2016

Examination of access and equity by gender, race and ethnicity in a non-traditional leadership development program in the United States

Thomas J. Shields
University of Richmond, tshields@richmond.edu

Kate M. Cassada
University of Richmond, kcassada@richmond.edu

Examination of access and equity by gender, race and ethnicity in a non-traditional leadership development program in the United States

Dr. Thomas Shields, Graduate Education, University of Richmond, Richmond, Virginia, United States

Dr. Kate Cassada, Graduate Education, University of Richmond, Richmond, Virginia, United States

The authors would like to thank Dr. Gordon Trump for his assistance in the research for this paper.

Abstract

In developing the next generation of school leadership, school districts across the United States and internationally must consider who is being promoted, the training they are able to access beyond traditional university degree work, the schools in which these emerging leaders enter their first principalships, and how prepared these new leaders are to succeed and remain in the role.

This study explores international literature regarding school leader, particularly new leader, development and placement. The study discusses what is happening internationally in terms of the gender distribution of school leaders and the literature of non-traditional leadership development. To explore gender, race, and ethnicity in hiring and promotion practices, the study employs the methodology of case study analysis. This case study analysis formed from a need to understand the changing dynamics of race, gender, and ethnicity in school leadership in four American school districts participating in a non-traditional regional leadership development program. These districts, in the Richmond, Virginia (U.S.A.) metro area, are experiencing changing student demographics by race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status. Specifically, the study addresses the demographic profile of those seeking leadership, the changing demographics of these communities, and the professional assignment of participating early career leaders.

Keywords: school leadership development; placement; succession planning; access; gender; race.

I. Introduction

Demographic trends in the United States have revealed a steady shift in the ethnic and racial makeup of the United States school age population between the years 2001 and 2011. Projected changes through 2023 continue these rapid trends in diversity. Figure 1 represents the changing enrollments of United States (U.S.) white and minority students since 2001. The statistics note that the percentage of white students in the public school population has been decreasing substantially since 2001 and will continue to do so until at least 2023. Black student enrollment will decline only slightly while the enrollment of Hispanic students will continue to show steady gains, almost doubling to 30% of the public school population, over the same time period. The United States Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) noted that the 2014-15 school year marked the first time minority student enrollment in U.S. public schools surpassed that of non-Hispanic white students for the first time, making U.S. public school enrollment minority majority (NCES State Nonfiscal).

Figure 1. United States National Trends in Race and Ethnicity 2001-2023 (Projected)

(Figure 1) in text

The demographic changes of student populations throughout developed countries has mirrored that in the United States with growing diversity and heterogeneity (Pont, Nusche, and Moorman 2008a, 25; NCES State Nonfiscal). Many studies and articles have documented these changes and their impact on schools.

However, the racial makeup of school leaders across the globe are not trending in the same direction. In 2011, 80% of all U.S. public school principals were white while

82% of teachers were white. Ten percent of school principals were black while 7% of teachers were black. The public school principal population was 7% Hispanic/Latino of any race while 8% of teachers were Hispanic (NCES Schools).

In the United States, 2011 national statistics show that 51.5% of public school principals were female while 76.3% of teachers were female. Conversely, 23.7% of teachers were male while 48.5% of principals were male (NCES Schools). Approximately 8 out of 10 pre-primary and primary teachers are women and figures are similar in lower secondary schools, where 68% of teachers in TALIS countries are female yet 49% of principals are female (OECD 2015).

The primary questions of this case study are:

How are four school divisions in the metropolitan area of Richmond, Virginia, in the United States providing leadership development beyond traditional university education preparation programs for promoting and placing school leaders?

There are several tertiary questions examined in the study:

What is the racial, ethnic and gender makeup of the participants of a regional non-traditional leadership development program and the schools they represent?

What are the lessons learned for school leadership development in the U.S. and in other countries for school divisions that are changing demographically for promoting, and placing school leaders who are reflective of each of the school division's student population?

II. Literature review

International calls for strengthened school leadership development and training recognize the need to make school leadership more attractive to potential leaders and to acknowledge the critical roles school leaders play in effective school change and success (Pont, Nusche, and Moorman 2008; Pont, Nusche, and Hopkins, 2008). In *Improving School Leadership Volume 1: Policy and Practice*, an extensive study of school leadership policy and practice within 22 countries, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) identified school leadership as an international education policy priority. The report identifies four 'main policy levers' through which school leadership practice and succession planning can be improved; these levers include clearer definition of school leadership responsibilities, distribution of school leadership responsibilities and accountability, development of skills for effective school leadership (including treating leadership development as a continuum), and making school leadership a more attractive profession (9-13).

Principals carry the bulk of leadership responsibilities in schools yet many countries report concern that principals are not equipped with distributive and collaborative leadership skills necessary to successfully lead today's diverse schools (27) and that training through traditional principal preparation programs has not kept 'pace with the evolving role of principals' (The Wallace Foundation 2012a, 6). As a result, there is a clear call for countries to better 'prepare and train the next generation of school leaders…' (Pont, Nusche, and Moorman 2008, 31).

