questionable. What we have provided are clues offered up by scholars from the academy, practitioners of the art of leadership (school principals from highly effective schools), and researchers studying schools that work especially well to help us see what each of the standards looks like, to provide some grist to those who need to undertake the hard work of bringing the *Standards* to life using the various leverage points discussed earlier (e.g., licensure). As Gronn (2002) correctly observes, we “opted for parsimony” (p. 563) in developing the ISLLC framework. And at least in exemplary or innovative preparation programs, although the ISLLC

Standards helped shape education experience, they clearly did not promote standardization (Jackson & Kelley, 2002).

All of this returns us to the underspecification assertion. It turns out that the critics from this camp hold the high ground. For better or worse, the *Standards* were consciously designed to direct not determine action. The underspecification is not an accident, it is deliberate. The critical ingredients of context and specificity (see Hallinger & Murphy, 1985a, 1986, 1987, for reviews on this issue; see also Erlandson, 1992)—what Weiler (1992) calls “the messy pragmatics and contingencies of educational practice” (p. 101)—come into the picture when the *Standards* and the leverage points converge, keeping in mind at the same time an essential point of the *Standards*—that is, the nature of leadership does not vary by social situation (Foster, 1986, p. 177). Examples in the areas of “professional development” and “principal evaluation” will help illustrate the intent of the *Standards* blueprint. At the Ohio Principals Leadership Academy, my colleagues and I developed a portfolio of programs for school principals. While all learning opportunities grew from the seedbed of the *Standards* and their underlying principles, performance indicators were tailored to different contexts. Our program for beginning school leaders was distinct from the one provided to career principals. In a similar vein, educational opportunities provided to high school principals in some cases employed different performances (and indicators) than the ones emphasized in programs for elementary school principals.

A similar theme is evident in the Delaware system for evaluating school leaders. The architecture for the assessment system, and each of its core components, is the same for all school leaders in the state. But the specific performances and criteria for success, both of which must be clearly outlined, materialize only in context. While all school leaders in Delaware are expected to nurture and support the development of a personalized learning community for youngsters, the specific aims to pursue, the means to reach these objectives, as well as the metrics and criteria to assess satisfactory progress are determined one school and one leader at a time, depending on an array of contextual matters. Likewise, every principal is evaluated on her or his school’s ability to promote high levels of student learning equitably distributed. The “standards” used to gain purchase on the goal as well as the “success criteria” are established one school at a time, with the likelihood that the bar for success would be set in different places for a principal assuming leadership of a designated “failing school” and for a principal with longer tenure in a more established school.

Issue 5: There Is No Legitimate Place for Dispositions in the Standards

For a number of colleagues, the inclusion of dispositions in the framework is bothersome if not downright troubling. These critics see no place for beliefs and values in a standards framework. For some, incorporating values shifts the *Standards* away from a firm research base and toward “value expressions of faith” (English, 2001, p. 3). For others, standards that give space to dispositions place ISLLC “on thin conceptual and legal ice” (Leithwood & Steinbach, in press). For still others, the problem is more specific; they lament the particular focus of the dispositions, or what they call “disposition correction” (Hess, 2003, p. 14), “to establish a doctrinaire philosophy of educational leadership motivated by a particular vision of ‘social justice’ and ‘democratic community’” (p. 113).

Again, not for the sake of debate but to lay out our position clearly, here is the background. Given the moral obliqueness that has characterized educational leadership for much of its history (Farquhar, 1981; Greenfield, 1975, 1988), the Consortium decided that it was not only appropriate but also essential to incorporate values and beliefs in the *Standards*. We employed the term *dispositions* because it was already in use in the larger educational profession through the work of INTASC in developing standards for teachers.

