The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin

Editorial Board

Kolbrún Þ. Pálsdóttir, PhD, 2016-2020
Assistant Professor, School of Education
University of Iceland
Reykjavík, Iceland

Barbara Perry-Sheldon, EdD, 2014-2018
Professor Emerita of Teacher Education,
North Carolina Wesleyan College
Rocky Mount, North Carolina

Nora L. Pollard, PhD, 2014-2018
Senior Disability Policy Consultant
Educational Testing Service
Princeton, NJ

Margaret Trybus, EdD, 2016-2020
Senior Associate Dean, College of Graduate Studies
Provost Concordia Dalian China
Professor, Educational Leadership
Concordia University
Chicago, Illinois

Judith Merz, EdD, Editor
Doctoral Advisor, Educational Leadership
Nova Southeastern University

The Bulletin, an official publication of The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International, promotes professional and personal growth of members through publication of their writings. Three online issues per year, subtitled International Journal for Professional Educators, focus on research-based and documented works—applied and data-based research, position papers, program descriptions, reviews of literature, and other articles on announced themes or other topics of interest to educators. Two print issues, subtitled Collegial Exchange, focus on articles based on practice and experience related to education, the Society, women, and children, as well as personal reflections and creative works. All five issues include book and technology reviews, letters to the editor, poetry, and graphic arts.

Submissions to the Bulletin, a refereed publication, are reviewed by the Editorial Board and the Society editorial staff. Selection is based on relevance of the topics addressed, accuracy and validity, contribution to the professional literature, originality, quality of writing, and adherence to Submission Guidelines (see page 63). Editorial Board members evaluate each submission’s focus, organization, development, readability, and relevance to the general audience of Bulletin readers. Due to the diversity of the Bulletin audience, material that expresses a gender, religious, political, or patriotic bias is not suitable for publication.

Please send materials to bulletin@dkg.org or to Bulletin Editorial Staff, The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International, P.O. Box 1589, Austin, TX 78767-1589.
The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin
International Journal for Professional Educators
2018 • Volume 84-3
Published by the Delta Kappa Gamma Society International

The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International
promotes professional and personal growth of women
educators and excellence in education.

Call for Submissions ................................................................. 4

From the Editor ................................................................. 5

On the Theme: Accountability
The Changing Landscape of Accountability
By Margaret A. Trybus ................................................................. 7

Leadership–A Critical Bridge to Accountability
By Judi Jenkins, Larry Lock, and Mary Anne Lock ................................................................. 10

Teacher Retention and Student Achievement: How to Hire and Retain Effective Teachers
By Susan Young ................................................................. 16

Differentiated Assessment of Vocational Skills in an Entrepreneurial Setting
By Janna Brendle, Robin H. Lock, and Donna Brown ................................................................. 22

Imagination Library: A Study of the Sustained Effects of Participation in an Early Reading Program
By Ann Harvey ................................................................. 32

The Revelation of UBUNTU
By Kaija Teikari ................................................................. 46

Keepers of DKG: UV PURPOSES Making the Unseen, Seen
By Kammie Richter, Bev Johns, and Debra LeBlanc ................................................................. 53

Submission Guidelines ................................................................. 63

Submission Grid ................................................................. 64

© 2018 The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International. All rights reserved.
Call for Submissions

Members are encouraged to submit manuscripts for consideration by the Bulletin Editorial Board. The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin: Journal accepts research-based articles including Action/Classroom Research, Qualitative Research, Quantitative Research, Reviews of Literature, Program Descriptions, Position Papers, and Book/Technology Reviews. The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin: Collegial Exchange accepts articles of a more practical, personal nature, including Classroom and DKG Practices/Programs, Viewpoints on Current Issues, Personal Reflections or Anecdotes, Inspirational Pieces, Biographies and Interviews, Book and Technology Reviews, and Creative Writing.

Submissions should be focused, well organized, effectively developed, concise, and appropriate for Bulletin readers. The style should be direct, clear, readable, and free from gender, political, patriotic, or religious bias. For more detailed information, please refer to the Submission Guidelines on page 63 and the Submission Grids on page 64.

Listed below are the deadlines and, where appropriate, themes. Although there is a suggested theme for each issue of the Bulletin: Journal, manuscripts on all topics are welcome. The Bulletin: Collegial Exchange is not theme-based.

Journal: Disruptive Innovation (84-5; Online)
(Postmark deadline is March 1, 2018)
Change • Collaborative Innovation • Systemic Change • Different Models of Leadership • Challenge-Driven Innovation • Problem Solving

Journal: Schools and Societal Issues (85-1; Online)
(Postmark deadline is May 15, 2018)
Immigrants • Refugees • Poverty • Bullying • LGBT • Transgender

Collegial Exchange (85-2; Print)
(Postmark deadline is August 1, 2018)
No designated theme

Journal: Community Education (85-3; Online)
(Postmark deadline is October 1, 2018)
Pre-K to Elder • Lifelong Learning • Parental Involvement • After-School Programs • Leisure Programs • Educating the Incarcerated • Prevention and Intervention

Collegial Exchange (85-4; Print)
(Postmark deadline is December 15, 2018)
No designated theme

Submit all materials to:
Bulletin Editorial Staff
bulletin@dkg.org
Few will argue with the essential concept of accountability, the broad theme of this issue. Who would suggest, for example, that one should not demonstrate “a willingness to accept responsibility or to account for one’s actions?” (Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary, 2018). When the focus shifts to accountability in education, however, complexity emerges. Who bears the ultimate accountability for a child’s progress academically? What measures best indicate whether a particular individual—student, teacher, principal, parent, or other—has met a high standard of performance in his or her actions?

Educators in particular are faced with both moral and political accountability. Moral accountability—what might be considered internal accountability—demands that they “do the right thing” for their students, delivering high quality instruction based on well-conceived, meaningful standards that can be sincerely and effectively measured. Doing so is the essence of the profession of education. Political accountability—that externally imposed by governing entities—demands that measures be met and that educators “do things right” as defined by those beyond the classroom. Such measures and norms have the power to support or defeat educators’ best intentions.

Accountability is, after all, a double-edged sword. An individual who carries accountability must also be assured the proper resources to accomplish the determined goals. In terms of promoting moral accountability, the educator who strives to do the right thing for students needs to prepare himself or herself with appropriate knowledge and pedagogy; engage in ongoing professional growth; and protect his or her emotional well-being. Without the resources of a quality, ongoing education and emotional strength, such an educator will be hard-pressed to meet the moral obligations of the profession. In terms of promoting political accountability, policymakers, legislators, and others outside the field itself must make sure that educators have the time, training, and support needed to meet established standards and goals.

The articles in this issue ponder accountability from multiple perspectives appropriate to its complexity. Editorial board member Trybus sets the stage for the issue’s theme with a discussion of the role and reality of “high stakes accountability” in school change. Focusing on legislative imperatives and mandates undergirding such accountability, she questions whether educators have come to embrace accounting for their actions as a positive outcome—or see the accountability initiative as “demoralizing and destructive.” Essentially, she raises the issue of moral accountability—doing the best for students—as compared to political accountability—“proving” oneself via externally imposed measures.

Jenkins, Lock, and Lock and Young focus on the role of school leaders and administrators in doing the right thing for those they lead and supervise—i.e., in providing the kinds of support that advance accountability among teachers. Jenkins et al. argue that instructional leadership becomes more and more essential as stakeholders face the challenge of accountability for successful schooling. The role of leaders in the accountability formula is to understand effective strategies, facilitate reflective practice for those they supervise, and commit to modeling and requiring high professional standards. In the same vein, Young asserts that school leaders set the stage for successful schooling when they accept accountability for hiring and retaining effective teachers.

Shifting consideration to meaningful assessment of students to support accountability, Brendle, Lock, and Brown discuss the use of differentiated assessment in a vocational setting.
They argue that educators must provide students with a variety of opportunities—beyond standardized testing—to demonstrate their knowledge and skills. In counterpoint, Harvey relies on more traditional test scores to assess the impact of an early reading program—in essence gauging the accountability of such a program in delivering what is promised. Interestingly, the crux of the intervention discussed is provision of resources that will allow preschool children to be more successful in school; that is, the study ultimately considers to what extent providing appropriate resources increases accountability for learning.

Expressing a unique perspective in which she applies the African concept of *Ubuntu*—“I am because we are”—to an analysis of education in a Finnish setting, Teikari brings full circle the argument for the complementary nature of accountability and support. She argues that a wide range of stakeholders are accountable for doing the right things for students and that mutual support in the form of togetherness and collaboration is essential.

The concluding article in this issue suggests how DKG members can assume greater accountability for attracting and retaining members. Richter, Johns, and LeBlanc expand on thoughts presented briefly in a prior issue of the *Collegial Exchange* to share 10 opportunities or strategies for increasing the visibility of the Society. Their suggestions for internal and external marketing constitute a supportive resource for those invested in the goal of growth for DKG and a way to do the right thing to sustain a vibrant organization of key women educators.