School organizations must be strategic and purposeful in the development and placement of school leaders in order to attract and retain current and future leaders. The 2008 OECD report called for improved recruitment processes and leader training. As

school leadership becomes an 'increasingly unattractive job' (Pont, Nusche, and Moorman 2008, 30) and 'inadequate pay and grueling work make the principalship an unappealing proposition in many places' (Doyle and Locke 2014, 7). In an examination of the principalship in American public schools, The Wallace Foundation (2012b) noted the importance of considering who is being promoted, the training they are able access beyond traditional higher education degree work, the schools in which leaders enter their first principalships, and how prepared these leaders are to succeed and remain in the role.

Calls for additional research examining educational leadership programs that support early career principals and go beyond traditional university leadership programs (Bengston 2014; Pont, Nusche, and Moorman 2008; Pont, Nusche, and Hopkins 2008, Wallace 2012a).

Need for improved training and recruitment

As school divisions look to secure the future of leadership in their organizations, they must consider the means through which leaders are prepared and promoted. Succession planning is an increasingly critical and visible element in American and international schools and many school divisions realize that they must cultivate leaders found within their organizations (Cassada et al 2012; Pont, Nusche, and Moorman 2008; Pont, Nusche and Hopkins, 2008; The Wallace Foundation 2012a). The Wallace Foundation (2012b) poses the question, 'How do we create a pipeline of leaders who can make a real difference for the better, especially in troubled schools' (16)?

Thoughtful succession planning allows organizations to strategically and purposefully grow their own leaders (Myung, Loeb, and Horng 2011) yet few American

school districts have purposeful, systematic promotion processes in place, particularly for school leadership (Grunow, Horng, and Loeb 2010 as cited in Myung et al. 2011). Districts rarely look outside the traditional state–certified candidate pool and tend to offer in-house recruiting and selection processes that are laissez faire and un-systematic, often resulting in late hiring practices that are drawn out so long that qualified candidates drop out of the process completely (Doyle and Locke 2014). The processes do not help elevate qualified candidates.

Professionalising recruitment would improve the quality and sustainability of leadership, and 'eligibility criteria should be broadened to reduce the weight accorded to seniority and attract younger dynamic candidates with different backgrounds' (Pont, Nusche, and Moorman 2008, 12). Recruitment methods must broaden and recruiters/interviewers need training to properly assess candidates (Pont, Nusche, and Moorman 2008).

The aforementioned strategies address leadership development in schools in developed countries, which fair much better than schools in developing countries. In studying school improvement in developing countries, Aga Khan Foundation Canada found that information on school leadership development practices is scarce and there are 'no system-wide provisions for initial preparation of principals, and in-service programs and courses are few and irregular in occurrence and quality' (Anderson and Mundy 2014, 8).

Placement of new leaders

It is important to consider who is being promoted to key leadership roles such as the principalship, the schools in which leaders enter their first principalships, and how

prepared they are to stay in that role. A final element of the hiring process, placement, is critical - yet few districts employ specific processes to match a fit between candidates and schools. Placement of newly hired, upwardly mobile leaders requires careful consideration (Doyle and Locke 2014). Loeb, Kalogrides and Horng (2010) identify high principal turnover rates in non-white, poor, and low achieving schools. The authors note that such turnovers are problematic for the functioning of the schools and lead to openings that are usually filled with less qualified teachers and school leaders. These schools are more likely than higher achieving schools to have a first year, less qualified principal.

The 'effects of successful leadership are considerably greater in schools that are in more difficult circumstances' (Leithwood et al. 2004, 5). Principals of high poverty, high minority, low achieving schools have greater impact on student achievement (Seashore 2010; Leithwood et al. 2004) and principals who stay in place for approximately five to seven years are more likely to have a beneficial impact on a school (Leithwood et al. 2004). It is heartening to note that in studying leadership vacancies, Branch, Hanushek, and Rivkin (2012) found that although effective and ineffective principals with experience tend to transfer to less challenging schools, effective principals do tend to stay at challenging schools longer than less effective principals.

Examples of non-traditional school leadership training

Numerous non-traditional leadership development models exist throughout the United States and internationally that focus on improving school leadership development and succession models in schools. These programs dedicate significant resources to providing and studying leadership development beyond traditional university preparation

programs. Each of these organizations and/or programs engage in a purposeful collaboration with schools, divisions, states, and other educational organizations. Below are some examples to help the reader understand more fully the purpose of these non-traditional programs in the professional development of school leaders. For a comprehensive examination of international non-traditional programs, please see Taipale's (2012) *International Survey on Education Leadership*.

New York City Leadership Academy, United States

New York City Leadership Academy's (NYCLA) website claims NYCLA is 'committed to improving outcomes nationwide, particularly for the most vulnerable students, through high-quality school leadership.' NYCLA offers numerous services, throughout New York City and the United States, including aspiring principal programs, leadership coaching, leadership team development, and division training through 'hands-on, practical school leadership experiences that align with research-based practices and standards, with a focus on improving underperforming schools' (2016).

New Leaders, United States

New Leaders, a national (U.S.) nonprofit organization that collaborates with districts, charter school organizations, and states, develops transformational school leaders and designs effective leadership policies and practices for schools across the United States. New Leaders' mission notes a focus on academic achievement for all students, but particularly those of color and in poverty. New Leaders' website notes an impact on 'over 300,000 students – 90% of whom are students of color and 85% of whom are from low-income households' (2016).