The logic here was quite straightforward. First, much of what leaders do (e.g., respond to patterns of student failure) or do not do (e.g., ignore or justify failure) is shaped by their values and beliefs. Educational administration is fundamentally a moral activity (Culbertson, 1963; Foster, 1984, 1986; Greenfield, 1995; Harlow, 1962) that “requires a distinctive value framework” (Graff & Street, 1957, p. 120). We held that it was important to acknowledge and address this reality. It is also important, the ISLLC team argued, to recognize that these beliefs can have significant effects on the lives of youngsters and their teachers and parents. For example, not empirical evidence but beliefs that special needs pupils, immigrants, children of color, and youngsters from low-income homes cannot be expected to be successful has had a major influence on schooling in the United States over the last 100 years. Where all youngsters do master important academic content, different belief structures are operational (Murphy, 2004). Values and beliefs influence policies, practices, and behaviors. We build a vision of school administration—and standards that define that vision—without attending to them at our peril, as scholars over the last 50 years have shown (Callahan, 1962; Greenfield, 1988). Second, the Consortium held that the fight to create a scientifically anchored, value-free profession had brought forth an ethically truncated if not morally bankrupt profession (see Beck & Murphy, 1994;

Beck, Murphy, & Associates, 1997, for reviews). To be sure, there was danger in emphasizing beliefs and values in the *Standards*. But from where we stood, the greater danger was in ignoring them.

Once we entered this door, we were confronted by the thorny issue of measurement. Nonetheless, our stance on this was and continues to be clear. To ignore topics that we hold to be important for the profession either because they cannot be directly linked to empirical evidence or cannot be easily measured is the hallmark of foolishness. When values cannot be assessed, or in forums where it is inappropriate to attempt such work (e.g., licensure examinations), they are not measured. Where we can garner some traction on the assessment issue (e.g., the hiring process), we suggest that the profession should try to do so. For example, contrary to what some critics suggest (Hess, 2003), the ISLLC-ETS licensure assessment does not attempt to measure dispositions. The focus is solely on the knowledge and performance indicators. To do otherwise would be highly questionable and legally indefensible. And in the portfolio of criticisms of ETS and the SLLA test (see Anderson, 2001), legal naïveté is conspicuous by its absence.

At the same time, for university preparation programs, school districts, professional development centers, and others to ignore core values because they are difficult to capture makes little sense, at least to the ISLLC participants. For example, we know from a series of especially high-quality studies that “even at ‘the starting gate’—when all children enroll in school for the first time—certain children (particularly those who are Black, Hispanic, or lower SES) enter school both cognitively and socially disadvantaged” (Lee & Burkam, 2002, p. 22; also Hart & Risley, 1995; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). We are also aware that schools are often organized and programs often delivered in ways to exacerbate these initial problems (see Murphy & Hallinger, 1989, for a review). Yet while the information to address these challenges can often be found in the research literature, the starting point is the disposition to address the problem (Scheurich & Liable, 1995), an issue of values first and foremost, whether in the hearts of individuals or, increasingly, captured in policy (Edmonds, 1979). Identifying and nurturing leaders who have such a disposition seems like a good idea to the Consortium. Consequently, we assert, such values need to inform the *Standards* that define the profession.

Issue 6: The Standards Are Exerting Undue Influence in the Profession

Some reviewers suggest that the ISLLC *Standards* are on “life support” and face the imminent possibility of extinction (Leithwood & Steinbach, in

press)—or of “becom[ing] part of the predictable pattern of failed reforms” (Bogotch, 2002, p. 504)—although in general, that position has fewer subscribers than the “domination” hypothesis outlined below. Others have questioned the penetration of the *Standards* into the practice of school leadership (Boeckmann & Dickinson, 2001) or whether the *Standards* can be successful absent other important reform efforts (Creighton, 2002). Most of the critical analysis, however, maintains that the *Standards* are insinuating themselves deeply into the heart of the profession, “advanc[ing] certain points of view” (Hess, 2003, p. 15), and, consequently, pulling school administration in what the critics contend are unhealthy directions. Although, as noted throughout the article, different critics see the *Standards* promoting nearly opposite points of view and taking the profession in nearly opposite directions (e.g., constructivist psychology vs. industrial psychology, social justice vs. management).

Again, I begin with the intentions and the viewpoints of the Consortium. The *Standards* and the strategy employed to bring them to life in the profession are unabashedly about influencing the complexion of educational leadership, of moving the profession in certain directions—directions that should be fairly clear by this point in the chronicle. The narrative outlined earlier about changing the calculus of the profession from management to learning lays this out quite nicely. To the charge of attempting to exert influence, my ISLLC colleagues and I would plead guilty. To the charge of shifting the profession in unhealthy directions, we would demur.