Judith R. Merz, EdD
Editor
The Changing Landscape of Accountability

By Margaret A. Trybus

This article continues a series initiated by members of the Bulletin’s editorial board. The goal of the series is to highlight perspectives of key Delta Kappa Gamma members or other educational leaders on a topic related to the theme of the issue. Here, board member Trybus shares thoughts on accountability within the context of school change, noting the difference between compliance and commitment to such change.

Having lived through the era of high stakes accountability as a result of legislation and ministries of education mandates, it is time for educators to examine how the landscape of accountability has changed schools. Has accountability transformed our school systems so that we now accept and embrace it rather than see it as demoralizing and destructive? Are schools better now than they were in the era of No Child Left Behind and standards-driven systems? Are children learning more effectively, and are parents and communities more engaged as a result of what we know to be accountability?

If one asks educators the meaning and impact of accountability, diverse perspectives will emerge. Depending on their understanding of what it is to be accountable and their job roles, educators are skeptical and often times unsure as to how to change systems that currently exist and are not meeting student needs. What matters is to strive for an effective accountability system that “requires youth development institutions to demonstrate to the public’s satisfaction that they’re pursuing goals established through democratic processes by using the most effective strategies available” (Rothstein, Jacobsen, & Wilder, 2009, p. 625). If educators associate accountability with a set of rules that equate to mere testing as evidence of being accountable, then it would seem they are not fully utilizing the opportunities to improve teaching and learning continuously through effective strategies. Reeves (2004) also pointed out that “child-centered accountability is more constructive and better for motivation of faculty and staff members” (p. 7). Beyond testing, policies, and mandates, educators need to examine practices in order to build a compliance culture based on commitment to lift the performance of every learner, teacher, leader, and community (Elgart, 2016). It is evident that commitment is key to being accountable.

As one of the authors of Leading School Change: Maximizing Resources for School Improvement (2013), I pointed out the difference between compliance and commitment to school change. What is relevant is the understanding that “compliance is coupled with accountability and often creates fear and confusion within organizations if not carefully and strategically addressed” (p. 20). So too, accountability can be fearful if it is looked at as just tangible results that are measureable based on school improvement targets. Being committed to accountability, on the other hand, requires a sense of understanding that beliefs and values relate to the culture of accountability. “An improved school culture where
Don’t push aside relationship building for data. Social and emotional learning along with accountability for academic achievement is key. Teachers need to see more of what the student can do...not just what is missing.

(PLCs) need focus:

Strategic accountability works when it comes from within a PLC and is tied to school and district missions, visions, goals, and action plans. Accountability imposed outside a PLC—usually stemming from a top-down, albeit worthy, initiative—does not lead to the most effective PLCs. (p. 44)

Moving forward, how is accountability transitioning to a new landscape? In a recent meeting of Oregon educators united through an organization committed to “develop and support educational leaders to ensure student success” (Confederation of Oregon School Administrators, 2017), I explored this question. Their insights give direction to consider:

- Focus on a student-centered approach that looks at things differently.
- Become a community of learners and a community of teachers that work together for a common purpose.
- Make meaningful and constructive decisions that redesign structure within schools to improve performance.
- Don’t just look at the school as a whole (as NCLB required), but be accountable for each individual student.
- Leaders need not just to create a strategic plan but specifically indicate goals, performance indicators, and responsibilities and celebrate progress when achieved.

The pressure for increased performance in schools requires a different landscape for accountability—one where school leaders and teachers feel the hope and promise of support to reach better outcomes. Anyone who has worked in educational systems understands that carefully constructing higher performance systems in schools relies on trusting professionals to be focused on the needs of students first and then on the development of individuals to respond collectively to reasonable goals and expectations. Group norms around performance expectations provide a framework to create the culture of support where innovation and change are accepted and encouraged and one step closer to being accountable. Easton (2017) pointed out that professional learning communities...
• Give principals and teachers more flexibility in attacking the problems with student achievement, and look at different ways to advance students.

• Don’t push aside relationship building for data. Social and emotional learning along with accountability for academic achievement are key. Teachers need to see more of what the student can do…not just what is missing.

Accountability has to have purpose. As educators, we cannot just relegate it to a number. We have to do a “reset” and figure out what accountability is and is not as we move forward strategically to improve educational systems. These shifts will take some introspective approaches to compare ourselves to where we were years and decades ago. It is time to review what makes us professional educators and realize that the intentionality of accountability begins with our efforts to define willingly what we want for our students.

References
Confederation of Oregon School Administrators (COSA). Retrieved from https://www.cosa.k12.or.us/


Leadership—A Critical Bridge to Accountability
By Judi Jenkins, Larry Lock, and Mary Anne Lock

In this day of expanded accountability for student learning, school leaders are increasingly responsible for how well teachers teach and how much students learn. The challenges posed by an intricate web of curriculum standards, achievement goals, program requirements, and policies from state and federal governments generate tremendous need for effective leadership in all educational settings. As successful schooling becomes more challenging, instructional leadership becomes more and more essential. Open the door to an excellent school and you will likely find excellent leaders. Open the door to a struggling school and often you will find ineffective leaders. Although this thinking is not without exceptions, what educators do know is that leadership matters. This truth, as well as recognized components for effective school leadership, is based upon observations from the authors, who are experienced educational leaders, and is supported by research from the field of instructional leadership.

Today’s school leaders are charged with accepting unlimited liability for the overall good of the schools or districts they lead. In doing this, leaders also accept responsibility for certain decisions that require not only knowledge and wisdom but much courage. Today’s leaders should embrace people and circumstances with an open mind set on improving teaching and learning, which is the “real business” of education. Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, and Walstrom (2004) said, “[There seems little doubt that both district and school leadership provides a critical bridge between most educational reform initiatives and their consequences for students]” (p. 70). One would not deny that stakeholders, including parents, guardians, and community members, expect continuous improvement in teaching and learning and the building-level leader has heightened pressure to lead school improvement efforts. To learn effectively, students need high-quality teaching and a well-designed curriculum. Beyond these, the factor that has the greatest positive effect on student performance is strong school leadership (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). Direction and influence are provided by school leaders to achieve improvement goals.

Unfortunately, from the public’s perspective, principals are often viewed as mere school-building managers (keepers of the keys) rather than as aspirational leaders, team builders, coaches, and agents of visionary or transformational change. Discussing the changing role of the principal, Alvoid and Black (2014) declared that in this day of teacher- and principal-appraisal systems, the leadership landscape has changed—although, admittedly, the managerial tasks have not necessarily been eliminated. Exploring the difference between management and leadership, Maccoby (2000) defined management as function and leadership as relationship. In school settings, this may be particularly true.

Building management is a critical and necessary element contributing to the overall success of the school community and the learning of the students. Virtually any adult in
the building can become an effective manager with a bit of training or experience and a willingness to devote some time and energy to the management of tasks. This is not meant to demean the relevance of the building manager but merely to point out that such responsibility can be assumed by certified or classified staff, supervisor or supervisee, or other personnel tasked with the job. In contrast, the instructional leader of a school requires at least three specific qualities.

**Qualities of an Instructional Leader**

First, leaders need a proficient understanding of research-based instructional strategies that apply to all content areas and all grades. The leader should have the ability to recognize those strategies as they are being implemented in the classroom as well as possess the expertise to determine the level of effectiveness of the strategy being used by the teacher. Additionally, the instructional leader should be able to identify any key elements of the strategy that may be lacking and articulate how they impact the success of the instructional delivery. Teachers do what they believe is effective and what they have confidence in implementing. If all educators could successfully self-diagnose their professional growth needs, develop a plan to address those needs, and then implement that plan with commitment and fidelity, teachers would all be spectacular in their chosen profession. However, most are not capable of achieving this goal, which is precisely why teachers need an instructional leader with the expertise to help them identify professional growth needs in the area of instruction.

The second quality essential to an instructional leader is the ability to facilitate a reflective conference and conversation with a teacher, which allows the teacher to focus on “what did and did not happen” during the observed classroom instructional sequence and how it impacted student learning. During the reflective conference, the instructional leader

---

**Dr. Judi Jenkins** is a member of Lambda Chapter in Arkansas State Organization and an assistant professor in the Educational Leadership Program for Henderson State University in Arkadelphia, Arkansas. She served 28 years as an educator, counselor, and administrator in the De Queen Public School District in southwest Arkansas. judi.jenkins77@gmail.com

**Larry Lock** has served as both a building and a district-level leader and continues to train and mentor leaders to increase effectiveness. The Locks reside in Florida. malock@cfl.rr.com

**Mary Anne Lock** is an educational consultant with the philosophy “once a teacher, always a teacher!” She partners with her husband, Larry, in schools and school districts providing program evaluation, professional development, and mentoring for teachers and administrators around key educational leadership issues that impact effective teaching and learning and, thus, greater student achievement. malock@cfl.rr.com
poses appropriate questions designed to guide the teacher through an analysis of his or her behaviors, habits, practices, procedures, and strategies, with the intent of the conversation focused on the teacher’s self-identifying a legitimate, valuable instructional growth need and a plan to address the need. The leader’s questions to guide a teacher through the reflective process will vary depending on the observation and identified growth needs; however, typical probing questions during the reflective process might be:

- What were students learning today?
- Why is the learning important and how is it relevant to students’ lives and the world?
- What was the primary research-based strategy you implemented today, and what impacted your strategy choice?
- How did you hold students accountable for learning today?
- What percentage of your students was engaged in your lesson today? What is your evidence?
- What formative evidence of learning did you gather, and how will you use evidence to guide your next steps?