The Leadership Academy, Austria

The Leadership Academy provides leadership development for school heads, inspectors, government officials, and staff from university. The goal is participant understanding of reforms and processes that have been part of the Flemish school improvement process. Groups of 250 to 300 participants, termed a generation, progress through four 'forums', three-day learning experiences consisting of keynote presentations with group processing' and through learning partnerships and collegial team coaching groups (Pont, Nusche, and Hopkins 2008, 222).

Big Day Out, Victoria, Australia

Big Day Out, an annual convention in Victoria, examines policy issues and the expected role of principals. The event includes inspiring motivational and academic speakers, many of which are internationally known, such as Michael Fullan and Ken Leithwood. There are also strategic thinking sessions about culture and high-performance for school principals (Pont, Nusche, and Hopkins 2008, 189).

Seeking leadership: Mobility paths and methods

Those pursuing career advancement often seek leadership roles for experience and visibility. Throughout the process, others can play an important role and influence placement by advocating (or not advocating) for career advancement.

Using NCES data and a survey of principals in Wisconsin (USA), Williams analyzed who sought leadership development and leadership roles. The data revealed that black teachers in the study population were more likely, proportionally, than white

teachers to aspire to and pursue school leadership. Black teachers were more likely to receive leadership certification and become assistant principals and principals. In addition, black teachers were more likely to be encouraged, or 'tapped', to pursue leadership by people other than their principals, such as central office staff, peers, colleagues from other schools and parents or community members. While there is a limited pool of minority teachers from which to draw, Williams notes that minority teachers in her data set were 'more likely to possess leadership experiences that may make them appealing principal candidates' and that 'race is a significant predictor of teacher movement into some intermediary positions' (2012, 30). Williams' data, specific to her study, reveal two important data points: an overrepresentation of minority principals compared to minority teachers and an underrepresentation of minority principals compared to minority student populations.

Principals can play a critical role in cultivating leadership in others (Wallace 2012b). Farley-Ripple, Raffel, and Welch (2012) recognize that some educational leadership career decisions emerge from choice and are self-initiated, but many are influenced (in part, if not entirely) by others in the system. The authors identify the influence of recruiting, "tapping", and requesting on career mobility. Tapping, an informal recruitment strategy utilized by existing school leaders to identify and encourage teachers to seek increased leadership roles in schools (Myung, Loeb, and Horng 2011), is one means of encouraging potential and aspiring leaders to see themselves in leadership roles and seek experiences that may better position them for leadership.

Turner (1960), seminal in the field of career mobility, explored and proposed a distinction between two types of mobility, "contest" mobility and "sponsored", noting:

> Under the American norm of contest mobility, elite status is the prize in an open contest, with every effort made to keep lagging contestants in the race until the climax. Sponsored mobility, the English norm, involves controlled selection in which the elite or their agents choose recruits early and carefully induct them into elite status (855).

Contest mobility signifies an open contest driven by the 'aspirant's own efforts' (856). Turner equates contest mobility to a sporting event with athletes on equal footing, if the play is fair. Sponsored mobility is likened to private club membership, which requires a sponsorship by someone who has determined a candidate possesses desired qualities. Sponsored mobility offers advantage and can be equated to teachers gaining informal support and mentorship from their school leaders – sponsorship or tapping - for their leadership paths by engaging in visible and instructive leadership responsibilities (Myung et al. 2011). Someone who is tapped or sponsored may gain valuable insights from a benefactor, making him/her a more attractive candidate for leadership roles (Williams 2012).

Equal opportunities: Gender and race as factors in leadership selection

Upward mobility strategies are important in creating the demographic makeup of school division leadership. If schools are skillful in their succession planning and hiring practices, contest mobility would allow 'equal opportunities for equally promising leaders' (Myung et al. 2011, 698). Beyond contest mobility, who is sponsored and/or tapped plays an important role. While both male and female principals tend to "tap" the more prepared teachers for leadership, they also tend to 'favor teachers of their own race and men over other equally qualified teachers' (Myung et al. 2010, 721). In addition to

education and skill levels, the composition of hiring committees in New Zealand, where the hiring process still promotes a masculinized culture (Brooking 2003a), was found to be influential on hiring outcomes, resulting in a recommendation for official guidelines and increased supervision of hiring practices to provide a more fair hiring process, particularly for women seeking leadership roles in schools (Brooking 2008 cited in OECD 2015).

Candidate gender must also be taken into consideration. Disparities exist throughout the world. While showing improved balance in areas such as leadership for women in political roles, gender inequality continues to be prevalent across professions in OECD countries. In OECD countries in the education profession, men are significantly underrepresented in teaching positions, and women are underrepresented in school leadership roles such as the principalship (Pont, Nusche, and Moorman 2008a; OECD 2015). These figures skew significantly in Korea and Japan (predominantly male leadership, female teachers), begin to move toward equity in Finland and Portugal where 7 out of 10 teachers are women, but only 4 of 10 principals are women and then balance to a less than 10% difference in Norway and Poland (OECD 2015). In New Zealand, hiring trustees were generally found to prefer male leadership applicants, even when the women were more qualified, in an effort to provide a 'local logics' (community fit) (Brooking 2003b). The OECD proposes gender targets in the hiring process to increase the proportion of women in school leadership (OECD 2015).