Part of the criticism here centers on what is perceived by some as an effort to surreptitiously sneak the *Standards* into play and by others, conversely, as an attempt to marshal a powerful force to run roughshod over the profession. The other part of the analysis focuses on the use of the strategies to move the *Standards* into the limelight. Here, the critique addresses the Consortium’s use of various policy and professional leverage points “to push” the *Standards*.

On the first issue above, discussions, most often verbally rather than in print, hold that the *Standards* simply appeared out of thin air—that members of the profession woke up one day, peered up from their workbenches, and found themselves enmeshed in a web of confining expectations, or, to be more accurate, a new web of expectations since it is difficult to imagine that the ISLLC *Standards* are more confining than the existing licensure and certification bands that hold the profession. Equally sinister motives are attributed to ISLLC by colleagues who see in the Consortium a large bureaucratic enterprise with its boot on the throat of the profession (English, 2001; Foster, 2003).

A few points of clarification here might prove useful. First, ISLLC is a product of the profession. It was created by the profession writ large (i.e., the NPBEA) and, at the time, the nine professional associations with the closest ties to school leadership, including all those representing professors of school administration. Second, ISLLC employed a profession-driven model to create the *Standards* (Gronn, 2002). Each of the associations was heavily involved in the development of the *Standards*, and each has signed off on the product twice, as individual organizations and as members of the NPBEA team. Third, at its zenith, ISLLC had a total of one and a half employees (an Executive Director and a half-time secretary) and a yearly budget of approximately \$250,000 for 3 years. Currently, and for the last 5 years as well, there is no paid staff; there is no physical home; there is no budget. These are hardly the defining characteristics of a bureaucracy. We see the issue here differently, you will not be surprised to learn. The *Standards* is a set of ideas that has spread extensively because it has widespread professional support and because the research base and values infrastructure outlined earlier are seen as providing a much needed framework to reorient the work of educators in the profession toward advancing the educational well-being of youngsters.

More informed critique of the *Standards* revolves around the second topic outlined above—ISLLC’s deliberate use of government-grounded, professional-based, and market-anchored strategies to weave the *Standards* into the fabric of the profession, as well as the unintended negative consequences of engaging these potentially combustible mechanisms. Criticism is directed at both the employment of the strategies (e.g., the use of program accreditation) and the content of the implementation (e.g., the ISLLC indicators). For example, the newly deployed SLLA examination being used in an expanding number of states (13 currently, with six or seven others in the pipeline) in conjunction with initial administrator licensure has been critiqued from both the right and the left. Specifically, Hess (2003) is concerned because he believes that the “State [sic] Leaders Licensure Assessment is designed to ensure they [candidates] hold professionally sanctioned values and attitudes” (p. 1). English (2001) finds fault with the SLLA because it is constructed on what he holds to be an inadequate platform and because it promotes standardization in the profession. On the left, Anderson (2001) holds that the new ISLLC examination “enforces a narrow utilitarian conception of administration” (p. 203). In a similar vein, ISLLC’s quest to reshape the field by rebuilding preparation program accreditation (through National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education [NCATE]) with raw material from the *Standards* is viewed disapprovingly by some (English, in Creighton & Young, 2003). Also, the use of market mechanisms in the preparation

program area to expand the reach of the *Standards* has been criticized by English (2003) for challenging the monopoly position enjoyed by universities, for “wrest[ing] control of preparation programs from the universities and colleges where it has historically been located” (p. 5).

While discussion of these points merits extended analysis that is beyond the scope of this article, a few general comments are in order. On the larger issue of the design strategy, I restate that from the outset, the objective of ISLLC has been to yoke the *Standards* to important leverage points for change. The goal has been to generate a critical mass of energy to move school administration out of its 100-year orbit and to reposition the profession around leadership for learning. On this front, there is evidence that the Consortium’s plan has enjoyed considerable success.⁸ At the same time, the jury is still out on the effect of the struggle to re-center the profession. Indeed, the question has gone largely uninvestigated (Gronn, 2002), although, as noted herein, there seems to be no shortage of perspectives on what analysts expect might happen.