A reflective conference is intended purposefully to result in immediate and ongoing improvement in a teacher’s ability to impact student learning. This is contrary to a formative or summative evaluation instrument, which provides a teacher with a report of their current effectiveness as it relates to a prescribed level of long-term accomplishment desired by year’s end. Both reflective conferences and evaluations have value; however, reflective conferences should lead to continuous instructional growth for teachers throughout the school year. Such growth would lead to a positive outcome on the formative and summative evaluations as well. It is critical that expectations for continuous progress throughout the school year be set as a means of assuring increasing student achievement.

Third, instructional leaders need the courage and commitment to model and require high expectations for professional growth of all staff personnel. Talk is cheap; actions result in change. Effective instructional leaders exhibit the courage and determination to ensure that growth occurs constantly and that improving the ability to impact student learning is a non-negotiable part of being an employee of the school and district. Many administrators voice support for instructional growth, but not enough demonstrate through their time and energy the commitment necessary to guarantee growth occurs throughout their school ranks and school year. Fear of not being liked, anxiety over confrontation, opposition to change, staff griping, discontent, and being stuck with office tasks and paperwork are all excuses voiced regularly when an administrator cannot or will not observe instruction and conference with teachers (Leithwood et al., 2004). It is imperative administrators, principals, and leaders recognize these defenses for what they are: excuses! The instructional leaders who recognize that it takes commitment and courage to devote the time necessary to improving teacher instructional expertise through confronting performance issues and providing timely reflective guidance and feedback are the leaders whose schools and students demonstrate phenomenal success.
Instruction to Facilitate Learning

In an environment of high-stakes accountability for continuous academic growth of individual students and school populations as a whole, having leaders who help educators focus on the factors within their control is critical. Educators have only marginal control over which students attend school, the number of parents involved in their children's education, the socioeconomic barriers families face, students' prior learning experiences outside of school, or students' physical and mental well-being at home (Jimenez & Sargrad, 2017)—although these factors play meaningful roles in the student-learning scenarios school staff face daily. Conversely, the one factor over which school personnel retain control completely is the ability to deliver instruction that facilitates student learning at high levels and for sustained periods of time. Therefore, instructional leader is the most influential and critical role a principal needs to assume with enthusiasm and total commitment. Other staff may possess the expertise and willingness to be the instructional leader, but the principal is the key person with the authority and the influence to be the leading instructional figure who sets expectations for ongoing growth and accountability through providing feedback and monitoring progress. The principal must assume a decisive role if teachers and students are going to demonstrate continuous growth.

When one teaches this year as he or she taught last year, one should expect the same results. Such failure to grow and change is unacceptable to parents, employers, society, and most importantly, to students, whose success as adults will depend on the quality of education they receive in K-12 and beyond. Students deserve to be prepared for a world with ever-increasing expectations for strong thinking and problem solving, lifelong learning, and challenges that have not yet been identified. Leaders of school systems can only assure students are prepared by ensuring principals are prepared to help teachers become more effective in the ability to deliver instruction that meets these challenging demands. The principal as a building manager maintains the status quo. The principal as an instructional leader pledges increased teacher effectiveness resulting in increased student success.

Rethinking Leadership

These and other qualities of effective leadership have caused a general “rethinking” about leadership. No longer do school-level leaders get by with being “keeper of the keys.” No longer can school leadership simply be the management of discipline, policies, playgrounds, athletics, finances, and facilities. Although all of those things require “management,” a greater need exists for real school improvement, even in schools that may already be considered effective. Things are managed, but people are led. Teachers and students deserve true leadership.

Today’s educators are “rethinking” leadership as they acknowledge that one cannot lead in isolation. Building leadership capacity throughout the school is most effective. Key components (one might even call them “soft skills”) of this leadership style include:

1. Communication: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. An effective leader opens her door to all stakeholders. He listens well. There is a time to speak and a time to listen.
Often listening is the better of the two. Sometimes people do not need advice; they need an ear. Words spoken by a leader should be true and wise. Appropriate communication skill requires thinking before speaking. Guarding words and using ears are crucial abilities for leaders. One of the best ways to hit the ground running in this area is to have one-on-one conferences with each staff member in the first month of one’s building leadership. Let each one share what he or she thinks is needed to improve the school. Listen. Take time to think. Provide feedback. Exchange ideas. Read relevant research. Write newsletters that share ideas and promote the vision of the school. Communication is key to effective leadership.

2. Relationship building: empathy for others, collaboration with others, and trust of others. One of the best things to recall when one moves to a leadership position is from whence one came. Never forget what it was like in the classroom. Always remember to put yourself in the teacher’s shoes, the parent’s shoes, or the student’s shoes. Work with others. Don’t use the leadership position to lessen the capacity of leadership throughout the building. A great sense of control is the enemy of improving the school setting because it can distance people from working with the leader or with one another. Trust others to do their best in their positions and work to gain their confidence in you as a leader. Build a culture of people who do what is best for students.

3. Motivation: goal setting and team building. A good strategy to use to motivate staff for school improvement is to write a newsletter collectively about your school as it will look 5 years from now. Build a team to get there. How will each person in the building contribute to the success of the school 5 years down the road? Some coaches are not capable leaders, but all effective leaders coach. Support one another. Encourage one another. The ability to “one-another” people is a powerful tool of a servant leader. After all, education is a service.

4. Acknowledgment: of needs for critical thinking, creativity, and diversity. Critical thinking is often the skill educators say students need. However, this skill is also necessary for leaders and educators in careful consideration of ways the school can be better. Things do not always have to occur in the same way they have been done in the past. Take time to think about important decisions that impact the welfare of teachers and students. Use the creativity of staff members as an asset to the team. Allow people to use their talents to benefit the school. Diversity is evident in all school settings whether acknowledged or not and is more than gender or racial differences. Diversity includes all the ways in which people differ from one another. It can be used in positive ways to improve schools when viewed through the lens of a positive attitude, absolute fairness, and access to the best education possible for all.

Concluding Thoughts

Whitaker (2003) suggested that anyone can fill a bookshelf with books about educational leadership. He continued,

Any principal can study lists of guidelines, standards, principles, and theories. The best administrators and the worst administrators can ace exams in their graduate classes. The difference between more effective principals and their less effective colleagues is not what they know. It is what they do. (p. 1)

Whitaker pointed out that it is people, not programs that improve a school. His simple formula for improving school makes sense: (a) hire better teachers; (b) improve the teachers already in place. The variable, according to Whitaker, is “who, not what” (pp. 7-8). The vision for a better school begins by leaders working to improve teachers as learners and instructors. Many conversations in educational circles center on differentiating
instructional strategies for students. What about teachers? How will educational leaders influence a diversity of teaching styles to improve learning?

Schmoker (2011) indicated school improvement (with an implication for school leadership) can be accomplished with simplicity, clarity, and priority. Intentionally putting first things first is key to making a difference in a school. He quoted Allan Odden, who attributed the failure to improve schools to the lack of “will and persistence” (Odden, 2009, p. 22) to implement what educators already know. Schmoker further complemented that quote with one by Collins, “... the key to success is not innovation; it is ‘simplicity and diligence’ applied with fierce devotion to our highest priorities” (Collins, 2001, p. 104).

As a final caution for all stakeholders, it is essential that educational leaders build a bridge for school improvement. One may not understand the changes or the need for them, but educational leaders are charged to lead the way. When teachers and school administrators resist one another, any goals for students are unlikely to come to fruition. For lasting and impactful school improvement, all stakeholders need to march toward the same goal: better teaching and better learning every day. The school only improves when all move forward. As Peter Drucker, professor and consultant, noted, “The test of an organization is not genius. It is its capacity to make common people achieve uncommon performance” (2009, p. 87). Uncommon performances occur in schools when leadership emphasizes what matters most—better teaching and better learning.

References


Odden, A. (2009, December 9). We know how to turn schools around—we just haven’t done it. Education Week, 29(14), 22–23.


Principals and other educational leaders often find it difficult to hire and retain teachers. For this reason, summer break can be one of the most stressful times of the year for principals and administrators. Many teachers retire or resign at the end of the school term, and others want a change in grade level or subject matter. Before the new school year begins, educational leaders must seek to hire the most effective teachers available to fill the vacancies left by those leaving. Clearly, teachers need to be assigned to the grade level and subject in which they will be the most successful and effective. However, this often proves to be a tough decision for principals and other school administrators—and for good reason. Research has shown that teacher retention affects student achievement, with rural and inner-city schools being disproportionally affected by teacher turnover. However, research also shows that the hiring process does not have to be hit or miss. There are certain traits school leaders can look for when hiring teachers.