Recruitment, retention and mentoring of minority teachers play roles in minority candidates' leadership paths. Aga Khan Foundation Canada calls for improved educational opportunities for children in developing countries, and for equity

improvements in teacher and leader roles. The evidence of few to no formalized opportunities for leadership professional development lead to a call for reforms to teacher professional development and support systems, including the recruitment and training of more female teachers (Anderson and Mundy 2014).

III. Case study methodology

Value of case study methods

Yin (2013) describes the importance of case study research to developing strong and vibrant comparisons. Case studies are increasingly utilized by researchers as empirical inquiry that (a) investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; (b) utilizes rigorous methods; and (c) provides important insights into the phenomenon under study. This NGLA study is a single case study approach utilizing mainly figures and tables to describe what is happening with the case.

The Pont, Nusche, and Hopkins (2008) OECD study utilizes the case study approach in the comparison of leadership development across five countries. Pont and colleagues acknowledged their case study approach was different than the traditional OECD thematic reviews, but it was necessary and provided a rich examination for what was happening in the field. In fact, the authors stated, "The case studies provide in-depth information on innovations that can inform debate, guide practice, provide reference and help frame school leadership policies in OECD countries" (Pont, Nusche, and Hopkins 15).

There are limitations to the case study methodology and that the results are exploratory and specific to the existing group of former NGLA participants.

Case study background: Next Generation Leadership Academy Program (NGLA), Richmond, Virginia, United States

In 2005, K-12 school divisions in the Richmond, Virginia metro region recognized the regional need for a next generation of promotable, skilled, effective school leaders. Data collected by the four area school division leaders revealed a significant retirement threat to their leadership pipelines: over 50 percent, and in some cases as high as 75 percent, of their current school leadership was eligible for retirement in the next five years (Cassada et al. 2012). This trend of school principals aging and increasingly facing retirement followed a pattern, noted in an OECD report, similar to that in other countries (Pont, Nusche, and Moorman 2008). The OECD report describes how school districts in the countries analyzed 'sought to strengthen succession planning within their organizations and ensure that their 'leadership benches' possessed the depth and strength necessary to fill key leadership roles in the near future' (2-3). The human resource leaders in the Richmond regional school divisions sought expert training beyond a traditional graduate degree to equip future leaders to cope with the dynamic nature of school leadership, sustaining and enhancing high quality teaching, and improving student achievement in 21st Century schools (Cassada et al. 2012).

Since the 2005-2006 academic year, the Next Generation Leadership Academy (NGLA) has served its four partner divisions in the Richmond, Virginia metro region by creating a leadership program that is communal and is focused on preparing leaders to serve ethically and effectively in a broad spectrum of school environments. For this study, 337 educators from a variety of teaching and leadership roles participated between 2005 and 2012. The participating school divisions comprise one urban (City of

Richmond) and two suburban (Henrico and Chesterfield Counties) and one rural/suburban (Hanover County).

NGLA currently serves as a regional, collaborative element of each division's selection and succession planning efforts. In NGLA, aspiring and early career school administrators are provided with opportunities to enhance their knowledge and experiences in multiple aspects of effective leadership based on current research in the field. NGLA sessions feature critical leadership theory grounded through practical application. The sessions, delivered by university faculty and regional K-12 leaders, engage the participants through such topics as: What is Leadership, Group Dynamics, Ethics, Equity, Leading and Communicating, and Leading Change. The curriculum is similar to that of the University of Richmond's Jepson School of Leadership Studies, which was one of the first undergraduate schools in the United States to offer coursework leading to a B.A. degree in leadership studies that focuses on leadership as a service to society.

In terms of participation, each of the four school divisions is allowed up to 15 participants per academic year in the program. Each year most of the school divisions filled those slots except for the smaller division of Hanover County. While approximately half of the cost for NGLA participation has been traditionally grant funded, three of the participating divisions pay the remaining fee. In one division, participants themselves fund the remaining participation cost. Even as divisions face the challenges of increasingly scarce resources, enrollment has remained steady since the inception of the program in 2005-06 academic year.

The authors note that the study examines data for NGLA participants up to 2011-12 academic year, while NGLA demographic trend data is examined up to fall 2014. The 2012-13 and 2013-14 demographic data on NGLA participants is not included in the study because surveys of participants are administered a year after they exit the program.

Case study school division size

Four Virginia school divisions from the same metropolitan region participate in the NGLA. Division sizes vary considerably each in terms of enrollment (academic year 2014/15). Division A, with the largest student enrollment of 58,000 students, is roughly three times larger than Division B (19,000 students). Divisions C and D enroll 48,261 and 23,775, respectively.

Case study school division support of NGLA

Each division permits participants to take time from the school day to attend NGLA program seminars and activities. At the time of this study, 337 area educators participated in NGLA from 2005-06 through the 2011-12 academic years.

IV. Program analysis methodology

Case study terms

Following are terms discussed in the relevance of the study section. They are provided for context regarding the changing demographics of the region.

- *At-risk Students*: Students having physical, emotional, intellectual, socioeconomic, or cultural risk factors as defined in Board of Education criteria, which research indicates may negatively influence educational

success (Code of Virginia, § 22.1-212.5.). Risk-factors commonly used by the Virginia Board of Education to label economically disadvantaged students are those related to a student's economic well-being. A student is economically disadvantaged, "at-risk", if the student:

- is eligible for Free/Reduced Meals through school,
- receives Temporary Assistance to Needy Families (TANF), or
- is eligible for Medicaid.