On the more targeted issue—namely, whether the use of particular leverage points (e.g., the licensure examination) are strengthening the profession or not—I can only report that the ISLLC team reads the narrative somewhat differently than do some of the critical reviewers. For example, the Consortium sees the assessment doing exactly what it set out to do: (a) replacing a bankrupt, 200-item, multiple-choice examination with almost no roots in learning or leadership with a comprehensive, learned-anchored, performance-based assessment that is crafted by and evaluated by school leaders; (b) helping ensure that newly minted leaders are able to influence school operations from a base of knowledge that is connected to important outcomes for youngsters; and (c) encouraging preparation programs to recast their work consistent with the perspectives (e.g., the *Standards*) that support the examination (see Darling-Hammond, 1988, on this final point).

CONCLUSION

Formal work on the ISLLC *Standards* began in mid-1994. They were approved in final form at the end of 1996. Since that time, they have exerted considerable pull on the profession of school administration, considerably more than almost anyone could have anticipated. Part of this influence can be attributed to timing. A 20-year struggle beginning with the first studies of productive schools and effective leaders had positioned the profession to accept the mantle of leadership for learning. Concomitantly, a related 20-year struggle to answer the charge thrown down by Greenfield in 1975

about a profession unhinged from its moral foundation had produced a fraternity of sentiment about the value-based dimensions of administrative work. Part of the influence can also be traced to the fact that the ISLLC strategy of standards-driven reform was isomorphic with the larger school reform agenda in play in the United States. Additional variance can be attributed to the use of a broad-based, inclusive, professionally anchored strategy of crafting the *Standards*. Still more of the effect can be connected to an explicit and quite proactive plan to bring the *Standards* to life. And of course, when all is said and done, much of the influence can be traced to the appeal of the vision embedded in the *Standards*, a vision of a profession rooted in learning and committed to the well-being of youngsters and their families.

NOTES

1. This article was originally commissioned by the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA). A copy of the full text is available at <http://www.NBPEA.org>. The assignment to write the paper fell to the Chair of the Consortium, Professor Joseph Murphy of Vanderbilt University. NPBEA asked that the author address these two issues:

Expose the foundations on which the *Standards* are constructed and juxtapose those foundations against the ones that were used in educational administration throughout the 20th century. We are not looking for an historical analysis; however, we believe it is important to ground the work in the context in which it began.

Address points raised by scholars and others who have provided a critical analysis of the *Standards*. We're less interested in further debate on the merits of the *Standards* than we are to read about the logic that guided the development work and subsequent actions to re-culture school administration through use of the *Standards*.

2. The purpose of the Consortium was to influence school administration in the United States. As noted, all the members of Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) were representatives of U.S.-based organizations. It is worth noting, however, that many colleagues in the international community have found the *Standards* to be useful as they engage questions about (a) the future of the profession and (b) helpful avenues to follow to reach desired outcomes.

3. Throughout this article, when I refer to "the Consortium" (or the ISLLC team, or the development team), I mean the full membership of the group—30 plus individuals representing the states and professional associations that developed the *Standards* and the leverage strategy framework for reshaping the profession around those *Standards*.

4. Most of the citations to my own work here, whether alone or with colleagues, contain, or are, comprehensive reviews of the scholarship of others. Thus, they open the door to the full array of scholarly work on which the *Standards* are scaffolded.

5. Throughout, I attempt to differentiate the literature that informed the work of the ISLLC team in developing the *Standards* from, on occasion, more recent updates of concepts under discussion.

6. The process was considerably less linear than is conveyed herein. That is, answers to key questions were developed on parallel tracks.

7. At the turn of the century, the National Commission on the Advancement of Educational Leadership Preparation (NCAELP) reached a similar conclusion (see Grogan & Andrews, 2002).

8. Information on the effect of the *Standards* can be found in the longer version of this article referenced in Note 1 above (see especially pp. 18-20).

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