**Teacher Retention Affects Student Achievement in Both Good and Bad Ways**

Researchers Loeb, Ronfeldt, and Wyckoff (2012) reported that teacher turnover caused lower student achievement. The results of their study indicated that, within the same school and during the same year, students’ test scores were lower by 7.4% to 9.6% of a standard deviation in math when substantial teacher turnover occurred. The same study showed that scores were 6% to 8.3% of a standard deviation lower in English Language Arts in years that had 100% teacher turnover when compared with years in which there was no turnover in a school. Teacher turnover had a negative effect on all school communities whether they were large or small, old or new (Loeb et al., 2012). Further, the study posed the question of whether low student achievement caused teachers to leave or whether teachers’ leaving might be the cause of low achievement.

At the same time, other researchers suggested other factors could be at play. High-poverty schools, schools with higher crime rates, or poor leadership could influence both higher teacher turnover and lower student achievement (Ronfeldt, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2013). Bland, Church, and Luo (2014) noted that large cities and rural areas are most susceptible to teacher shortages. Although urban areas have a higher cost of living and
many other job opportunities, at the same time these schools have a higher concentration of immigrant children and children living in poverty. Leaders in rural schools found that hiring teachers was difficult because of location and lack of resources (Bland et al., 2014).

Researchers from the University of Virginia (2016) agreed that teacher turnover is a problem in schools, especially in high-poverty schools. In such schools, hiring teachers who are as effective as the teachers who left proves difficult. Yet these same researchers found that teacher turnover is sometimes a good thing. In this study, when low-performing teachers (as determined by the District of Columbia’s teacher evaluation system) left and more effective teachers were hired, student achievement was higher. This, in turn, caused an overall improvement in average student performance scores (University of Virginia, 2016).

Of course, not all areas of the United States have teacher shortages. Goldberg and Proctor (n.d.) reported that, according to the United States Department of Education, no teacher shortage exists. Their research showed that teachers are simply attracted to some areas and not to others. Teacher shortages are most evident in communities that have high-poverty rates. Whether addressing a shortage or handling high turnover, ultimately it is imperative that school administrators find and retain effective teachers if they expect student achievement gains. To hire the best teachers, educational leaders must know why some leave and what to look for to identify quality educators.

Why Teachers Leave

Because research has shown that hiring and retaining quality teachers makes a significant difference in student achievement, educational leaders need to know why teachers leave. Ingersoll and Smith (2003) found that teachers have a higher annual turnover rate than other occupations, with new teachers especially prone to leave after their first years in the classroom. Researchers found that teachers who transferred from one school to another or who left education altogether gave many different reasons. Ingersoll (2001) listed 13 categories of such reasons. Teachers left because they did not have enough support from their school administrators, received poor salary, and had problems with student discipline. Other teachers said they left because they believed they did not have any influence over school policies, students were not properly motivated, or that class sizes were too large. Still others mentioned that they did not have time to prepare properly. Others mentioned unsafe working environments. Some noted there were not enough opportunities for them to advance. Finally, teachers left because of a lack of support from the communities in which they taught, too much interference from others about what they were teaching, not having effective teachers as colleagues, and lack of time to work with students. Many new teachers left for these same reasons (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003).

Additionally, Ingersoll (2001) found that teachers left because of school staffing issues, such as school closings, reassignment of jobs, and reductions in the number of teachers assigned to the school. Teachers also left because they could make more money and have

Susan Young has been a member of Beta Beta Chapter in Tennessee State Organization for more than 35 years and has held multiple offices and served as a member and chair of a wide range of committees at each level. Currently serving as Area II Director, she earned her BS and MS degrees from the University of Tennessee and is currently a doctoral student at Carson-Newman University. Retired after 30 years in the classroom, Young has worked for the Center for Research in Education Policy (CREP) for the University of Memphis and has written Sunday school curriculum for LifeWay. Susan was a 2016 recipient of a DKG International Scholarship. youngs1110@aol.com
better benefits elsewhere. They left for personal reasons such as pregnancy and caring for their children and because of health-related and personal family issues as well. Still other teachers left to go back to school to further their education. Some of these teachers came back to the classroom while others did not. Teachers sometimes took jobs in low-performing schools only to leave and go to more attractive schools as soon as they gained seniority. According to Guin (2004), this left the low-performing schools with the less effective teachers. Of course, teachers also retired each year, leaving vacancies.

**How Accountability Affects Teacher Turnover**

A recent study by Ingersoll, Merrill, and May (2016) offered insight into how increased accountability affected teacher turnover. Their study documented that “after controlling for the background characteristics of teachers and schools, our statistical analyses...data showed that some steps in school accountability were related to teacher turnover, and some were not” (Ingersoll, et al., 2016, p. 48). Ingersoll et al. did find that successful schools had “better retention, and less-successful schools had worse retention. Interestingly, rewards given to higher-performing schools did little to improve these schools’ already-higher retention. In contrast, sanctions applied to lower-performing schools did a lot to worsen their already-lower retention” (p. 48).

**Traits of Effective Teachers**

Sometimes principals and other school leaders find it difficult to identify which teachers will prove to be effective. Darling-Hammond (2000) examined what variables were considered the most effective over the past 50 years. Was it the academic ability of the teacher; the number of years a teacher had taught; or certification status? Darling-Hammond (2000) found the answers to these questions were mixed. However, she noted that some trends have emerged in recent years showing that teachers who are effective, or who have the potential to be effective, exhibited certain traits. Administrators can use these traits to hire the best teachers.

For example, research found that although a teacher’s IQ does not correlate to student achievement, a strong verbal ability does. Verbal ability may help teachers convey their ideas in more effective ways (Darling-Hammond, 2000).

Further research by Darling-Hammond (2000) found that fully certified teachers were better than teachers who were uncertified or had provisional licenses. Teachers’ possession of more college credits in math methods courses had a stronger correlation to positive student performance than did their number of credits in math courses. The same results were found in research regarding science teachers. Additional study by Darling-Hammond (2000)
found that teachers who were certified in their teaching fields, had master’s degrees, and were involved in continuing education courses were less likely to leave. The National Assessment of Educational Progress documented that Grade 4 reading students who had teachers who were fully certified, had master’s degrees, and participated in professional coursework in literature-based instruction outperformed their peers on reading assessments (Darling-Hammond, 2000). If one defines an effective teacher as one whose students make greater academic gains, then common sense would indicate that teachers who meet those standards would be more effective teachers.

Darling-Hammond (2000) held that a correlation also existed between teachers’ years of experience and their effectiveness. However, the correlation was not always significant and linear. The effectiveness of teachers appeared to level off after about 5 years. Darling-Hammond’s (2000) research indicated that scores on the state licensing exams showed the strongest relationship for identifying effective teachers because the state licensing exams reflected achievement in both basic skills and knowledge of teaching.

Research by Scherer (2003) showed that quality teachers exhibited a willingness to put in the time needed to prepare for class, work with students and even meet with them outside of class time, talk with parents, serve on committees, and attend school meetings. Quality teachers also showed a love for the age group they taught, which possibly made them better able to relate to their students.

Moreover, Scherer (2003) believed that the best teachers had effective classroom management styles. They were able to develop their own management style that led to fewer behavior issues, a culture of respect, and a clear understanding of what behavior was expected. Effective teachers collaborated and worked well with others. This meant they developed positive relationships with administrators and parents. Effective teachers were consistently excellent. They found ways to balance new curricula and new methods of teaching while retaining good judgment in the ways they taught. They did not bring their personal problems to work. They were able to learn to compartmentalize home and work, or they took some time off to work through difficult issues. Furthermore, Scherer (2003) indicated effective teachers realized multiple instructional methods exist that bring excellent results. These best teachers chose well-researched instructional methods and became experts in several methods that suited their styles and that best met their students’ needs. Good teachers showed a capacity for growth.

### Retaining Effective Teachers

Because teacher turnover directly affects student achievement, keeping highly qualified and effective teachers on-board is important, and a myriad of researchers argued that, to do this, school leaders need to support quality teaching (Martinez-Garcia & Slate, n.d.):

- Darling-Hammond (2000) opined that it is necessary to provide teachers with
meaningful and sustained professional development opportunities. For example, when math teachers had opportunities to participate in sustained professional development, higher student achievement was attained.

- Sellers (2011) wrote that administrators should provide induction programs for new teachers to provide the extra support they need to help ease their frustrations and to help them gain experience in using effective teaching strategies and strengthen their teaching skills. Sellers also discovered that assigning mentors to teachers in their first year of teaching helped new teachers know the district’s expectations and helped ease the frustrations that many new teachers felt.

- Keeping grade-level teams together was also noted as a significant support strategy for retaining teachers. Intact grade-level teams gave teachers time to collaborate with each other. The teams were able to work together to prepare lesson plans, which resulted in plans that helped them be better able to meet student achievement goals (Sellers, 2011).

- Bland et al. (2014) found that teachers stayed in schools more often when they were assigned to grades or classes that matched their certifications, when they were given a voice in making decisions, and when they were encouraged to participate in established professional learning communities.