- *At-risk Schools:* At-risk schools enroll a high percentage of low income (economically disadvantaged) at-risk students. The majority of schools participating in the federal Title I program are elementary and middle schools according to the Virginia Department of Education. In the study group, high schools that are not Title I participants are identified as at-risk if they have dropout rates higher than 7.2%, which equals the dropout rate for all high schools in Virginia for the 2012 graduating class.
- *Grade Levels:* In the United States, pre-Kindergarten through fifth grade schools are considered elementary, sixth through eighth grade are middle schools, and ninth through twelfth grades are considered high schools.
- *Student Race and Ethnicity:* In Virginia, the Superintendent's Fall Membership reports (2013/14) identify students by race and ethnic categories defined by the federal government. Categories include: American Indian, Asian, Black, Hawaiian, Hispanic, Unspecified, and White.

Case study analysis procedures

The study analyses were intended to create a demographic picture of the NGLA program participants along gender and ethnicity lines over time and to identify relationships among groups on the variables of interest (e.g. promotions, years of service, service to at-risk schools). In addition, the study examined the demographic composition (racial, ethnic, and socio-economic) of the student population in the four school divisions that participate in NGLA.

Descriptive statistics were used to describe NGLA participants and their sponsoring school divisions. Chi-square procedures were employed to explore patterns and relationships among demographic groups related to years of experience in a school division; promotions, including promotions to at-risk schools; and school levels served (elementary, middle, high school). Chi-square results are only reported if there appears to be a significant disproportionality among study groups.

Multiple sources of information were surveyed when investigating the broad and primary questions addressed in this study. This study utilizes the following data from participants in NGLA from 2005-06 to 2011-12:

1. *NGLA Participant Applications 2005-06 – 2011-12.* Participant applications provide gender, ethnicity, employment experience and professional goal information.
2. *NGLA Survey 2008-09 – 2011-12.* The survey was completed by 198 respondents who have completed the NGLA program. The survey is traditionally administered one year after participants exit the program.

3. *Annual Position Update Reports.* Participating school divisions provide, annually, information related to promotions and placements, school levels, and resignations of program participants.
4. *Websites Containing Demographic Data*. NGLA division and school information were accessed through school division, state, and federal data websites. Data collected included racial, ethnic, and socio-economic status for the student population of the school divisions and the schools with participants in NGLA. The Virginia Department of Education website was utilized (http://www.doe.virginia.gov/).
5. *Superintendent's Fall Membership Report 2013-14*. A report submitted to the Virginia Department of Education (VDOE) by school division superintendents provides enrollment data, including student ethnicity and the number of economically disadvantaged students, for each public school in Virginia.
6. *School Nutrition Program (SNP) Reports 2002-14*. Published by the VDOE, the SNP report provides the percentage of students eligible for free or reduced lunches, which is an indicator of economic disadvantage in this study.
7. *State-Level Cohort Dropout Report: Class of 2012.* Published by the VDOE, the graduation and dropout data for each high school in the state, which are indicators of economic disadvantage in this study.

V. Case study findings

Virginia trends: Race and ethnicity

Similar to national trends, state of Virginia enrollments have shown a rapidly changing student population in public K-12 schools. Virginia experienced a decline in the white and black public school age population in Virginia between the 2003-04 and 2013-14 school years. Correspondingly, there has been a steady increase in students of Hispanic and Asian origin over the same time period. The most dramatic increase was in the percent of Hispanic students enrolled in the public schools. The percentage of enrolled white (non-Hispanic) students showed the greatest decline. During the 2003-04 school year, the student population in Virginia was 61.54% white, 27.23% black and 6.59% Hispanic. By 2013-14, the white student population decreased by 6.5%, while the black student population decreased 2.71%. Asian and Hispanic student populations increased by 2.04 and 7.18%, respectively (Virginia Department of Education, 2014).

Virginia trends: Students at-risk

The percentage of economically disadvantaged students in the state of Virginia has risen by 9.58% (to 41.2% of the total public school student population in 2013-14) since 2002-03 (State of Virginia, 2014).

NGLA school division trends: Race and ethnicity

Figure 2 below shows an increase in the proportion of Hispanic students and a corresponding decline in the white student population for NGLA participating school divisions between the 2003-04 to 2013-14 school years. The proportion of Asian students increased slightly while black student enrollment declined slightly.

Figure 2. Student Race and Ethnic Trends in NGLA School Divisions 2003/04-2013/14

(Figure 2) in text

NGLA school division trends: Disadvantaged students

Although not quite as dramatic as the increase in the state's disadvantaged student population, statistics on NGLA divisions show a steady increase in the percent of students participating in the free/reduced lunch program (Figure 3). The increase in the percentage of disadvantaged students in NGLA divisions from 2002-03 to 2013-14 ranged from 14.63% to 8.83%. It is worth noting that Division D, with the lowest *increase* in the percentage of disadvantaged students (8.83%), had the greatest percent of disadvantaged students, 74.25% by the 2013-14 school year.

Figure 3. Disadvantaged students in NGLA school divisions: Free/reduced lunch students 2002/03-2013/14

(Figure 3) in text

NGLA school division trends: At-risk schools

NGLA participants represented 201 schools or school-based alternative programs in the four school divisions. Of the 201, 41.8% met the criteria for a school at-risk. Elementary schools (ES) represented the majority of at-risk schools (71.4%), 18 were high Schools (21.4%), and four were middle schools (4.8%).

Examination of NGLA participants

Ethnicity

The predominant races represented in the NGLA participants were black and white. Hispanic and multi-cultural ethnicity represented less than one percent of the participants and were omitted from the analyses. The proportion of black and white ethnic groups remained relatively stable across the span of the study. From 2005-06 to 2011-12, an average of 57.9% of participants were white and 42.1% black (see Figure 4).

Figure 4. NGLA Participation by Race and Ethnicity 2005/06-2011/12

(Figure 4) in text

Gender

Females were by the far the majority of NGLA participants. Of the 337 participants since the program inception in 2005, 71.8% were female compared to 28.2% male participants (see Figure 5). Exceptions were in 2008-2009 when female participation rose to 85.1%, and 2007-2008 when male participation peaked at 36.2%.

Figure 5. NGLA Participation by Gender 2005/06-2011/12

(Figure 5) in text

Professional Experience

Professional experience is defined as the number of years an NGLA participant was employed in the sponsoring school division. For the time period under study (2005-06 – 2011-12), professional experience ranged from less than one year to 39.5 years. The mean years of experience was 10.84. Slightly more than half of the participants had served in their division for 10 years or fewer.

Promotions by NGLA divisions

NGLA promotion data by school division is presented in Figure 6, which shows that almost half (48.4%) of NGLA participants have been promoted at least once since their participation in the program. Of the 337 participants total, 163 were promoted at least once. However, it appears the promotion rates are not equal across divisions. Analysis indicates fewer than expected numbers of NGLA participants promoted in two divisions, B and D. While Divisions C and A promoted 66.3% and 52.3% of their NGLA participants, respectively, Divisions B and D promoted 39.4% and 30.0%, respectively. Note that promotion data are limited to promotions within the group of NGLA participants and do not include all promotions division-wide.

Figure 6. NGLA Participant Promotions by Division 2007/08-2013/14

(Figure 6) in text

NGLA promotions by gender

The gender imbalance in NGLA participants was reflected in all NGLA promotions. The majority of all NGLA participants promoted from 2007-13 were female. Just under 68% of promotions went to females while 32.5% of participating males were promoted. This approximates the proportion of females (71.8%) to males (28.2%) enrolled in the program. Division D promoted the greatest percent of females (76.7%) while Division C promoted the lowest percent (61.9%).

NGLA promotions by ethnicity

Of the 163 participants who were promoted at least once, white participants made up the greatest percentage of promotions (63.2%) while 35.6% of black participants were

promoted. This reflects the proportions of white participants (57.8%) and black participants (42.1%) enrolled in the program.

Leading students and schools at-risk

Serving at-risk students

Of the 337 total NGLA participants, 174 were promoted in the course of this study, 66.8% of whom were promoted to non at-risk schools while 33.5% were promoted to at-risk schools. The four NGLA school divisions vary geographically, ethnically, and economically. Division D has a high number of at-risk schools (38 of 51, or 74.5%) and therefore a greater opportunity for promotion of NGLA participants to an at-risk school while Division B had only 4 at-risk schools of 25 total (16%). For Division A, a large suburban area, 27.4% of schools are considered at-risk; 31.5% of its promoted NGLA participants were assigned to at-risk schools. Of the NGLA promotions in Division B, 7.69% were to at-risk schools; 16% of schools in Division B are considered at-risk. In Division D, an urban area, 74.5% of schools are labeled at-risk yet Division D assigned 46.6% of its NGLA participants to at-risk schools (see Figure 7). There were a small percentage of promotions to positions outside of a school setting. These non-school promotions were omitted from the analyses.

Figure 7. NGLA Promotions to At-Risk Schools by Division 2007-08 – 2013-14

(Figure 7) in text

NGLA promotions to at-risk schools by grade level

Promotions to at-risk elementary schools ranged from 69.6% in Division C to 18.0% in Division B. Overall, 62.5% of the promotions to at-risk schools were to elementary schools, which corresponds to the higher number of participants who identified with elementary schools. The proportions of promotions to all school levels correspond to the relative number of at-risk schools at each NGLA participating grade level.

NGLA promotions to at-risk schools by race and ethnicity

Of the 337 total NGLA participants, 174 were promoted in the course of this study. Overall, 35.6% of the promotions went to black leaders and 63.2% to white. Yet, 49.1% of the promoted black candidates were assigned to at-risk schools and 51.1% went to white participants (Figure 8). Black candidates were disproportionately assigned, at a higher rate than white candidates, to at-risk schools. A chi-square statistic suggests that the proportion of promotions to at-risk schools reflected in the race of participants does not match the proportion of black and white participants in the total promotion pool.

Figure 8. NGLA Promotion to At-risk Schools by Race 2007/08-2013/14

(Figure 8) in text

NGLA promotions to at-risk schools by gender: There appears to be a disproportionate number of female NGLA participants promoted to at-risk schools based on the number of females and males enrolled in the program (see Figure 9). Analysis suggests the number of females to males promoted does not match the proportion of each gender in the NGLA promoted group. Over 83% of promotions to at-risk schools were female compared to 16.4% male. Factors such as the number of elementary schools or the number vacancies

at the elementary level may have influenced the gender of program participants promoted.