- Bland et al. (2014) also observed that retaining teachers was easier when school leaders provided ways for experienced teachers to advance by giving them opportunities to become department chairs, mentors, and teacher leaders.

- Additionally, research found that increased teacher salaries helped schools retain good teachers (Bland, et al., 2014).

- Providing a positive work environment was a way to retain teachers, as was having competent administrators who had an open-door policy for meeting with teachers. Administrators who wanted to have dedicated and effective teachers were advised to provide a clean and safe workplace and reasonably well-behaved students (Bland, et al., 2014).

- Finally, school leaders helped retain teachers when the teachers believed they were supported by the administrators (Bland, et al., 2014).

Conclusion

Hiring and retaining the best teachers is an important, complex, and difficult task. But it does not have to be haphazard. Knowing ways to identify teachers who show promise as effective teachers and to meet their needs can lessen teacher turnover, improve the performance of school personnel, and result in greater student achievement.

References


Differentiated Assessment of Vocational Skills in an Entrepreneurial Setting
By Janna Brendle, Robin H. Lock, and Donna Brown

Differentiated assessment of students with disabilities is required to determine vocational skills to plan for transition and employment. Quality differentiated assessment for transition requires a meaningful assessment of the tasks and the environment. This study examined a work setting that used a differentiated assessment process to evaluate student outcomes in an entrepreneurial setting where students were employed in a burrito stand on a school campus in preparation for competitive employment. Student participants were assessed in four broad areas that included hygiene, consumer service skills, management skills, and social skills. Participants included 30 students identified in various low-incidence disability categories such as autism, intellectual disability, and emotional disturbance. The students participated in a work setting for an academic school year, and data were gathered using the differentiated assessment developed. The study results indicated the use of differentiated assessment to measure student outcomes on the job and the reliance on the data obtained to make decisions appeared to be substantial factors in the students’ ability to maintain employment.

Students with disabilities undergo a variety of standardized assessments to evaluate both their job skill strengths and deficits. Formal vocational assessments begin the transition planning phase of the student’s school career as early as age 14. They often include aptitude tests, manual dexterity measures, occupational interest inventories, and personality or social skills assessments (Overton, 2016). The data from these assessments provide the typical information gleaned from formal evaluation but often fail to provide enough practical information to begin vocational intervention for the student. Smith, Polloway, Doughty, Patton, and Dowdy (2016) identified the need for both formal and informal techniques to obtain a clearer picture of students’ needs. These include collecting background information and performance samples as well as conducting interviews, engaging in person-centered planning, completing observations, and fully evaluating the environment. This study examined the use of differentiated assessment to evaluate and improve student outcomes in an entrepreneurial work setting in preparation for competitive employment. Using differentiated assessment data, educators made direct and informed decisions about students’ needs for additional vocational instruction to have a greater impact on students’ success in competitive employment.

Differentiated Assessment

Differentiated assessment provides students with a variety of opportunities to display their knowledge and skill acquisition in ways personalized to their individual abilities,
needs, and interests. These assessments have traditionally been used in classroom settings to determine if students can actually create, explain, or build a product that shows their understanding of specific information learned in the setting. However, vocational assessments have not often involved the type of differentiated assessment used in this study as a mechanism for transition evaluation.

Differentiated vocational assessment that includes performance-based evaluation of the tasks and the environment by both the teachers and the students assists in identifying a student’s job performance strengths and weaknesses, task preferences, and limitations (Kortering & Braziel, 2008). Quality differentiated assessment requires a meaningful assessment of the tasks and the environment to be assessed. Spinelli (2012) recommended that clear outcomes be delineated prior to the introduction of the assessment phase, stipulating also that scoring criteria be established. By determining the conditions for the assessment, including the setting, the amount of time given to the assessment process, and the steps to be taken for intervention if needed, the evaluation provides a clearer focus and produces usable results (Van Beek, De Jong, Minnaert, & Wubbels, 2014). Differentiated assessment in a vocational site allows the examiner to evaluate student progress consistently in a realistic setting, requiring the students to use their knowledge and understanding to carry out meaningful tasks (Chappuis & Stiggins, 2017).

Differentiated assessment in a practical setting provides information that can be helpful in moving students toward competitive employment. In the Stiggins and Chappuis (2017) description of achievement targets, performance skills and products represent more advanced learning than repetition of knowledge. Information-based vocational classes that reflect knowledge development in isolation without the influence of the outside world fail to help students generalize into more pragmatic settings. Unfortunately, students rarely have the chance to practice skills learned in the vocational class in realistic settings outside
of the worksite. They often work at jobs without gaining the performance skills required to be successful for a particular task and are left to sink or swim in competitive employment.

The following research questions guided this study. First, what was the average amount of time students required to progress and master the learning skills in the real-world environment? Second, how often did assessments indicate mastery of skills in a classroom setting and yet the students had to go back to relearn particular skills in the real-world environment? Third, how many students who completed the project then went on to competitive employment? Finally, what were the initial and average durations of their competitive employment?

Participants

Students were selected for participation based on their individualized education plan goals. Thirty students participated; 35 were part of the overall program Parental permission as required by the institutional review board was obtained for each study participant. Additionally, each of the 30 participants completed an assent form to indicate his or her desire to be involved in the study. Prior to placement at the burrito stand project, students mastered a series of tasks in the high school vocational classroom in their home high school. Their classroom vocational teachers evaluated them on the following skills: self-control, anger management, appearance, ability to follow directions, appropriate hygiene, and basic understanding of the value of money.

The thirty student participants were “employed” in the burrito stand project during the academic year. Nineteen of the students were male, and 11 were female. Each student had a diagnosed disability and was being provided special education services. The disability categories included 8 students with autism spectrum disorders, 12 students with intellectual disabilities, 4 students with physical disabilities, and 6 students with emotional disturbance. Ethnicities included 12 students who were Hispanic, 8 students who were African American, 7 Caucasian students, and 3 students of Asian descent. Student grade levels included 13 students currently placed in Grade 10, 12 students in Grade 11, and 5 students in Grade 12. Ninth grade was not included in the high school at the time of the study. Students ranged in age from 15 to 22 years of age. Students from each of the four high schools in the district were included. All of the students had also attended the school district’s Vocational Training Center for some job training prior to their selection for the burrito stand project.

Setting

The setting for the project included two areas. The district vocational program facilitator built a burrito stand and obtained a cash register that included a time-recording device similar to those used in many fast food restaurants. The burrito stand was constructed of plywood with three sides and an opening in front that was used to conduct transactions. The facilitator also obtained a city permit for selling the pre-made burritos and chicken biscuits, as well as a health department permit for storage for a 4-hour period. The stand was located in a hallway reception area near vending machines in a large building that housed the district’s vocational and technology programs as well as local community college courses. The same building was also used for professional development meetings for a variety of entities, including the school district and local agencies and businesses. Adjacent to the burrito stand was a classroom designated for morning activities for the students in the burrito stand project. Burritos were sold during passing periods, breaks, and the lunch hour.
Procedures

During the year of implementation, 30 students participated in the study, although each daily shift consisted of a maximum of 8 students for 6 weeks at a time. Students could remain in the project for more than one 6-week period. The 8 students were transported from their home high school by the district vocational program facilitator in a school bus provided by the school district and returned to the high school after the work day was completed. Shifts included both study participants and nonparticipants, but both groups were evaluated using the differentiated assessment process.

In the burrito project classroom, students focused on the specific job skills related to working in the burrito stand that were lacking in their daily job performance. These ranged from hygiene to appropriate interaction with customers to the basic tasks required to operate the stand, including counting the products and money, determining the number of items to be purchased for the next day, and keeping the items safe for consumption.

All students were provided with hands-on instruction in the classroom on both an individual and group basis. This instruction occurred during down times for the burrito sales. The intervention was directly linked to the differentiated instruction assessment of each student and included both direct individual instruction and role playing or situational experiences that mirrored the burrito stand encounters. For example, while the facilitator purchased a variety of ready-made burritos and chicken biscuits from a local supermarket daily, the number and type purchased were based on student work from the classroom the day before. At the end of each day’s shift, the students counted the number of items sold in each category and provided an estimate for the next day. The number of items purchased each day was determined by the number purchased the day before as well as an average over time. The students also counted the money and determined how many items they could actually purchase with the money they had made that day.

The burrito stand was also staffed by two adults including the facilitator and an assistant. One monitored and supported the students while the other collected the daily differentiated data. They shared these duties throughout the year. Because students were working on a variety of skill levels, more experienced students provided support to newcomers. Students also completed several different tasks during each shift. More difficult tasks could be undertaken by newer students; however, they were paired with an experienced peer and received the teacher’s direct attention. Only two individuals could work at the window at any given time. One student ran the cash register. Two students supplied the burritos, chicken biscuits, and salsa to the workers at the window. Two additional students cleaned up around the stand. The eighth student served as a manager/float.