Figure 9. NGLA Promotion to At-risk Schools by Gender 2007/08-2013/14

(Figure 9) in text

VI. Discussion

According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development "schools in almost all countries are serving a more heterogeneous population" and pressured to recognize this diversity through policy and programs (Pont, Nusche, & Moorman, 2008, p. 25). In the U.S. and in Virginia school districts, the student population is increasingly racially, ethnically, and economically diverse. In particular across the U.S., elementary schools are enrolling increasing numbers of economically disadvantaged students and high schools are facing higher dropout rates.

The NGLA schools that are part of this case study example in the Richmond, Virginia metropolitan area are also facing the challenges of an increasingly diverse and at-risk student population. NGLA school divisions and schools serve a cross-section of racial, ethnic, economic and cultural populations that have mirrored the statistics in the U.S.

This case study example shows that there is a greater need to adapt school leadership training to effectively serve these diverse and at-risk students. There is a demand to provide professional development training beyond traditional university education that engages aspiring and current school leaders in understanding the diverse

school populations and support at-risk students. This study of the NGLA program and the examination of the results has prompted the organizers to acknowledge the need for topics that examine the needs of diverse schools. Future studies of this program and other non-traditional professional development programs would want to examine topics that are diverse and inclusive. Shantal, Halttunen, and Pekka (2014) note that effective educational leadership training programs should bring together a "set of values, beliefs, and knowledge" that are supportive of broad and inclusive thinking (33).

In any non-traditional program curriculum, particularly those in countries with increasing diversity, there is a need to acknowledge and understand the changing role of the principal (Pont, Nusche, and Moorman, 2008, 27). In most developed countries, including the U.S., the principal continues to carry the primary burden of school leadership responsibilities. While distributive and collaborative leadership are increasingly emerging, there needs to be curricula that address theories and applications of topics such as diversity, inclusivity, thriving, justice, equity and opportunity. The literature that the authors examined did not have any examples of studies that examined curricula in non-traditional professional development programs that focused on the topics listed above. If non-traditional professional development programs are to be effective, they will need to adapt to the changing school populations in the countries that they serve.

Principal "socialization" is the responsibility of all parties involved: the individual, the preparation program, and school system (Bengston 2104, 747). NGLA represents an opportunity for individuals and systems (school divisions) to help aspiring leaders attain or advance in leadership roles and to socialize their new leaders.

Participation in NGLA touches on a combination of both sponsored and contest mobility. Participants complete an application to the program (contest) and their division leaders select those who will participate. Participation offers potential for a "sponsored" advantage as participants learn from and interact with numerous leaders throughout their divisions and the region. Participants gain a "tapping" advantage through NGLA acceptance that is evident in the fact that 48.4% of NGLA participants have been promoted at least once by the 2013-14 school year. In addition, the authors are anecdotally aware of additional promotions within the group since 2013-14.

Overall, NGLA participants are being placed in at-risk schools in all four divisions. The continued participation by divisions with significant at-risk populations is a testament to the value placed on the program. NGLA participants are being promoted, almost half (48.4%) had been promoted during the course of this study. Evident disproportionate promotions of NGLA participants are related to the gender and ethnicity of participants being assigned to at-risk schools. Female participants were disproportionately promoted to at-risk schools compared to male NGLA participant promotions. In addition, black participants were disproportionately promoted to at-risk schools when compared to white NGLA participant promotions.

These results should be studied further due to the small number of male participants, the large number of elementary schools, and the leadership demographic make-up of the broader school divisions (not just NGLA). The number of elementary schools compared to the number of middle and high schools in each division contributes to this ratio.

As the study population increases, results may be generalizable to the school division level, however, at this point the findings are only relevant to the participant population that experienced this non-traditional program in the U.S. In addition, the authors lack available division wide data on hiring, training, and promotions based on gender, race, and ethnicity to compare to NGLA data. Another limitation is the inability to compare overall division leadership promotion data to student demographic data on ethnicity, race, and socioeconomic status in representative schools. We realize these limitations inhibit the comparative nature of the case study approach.

In terms of future data collection and analysis for the case study of NGLA, the authors will examine participation by gender by division, which will show if their promotion rates by gender are expected based on participation rates by gender. In addition, the authors would like to collect data of the overall leadership in each school division and compare that with the NGLA promotions and student demographics. The authors will also seek to understand the proportionality of promotions to at-risk schools compared to the number of at-risk schools in each division. Overall, the authors want to

Finally, there is a need for more comparisons on international level for non-traditional programs and demographics of new leaders and the schools in which they serve.

VI. References

Anderson, Stephen and Karen Mundy. 2014. *School Improvement in Developing Countries: Experiences and Lessons Learned.* Aga Khan Foundation Canada. Ottawa.

Bengston, Ed. 2014. "Principals' Socialization: Whose Responsibility is It?" *Journal of School Leadership* 24: 725-752.

Branch, Gregory, Eric Hanushek and Steven Rivkin. 2012. *Estimating the Effect of Leaders on Public Sector Productivity: The Case of School Principals*. Washington DC: Center for Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research. http://www.caldercenter.org/upload/Hanushek_Estimating-the-Effect-of-Leaders.pdf.