Utilizing the Differentiated Assessment Information

This study sought to examine how differentiated assessment evaluating performance via observation and task analysis by teachers and students impacted student functioning in competitive employment. Decisions based on the differentiated daily assessments determined the student’s daily work tasks and, more importantly, his or her readiness for competitive employment. To ensure that quality decisions were made, data collection needed to be ongoing as well as accurate. Adding the students’ perception of their performance on particular tasks allowed for learning opportunities and an in-depth understanding of individual progress. At the end of every shift, findings from the differentiated assessment and the student’s self-evaluation were discussed with each student. Together the student and the instructor or teaching assistant charted the student’s progress in each level
according to the skills met. They discussed procedures for the next task and why certain skills were not being achieved.

**Data Collection**

An assessment worksheet was completed daily for each student by teachers, listing expectations for the week in four different categories: hygiene, consumer service skills, management skills, and social skills. Students were rated on a 3-point scale, with 1 representing completion of a skill with teacher assistance, a score of 2 indicating that the student was receiving teacher prompts, and a 3 signifying independent mastery of the skills.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Skill</th>
<th>Level One: Teacher Assisted</th>
<th>Level Two: Teacher Prompts</th>
<th>Level Three: Independent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hygiene</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No bad smells</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No body fluids</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khaki pants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belt</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shirt</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name tag</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All clean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Consumer Service Skills</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burritos sold</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attends to customer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asks questions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thank you</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cognitive Skills and Management Tasks</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correct change</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stays at stand</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Busy at stand</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses walkie talkie</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses scooter</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social Skills</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smile</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Says Hi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes eye contact</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obey orders</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure.* Rubric completed daily by teacher identifying student level of functioning.
The skills listed in the differentiated assessment were developed in two different ways. First, a group of individuals including a health inspector, a vocational teacher, and a fast-food manager were asked to list the skills needed for a worker to create a safe eating environment. Next, the four categories of behaviors were formed. At the same time, the instructor and the teaching assistant went to three different fast-food restaurants and observed individuals completing the duties typical of those to be completed by students in the burrito stand. They developed a task analysis of each area. The two products were compared and the differentiated assessment worksheet was completed.

The assessment data were collected in real time and anecdotal notes and additional data were kept in a separate journal describing problem behaviors or particularly noteworthy performances. The anecdotal information provided insights into the conditions surrounding particular student performance. Additionally, this information enabled the facilitator and his assistant to create role-playing and situational activities for the classroom to reflect real-world experiences from the burrito stand.

Data Analysis
The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics by examining the differentiated instruction assessments. To organize the data, data counts and percentages were used to describe the data collected and patterns of interaction. The following four variables were reviewed in the analysis of data: (a) the documented time it took for students to progress through the three levels of mastery for each skill; (b) the number of times classroom assessments indicated skill mastery as compared to the number of times the students had to go back to relearn a particular skill in the actual burrito stand environment; (c) the number of students completing the project who then went on to competitive employment; and (d) the duration of their initial employment experience.

Results
Four research questions comprised the focus of this study. In each case, they provided insight into how data were used to make decisions about student progress towards readiness for competitive employment. The four research questions are answered in this section.

Average time to mastery. In the first research question—“What was the average amount of time students require to progress through the three levels, mastering each skill?”—the data provided an exact answer, which must be mediated after looking at the range of time intervals. Eighty-five percent (n = 26) of the students completed all three levels within 60 days (two 6-week periods). However, one student required four 6-week periods or 120 days, two students were ready for competitive employment within one 6-week period, and a final student completed the project in two 6-week periods but had to return for training for an additional 30 days after an unsuccessful job experience. The skills that were most easily achieved dealt with wearing the appropriate clothing for the project. On average, more than 91% of the students were able independently to come to the burrito
The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin: International Journal for Professional Educators

Students mastered consumer service skills such as actually selling burritos, attending to customer needs and questions, and thanking customers for the purchase at a slower rate. Consumer service skill mastery rates (81%) reflected a longer time period for achieving independent functioning at 4 weeks. Some students (4%) required as many as 8 weeks to perform without teacher prompts. One student needed continued teacher prompting through a second 6-week period.

The area of management skills required the longest time period for independent mastery at 60 days for 85% of the students. Although more than half of the students were able to remain at the stand physically within a few weeks, almost 84% of these students continued to need teacher assistance to stay busy at the stand during their shifts during that time period. It took an entire 6-week period for most of the students to be able to stay busy with only teacher prompts. Although 85% were finally able independently to keep themselves busy at the stand within the 60-day period, this skill was exhibited with variability depending on the student’s daily assignment at the stand.

Social skill utilization was rapidly developed by these students during the first few weeks of the each 6-week period. Smiling, saying hello, and making eye contact were mastered at an independent level by 85% of the students within 4 weeks. However, many of the students struggled with following the rules of the burrito stand and required longer periods to move from teacher-assisted compliance to observance of rules with teacher prompts. Independent mastery of the burrito stand rules was seen in about 75% of the students after the 10th week of their burrito stand experience. The remaining students achieved mastery at the 12-week point.

Repetition of skill development. The second research question examined “How often do the assessments indicate skill mastery in the classroom, yet students have to go back to relearn particular skills once they were working in the burrito stand?” Wide variance existed with respect to this question. Students’ levels changed from day to day and from skill to skill. Although previous exposure to the skills was helpful, it did not always result in a smooth transition from the classroom to the burrito stand. Additionally, students’ consistency fluctuated on a daily basis and thus became an area of emphasis in the job setting instruction to ensure the students understood the importance of consistently completing tasks. This was an area of major emphasis. Students needed to learn that employers would expect continuous, reliable performance without time for slow-downs or regression. Even when students moved on to competitive employment, the job coaches reported this motivational factor as an important skill requiring continuous attention.

Competitive employment numbers. The third research question investigated the number of students who completed the project and then went on to competitive employment. Students in the burrito stand project fared well in terms of subsequent, competitive employment. All 30 students were placed in jobs after completing the project. They enjoyed the support of a job coach and were situated in jobs where the employer had completed an online module concerning the characteristics of the student’s disability, typical strengths and weaknesses associated with that disability, and job supports that would help the student to be more successful in the placement.

Length of employment. The length of employment was, in some cases, dependent upon the time of the year that a student completed the burrito project. Although some employers elected to maintain student employment during the summer months, the school district provided limited job coaching during June, July, and August. Without this support system, some employers limited the available jobs to those students who were
most successful. Additionally, some families did not want their children to work during the summer because of other activities. Other families had difficulty with transportation when school buses were not running.

The question concerning the average length of that initial competitive employment as well as to describe the ranges of employment was answered in two ways. Eighty-five percent of the students were able to continue in their competitive employment site for the remainder of the academic school year. The length of time ranged from 4 to 8 months of competitive employment. More importantly, 45% of the students continued beyond the academic school year, with competitive employment ranging from 12 months to 3 years.

Discussion

Overall, the differentiated assessment aspect of the burrito stand program served the students well in terms of their development and achievement of competitive employment. The instructor made decisions about student progress based on daily data, and students were knowledgeable about what the requirements were and how they were progressing. In some cases, students who had previously achieved classroom success were able to identify the reasons they did not thrive in a competitive employment situation. Other students who had seemingly stalled in their vocational development in the classroom made huge gains in the burrito stand and were able to move toward competitive employment with greater ease. In all cases, the students delighted in the burrito stand project. They were eager to learn new skills such as running the cash register and were enthusiastic about helping new students to learn how the stand functioned. Moving from the classroom into the “real” world appeared to energize the students and created a much happier and more productive environment.

As with any new set of skills, the amount of time it took individuals to accomplish all the levels of skills varied. However, the majority of students were able to move through the burrito stand project with surprising speed. Students reported that the burrito stand gave them the chance to do something real and that they felt they had to think about what they were doing in a focused way. The stand moved them from passive classroom learners to active participants in the business world. They could see when there were long lines of people waiting for burritos. They enjoyed the conversations with customers. They experienced anxiety when they did not hand back the correct change. Overall, student times for completion were positively impacted by the immediacy of the situation.

Individuals with disabilities have difficulties generalizing to new settings and remembering new behaviors (Spinelli, 2012). They may need increased amounts of repetition to master fully and then finally generalize (Spinelli, 2012). Skills learned for today’s job sites may require additional instruction in order to move students towards independence. The differentiated data pinpointed student progress on a daily basis. Students who had just begun to demonstrate mastery of a particular skill continued to work on that skill for a period of time each day. All students rotated through all of the jobs in the course of a week so that the instructor could note progress or regression with each skill.

The number of students obtaining competitive employment was outstanding, with 100% of the students employed after completing the burrito stand project. The results indicated that 67% of the students remained in their jobs for periods of 3 months or longer. Additionally, the results looked at students’ percentage of time on the job within the academic year. Forty-five percent of the students continued in their jobs. These employment success rates, as well as the overwhelming numbers of students who were
working after completing the burrito stand project, indicate the program’s important
contribution to student learning and independence. Additionally, the use of differentiated
assessment to measure student outcomes in the burrito stand project and the reliance on
the data obtained to make the decisions appeared to be substantial factors in the students’
accomplishments. Combining real world experience with direct, differentiated assessment
and subsequent targeted instruction appeared to promote student progress.