Brooking, Keren. (2003a). " Boards of Trustees' Selection Practices of Principals in New Zealand Primary Schools: Will the Future be Female?" *Paper Presented at BERA Conference*, Edinburgh, September.

Brooking, Keren. (2003b). "Getting Below the Surface of the Principal Recruitment 'Crisis' in New Zealand Primary Schools." *Australian Journal of Education* 47 (2): 146-158. doi: 10.1177/000494410304700204.

Cassada, Kate, Risha Berry, Tom Shields and Charol Shakeshaft. 2102. "EduLead: Regional Partnership. Regional Benefit." *Advance online publication. Virginia Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.* *h*ttp://publications.catstonepress.com/i/72976/7.

Doyle, Daniella and Gillian Locke. 2014. *Lacking Leaders: The Challenges of Principal Recruitment, Selection, and Placement.* Washington DC: Thomas B. Fordham Institute.

Farley-Ripple, Elizabeth, Jeffrey Raffel, and Jennie Welch. 2012. "Administrator Career Paths and Decision Processes." *Journal of Educational Administration* 50 (6): 788-816. doi: 10.1108/09578231211264694.

Leithwood, Kenneth, Karen Seashore Louis, Stephen Anderson, and Kyla Wahlstrom. 2004. *How Leadership Influences Student Learning.* The Wallace Foundation. http://www.wallacefoundation.org/.

Loeb, Susanna, Demetra Kalogrides, and Eileen Horng. 2010. "Principal Preferences and the Uneven Distribution of Principals Across Schools." *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis* 32 (2): 205-229. doi: 0.3102/0162373710369833.

Myung, Jeannie, Susanna Loeb, and Eileen Horng. 2011. "Tapping the Principal Pipeline: Identifying Talent for Future School Leadership in the Absence of Formal Succession Management Programs." *Educational Administration Quarterly*. 47 (5): 695-727. doi:10.1177/0013161X11406112.

OECD. 2015. *Trends Shaping Education Spotlight 7*. Paris. OECD. http://www.oecd.org/edu/ceri/Spotlight7-GenderEquality.pdf

Pont, Beatriz, Deborah Nusche, and David Hopkins. 2008. *Improving School Leadership. Volume 2: Case Studies on System Leadership*. Paris: OECD. http://www.oecd.org/edu/school/improvingschoolleadership-home.htm.

Pont, Beatriz, Deborah Nusche, and Hunter Moorman. 2008. *Improving School Leadership. Volume 1: Policy and Practice*. Paris: OECD. http://www.oecd.org/edu/school/improvingschoolleadership-home.htm.

Seashore-Louis, Karen, Kenneth Leithwood, Kyle Wahlstrom, and Stephen Anderson. 2010. Investigating the Links to Improved Student Learning. The

Wallace Foundation. http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/school-leadership/key-research/Pages/Investigating-the-Links-to-Improved-Student-Learning.aspx

Shantal, Kakon Montua Ajua, Leena Halttunen, and Kanervio Pekka. 2014. "Sources of

Principals' Leadership Practices and Areas Training Should Emphasize: Case of Finland." 13 (2): DOI:10.12806/V13/12/R2

Taipale, Atso. 2012. *International Survey on Educational Leadership: A Survey on School Leader's Work and Continuing Education.* Finnish National Board of Education.

Turner, Ralph. 1960. "Sponsored and Contest Mobility." *American Sociological Review*. 25 (6): pp. 855-867. http://www.jstor.org/stable/2089982.

U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD). "State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary and Secondary Education," 1995-96 through 2011-12; and National Elementary and Secondary Enrollment Projection Model, 1972 through 2023. http://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d13/tables/dt13_203.50.asp.

U. S. Department of Education. National Center for Education Statistics. "Schools and Staffing Survey." 2012-13. https://nces.ed.gov/surveys/sass/tables/PFS1213_2014064_p1n_002.asp.

Virginia Department of Education, Commonwealth of Virginia. Fall Membership. 2014. http://bi.vita.virginia.gov/doe_bi/rdPage.aspx?rdReport= Main&subRpt Name=Fallmembership.

Wallace Foundation. 2012a. *The Making of the Principal: Five Lessons in Leadership Training.* New York. The Wallace Foundation. http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/school-leadership/effective-principal-leadership/Documents/The-Making-of-the-Principal-Five-Lessons-in-Leadership-Training.pdf.

Wallace Foundation. 2012b. *The School Principal as Leader: Guiding Schools to Better Teaching and Learning.* New York. The Wallace Foundation. http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/school-leadership/effective-principal-leadership/Documents/The-School-Principal-as-Leader-Guiding-Schools-to-Better-Teaching-and-Learning.pdf.

Williams, Imeh, and Susanna Loeb. 2012. *Race and the Principal Pipeline: The Prevalence of Minority Principals in Light of a Largely White Teacher Workforce.* Stanford Center for Education Policy Analysis. http://cepa.stanford.edu/content/race-and-principal-pipeline-prevalence-minority-principals-light-largely-white-teacher-workforce#sthash.Z9DnD7Zr.dpuf.

Yin, Robert. 2013. *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. Los Angeles: Sage.