**Practical Implications**

Students were successful in this hands-on program in a real-world setting utilizing
differentiated assessment to make both formative and summative decisions. Questions
remain as to how well such a program would operate on a large scale. Obviously, several
factors are at work, including the facilitator’s and the teaching assistant’s skill at supporting
and coaching individual students. Additionally, the program, while self-supporting as far
as the items sold, required the school district’s commitment and monetary contribution
in order to instruct a small number of students at a time. In the case of the burrito stand
project, students were also a part of a larger program both in terms of the classrooms
located at each high school and the Vocational Transition Center. The district’s support of
transition education allowed this intense, pragmatic programming to exist. Finally, while
this school district chose to centralize the burrito stand project, other schools might create
the same type of project within individual campus walls.

**Limitations of the Study**

The limitations of this study included the number of students completing the burrito
stand project. Also, the effects of other training programs, including the classroom training
from each local school, could not be easily separated from the impact of the project activities.
Additionally, attendance at the Vocational Training Center provided direct, hands-on
instruction but did not engage students and teachers in differentiated assessment. Any or
all of these influences could have contributed to the students’ success. Finally, the expertise
of the facilitator and the teaching assistant played an important role in the operation of the
burrito stand project. Teachers without differentiated assessment experience may wish to
practice with the methods first in their classrooms to master the implementation before
they tackle the complications of a small business.

**Summary and Conclusion**

The burrito stand project offered students with a variety of disabilities the chance
to experience a realistic business setting with an intense differentiated assessment
component. The project combined a program of specific skills that took the student
through three levels, including teacher assisted, prompted, and, finally, independent
functioning in preparation for competitive employment. All students worked through the
skills until mastery. The project personnel were successful in placing 100% of the students
in competitive employment for at least 3 months after they completed their work in the
burrito stand. Both the burrito stand experience and students’ longevity in subsequent
competitive employment point to successful outcomes for these students with disabilities.

**References**


Imagination Library: A Study of the Sustained Effects of Participation in an Early Reading Program

By Ann Harvey

The author researched the impact of the Imagination Library (IL) program on students in kindergarten and Grades 1 and 2. IL provides high-quality, age-appropriate picture books to newborns each month until they are 5 years old. According to the self-reported results, parents read aloud more often to their children after receiving the books. Using DIBELS tests to measure specific competencies, the researcher compared the scores of IL children to those of non-IL children to assess the school effects of additional time with exposure to books. Students in the IL group had scores significantly higher on the Nonsense Word Fluency in kindergarten and Grade 1. Those in the IL group scored higher, but not significantly higher, on 36 of the remaining 38 subtests. The IL group also surpassed the non-IL group on competency pass rates for all three grades.

The goal of the Imagination Library (IL) of Grant County, New Mexico, has been to deliver high-quality, age-appropriate books monthly to homes of local children from birth to age 5 and thereby promote experiences with language and reading. This early exposure to as many as 60 books was intended to establish school readiness. Any parent was able to enroll a child in the program by supplying a mailing address and by pledging to read to the child. The program was governed and funded locally while receiving administrative support from the national Dolly Parton Imagination Library Program. A parent survey, crafted locally with a template from the National Center for Education Statistics about reading frequency and behavior, had served to evaluate the program, but the effects of the IL program on reading achievement in the early elementary grades had not been measured. This research served as an additional assessment of the realization of the program's vision.

Background

Low reading scores by the children of New Mexico have been cause for alarm for the educational policy makers of the state. At the time of the initiation of this study, despite the state's per pupil expenditure of $9,683 and pupil-teacher ratio of 14.7 students per teacher, New Mexico's scores on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) outranked only the District of Columbia and were comparable to those of California, Alaska, Louisiana, and Mississippi (New Mexico Public Education Department, 2014). The 2014 NAEP scores reported reading scores for Grade 4 of New Mexico had remained well below the national average for 20 years despite continued efforts to improve:
In 2013, the average score of fourth-grade students in New Mexico was 206. This was lower than the average score of 221 for public school students in the nation. The average score for students in New Mexico in 2013 (206) was not significantly different from their average score in 2011 (208) and was lower than their average score of 222 in 1992. (New Mexico Public Education Department, 2014)

Demographics may be a contributing factor. At the time of the initiation of this study, New Mexico’s student population included 25% Whites, 60% Hispanics, and 10.4% American Indians (Nation’s Report Card: New Mexico, 2011, 2015), and more than half of the state’s students qualified for free and reduced lunch. Although the achievement gap seemed to be decreasing overall, Hispanic average scores were 23 points lower than White average scores. The scores of students eligible for free and reduced lunch were 27 points lower than those of students not eligible for free and reduced lunch.

Many literacy improvement programs are limited to implementing change in instruction in the schools; few entertain the objective of influencing the family literacy practices of preschoolers. Accordingly, encouraging family literacy activities with preschool children has been a new concept in New Mexico. It has thus become important for policy makers to measure gains made from these efforts and to track their effect on reading scores as preschoolers progress through kindergarten, first, and second grades.

Literature Review

The connection between reading aloud to young children and their success in school has been validated for several decades (Moerk, 1985; Pellegrini, 1990). Parents who read to their children are supporting and fostering their language development (Bus, van Ijzendoorn, & Pellegrini, 1995) and their early reading development (Haden, Reese, & Fivush, 1996). During book reading, parents have opportunities to explore the patterns that occur in written language with their children. Familiarity with written language patterns allows children to develop print awareness by knowing what to expect when they begin reading on their own (Sell, Imig, & Samiei, 2014).

Early childhood interventions are optimal because of the developmental plasticity of the brain. Children who are at greatest risk tend to show positive gains in many areas of development as a result of interventions at this early stage (Camilli, Vargas, & Isaacs, 2007; Janus & Duku, 2007; Son & Morrison, 2010). “Previous research indicates that greater parent-child reading practices predict greater receptive vocabulary, understanding of story and print concepts, and pre-literacy skills among low-income children” (Bracken & Fischel, 2008, p. 51).

The benefits of parents reading to their children are not limited to academics; such a practice also contributes to emotional health, particularly to interpersonal relationships and emotional resilience. Brain researchers such as Goldberg and Mischel (2014) introduced the notion of the power of parents’ scaffolding of the Executive Function (EF) of the brain. This function of the brain contributes to working memory, inhibitory
control, and cognitive flexibility (Center on the Developing Child at Harvard University, 2011). EF is similar to an air traffic controller for the brain. It decides what stimuli to the brain should be recognized and responded to first. The EF occurs in the prefrontal cortex; the anterior cingulate, parietal cortex; and the hippocampus of the brain. “The gradual acquisition of executive function skills corresponds closely to the extended development of these prefrontal brain regions from infancy through late adolescence” (Center on the Developing Child at Harvard University, 2011, p. 10). Being able to control impulses and hold and manipulate information is vital to school success.

According to Goldberg (2001), children can learn to manage their lives only with help from parents who guide children’s activities until they can practice and perform them without supervision. Without this parental scaffolding, early school achievement and emotional and moral development are more difficult. According to Son and Morrison (2010), lower socioeconomic status families are less successful with EF scaffolding. Their children suffer additional stressors that inhibit EF development in the brain.

A nurturing environment where the child has a predictable routine and freedom from sustained threats produces positive developmental outcomes later (Center on the Developing Child at Harvard University, 2011). Mischel, who developed the Marshmallow Test, would concur. His test, which is appropriate for 5- and 6-year olds, was developed through 40 years of research and measures the ability to engage in delayed gratification and in self-control, both EF skills. Mischel further found that the Strange Situation Assessment given to 18- to 24-month olds “correlated nicely with the Marshmallow Test” (Mischel, 2015, p. 51-60.). That test assesses a child’s ability to deal with a changing situation involving caregivers and strangers. Toddlers who were successful with the Strange Situation test went on to have better developed delayed-gratification and self-control skills as measured by the Marshmallow Test.

Mischel (2015) further pointed out that EF skills such as delaying gratification and exercising self-control are critical for life success. Children who did well on the Marshmallow Test went on to have higher education levels, better career satisfaction, greater family and marriage success and satisfaction, and larger retirement accounts (Mischel, 2015). In essence, the ability to delay gratification is closely associated with valuing the future. Valuing the future is another EF skill that is an outcome of reading to children, which plays a huge role in bonding with parents. In short, when parents read to their children, they are engaging in interventions that help develop secure attachment and EF skills (Mischel, 2014).

In order to read to children, one must have books available in the home (Ridzi, Sylvia, & Singh, 2011). According to a 20-year University of Nevada study by Evans, Kelly, Skora, and Trefman (2010), the number of books in the home predicted the level of education of a child more accurately than did the educational level of the parents: “Children of lesser educated parents benefited the most from having books in the home” (Evans et al., 2010, p. 1).

Parents who have enrolled in IL become more interested in accumulating books in a home library. Survey data from Michigan showed that family ownership of books increased 54% (from an average of 69 to 106 books) during the time children participated in IL, even though IL books only constituted 16% of family book ownership (Lelle, 2011).

Local parent surveys from 2013-2017 suggested a continuing trend that parents spent more time reading to their children after they enrolled in the IL program than before they enrolled. According to the report on the 2013 Grant County Parent Survey, analysis of Likert scale responses revealed that, before entering the program, 17% of families read
more than once a day to their children; after receiving the IL books, 37% of the families reported that they read to their children more than once a day. After entering the program, the average family read to their child once a day (Harvey, 2014).

These results were consistent with the 2012 survey results, which indicated that daily reading rose from 46% to 78%, while the percentage of parents who seldom read to their children dropped from 9.3% to zero. In both years, the percentage of parents who read more than once a day almost doubled. The value of this change in behavior was validated by the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC), which advises that children be read to every day for 20 minutes (Schickedanz, 1999). By the age of five, the child will have listened to stories for 600 hours. This activity equips children with a vocabulary and a depth of background knowledge that prepares them for success in school.

Evidence in the literature demonstrated that encouraging family literacy positively affected school achievement. A recent study by the Melbourne Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research, which was controlled for socioeconomic factors, found that 5-year-olds who were read to three to five times each week showed 6-month gains over children who were read to only twice a week. Kalb’s (2012) longevity study proved that reading to children every day put them almost a year ahead of those children who were not read to. This study included 400 children from ages 5 through 11 (Kalb, & van Ours, 2013).

Similar research conducted recently in Shelby County, Tennessee, tested the sustained effects on students who were exposed to early storybook reading by comparing Grade 2 reading scores. This study included 170 students who took part in the Books from Birth program and compared their results on the Istation Early Reading assessment (www.istation.com) to those of 164 students who had not participated in the program. The Grade 2 results showed those who participated in the program scored significantly (p = .02) higher than those who had not participated. The study was controlled for socioeconomic status, gender, mobility, and attendance rates (Sell, Imig, & Samiei, 2014, p.2). The study indicated higher vocabulary and comprehension scores for the students who had listened to books since birth. Such scores for students who have listened to books would be expected because

...frequent reading also exposes children to many vocabulary words within the context of a story, which provides a scaffold for deciphering the meaning of unfamiliar words. The extent to which adults and children discuss other aspects of the book, such as the illustrations or how they might act if they were in a situation similar to the characters in the book, allows for even more vocabulary exposure. (Sell et al., 2014, p. 2)

Additional studies investigated the results of preschool book reading on reading achievement in the early grades. The IL study conducted in Middleton, Ohio, is an example. Over a decade, the literacy scores of students at the Middleton school ranked in the bottom 7% of the state’s schools. Despite offering after-school tutoring and enrichment programs, the school administrators had neglected to concentrate on early childhood literacy until 2008, when the IL program was created. The Kindergarten Readiness Assessment-Literacy (KRA-L) was used to compare the scores of two groups. The IL group was made up of 69 students whose parents indicated that they had participated in the program. The average score for this group was 17.88, which was not statistically significant from the average score of 17.16 for 535 non-participating students (Gorton, 2010). In the following year, the IL students scored an average of 18.8 (19 is adequate) on the 29-point test while the non-IL group scored 16.34 (Gorton, 2011).
A study by the Tennessee Board of Regents asked 150 teachers to evaluate 320 kindergarteners as they entered school. The survey was conducted online and compared students who had participated in the IL program to those who had not. The subtests of reading, thinking, listening, and social skills were measured on a 5-point rating scale. “Teachers were asked to consider all students in each group as a whole, and compare the students to those in previous classes” (Tennessee Board of Regents, 2008). Although the study was not controlled for other preschool experiences, the results indicated higher scores for the IL group over the four measures. Reading Skills proved to produce the biggest gains, with IL students scoring .86 points higher on a scale of five.

The Study

In the current study, the researcher asked, “Did participation in IL affect the reading scores of students in K, 1, and 2?” The researcher compared the scores of IL and non-IL students in grades K, 1, and 2 at intervals during the school year. Using an analysis of variance with a = .10 (as recommended by Hinkle, Wiersman, & Jurs, 1982, p. 251), the researcher compared the mean scores of 32 sets of test scores from the IL group and the non-IL group.

Population of the Study

Twenty IL students were randomly selected, and the means of their scores were compared with the means of the scores of 20 randomly selected non-IL students. The students attended school in the rural southwest New Mexico area with 7.4 people per square mile and an average per-capita annual income of $21,726. Sixty-nine percent of the area students were eligible for free and reduced-price lunch, and 73% identified themselves as having Latino origins, according to the New Mexico Standard Based Assessment report. Therefore, rural poverty was the pervasive element of this minority population, with 6% of the population composed of children under the age of five. Literacy remained a challenge in this area because 69% of parents with children under age six had less than a high school diploma and were economically poor: “The population of fourth grade students with a below proficient reading level is 79 percent” (Barbara Bush Foundation for Family Literacy, 2014, p. 3).

The Assessment Instrument

The Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS, Good & Kaminski, 2002) test, which is routinely administered to all students in kindergarten, Grade 1, and Grade 2, was used as a measure of reading achievement for the purpose of this study. The DIBELS are a set of procedures and measures researched by the University of Oregon “for assessing the acquisition of early literacy skills from kindergarten through sixth grade. They are designed to be short (one minute) fluency measures used to regularly monitor the development of early literacy and early reading skills” (Good & Kaminski, 201, p. 2). Subtests administered at the beginning (BOY), middle (MOY), and end (EOY) of the school year included Letter Naming, Phoneme Segmentation Fluency, Nonsense Word
Accountability

Fluency, Oral Reading Fluency, Accuracy, and Retelling.

All of the DIBELS subtests were administered individually in 1 minute each. The Letter Naming Fluency subtest assessed the speed of letter naming. The alternate form reliability was 0.92 while the criterion-related validity was 0.72 (Bakerson & Gotherberg, 2006). The Phoneme Segmentation Fluency segment measured the child’s skill in breaking words into individual phonemes. Alternate form reliability was 0.88 while the criterion-related validity when compared with the Woodcock Johnson Battery (WJ-B) was 0.73. The Nonsense Word Fluency (NWF) segment had a reliability rate of 0.88 and a criterion-related validity (WJB) of 0.54; it addressed the child’s ability with sound-symbol knowledge by measuring phonic decoding skills. Oral passage reading rate and accuracy were measured by the Oral Reading Fluency test. Comprehension of the main idea was measured by the Oral Reading Retelling Fluency subtest. This test had a reliability rating of 0.68 with a criterion-related validity of 0.72. Bakerson and Gotherberg (2006) reported that DIBELS measured the construct of early literacy and is an instrument with moderate validity and reliability.

Limitations of the study

Student participants came from five different classrooms and were selected randomly. The teachers in each classroom administered the tests. Although the teachers were trained to be objective examiners, differences among methods might have influenced the outcomes. Although the study was controlled for mobility, it was not controlled for socioeconomic effects, age, preschool attendance, or gender differences.

The sample size of 20 students involved in the research was relatively small. Therefore, alpha was set at 0.10. This sample group represented an isolated, rural Latino population that might not be generalized to the whole population.

Specific Grade Results

Kindergarten results. The means from each group are compared in Appendix A. Using an analysis of variance with $\alpha = .10$ (as recommended by Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1982, p. 251), the students in the IL group scored significantly higher than those in the non-IL group on the kindergarten MOY Nonsense Word Fluency 1. The IL group scored higher, but not significantly higher, on the remaining six subtests (Appendix B).

Grade 1 results. The comparison of the means of each subtest is found in Appendix C. On the Nonsense Word Fluency BOY test, the IL group again scored significantly higher at the .10 level of significance. The pattern continued into the MOY Nonsense Word Fluency test, where the IL group scored significantly higher than the non-IL group at the .05 level. The IL group scored higher in all but two of the remaining twelve subtests: the EOY Oral Reading Fluency and the Retelling subtests (Appendix D).

Grade 2 results. A comparison of means of both groups is found in Appendix E. The IL group scored higher, but not significantly higher, on ten subtests but not on the BOY Retelling subtest (Appendix F).

General Results

Nonsense word fluency. The largest gains of the IL participants over the non-IL participants appeared in the Nonsense Word Fluency (NWF) subtests (Appendices B, D, and F). In order to score well on this test, students must be able to match sounds to symbols and blend letter patterns that they have not before encountered. Therefore, the IL participants were able to apply phonics rules significantly better than the non-participants.
The DIBELS NWF subtest is given individually for 1 minute to measure the child’s ability to match letter-sound correspondence in which letters represent their most common sounds. Common blended letters sounds are included. The student is given a sheet of paper with nonsense words following the VC and CVC vowel and consonant patterns in one syllable words. They are asked to read the letter sounds or the entire word. For example, the child would read “pov” and say /p/ /o/ /v/ to be awarded points for the total of three letter-sounds correct. The final score for this subtest is the number of letter-sounds produced correctly in one minute. “The intent of this measure is that students are able to read unfamiliar words as whole words, not just name letter sounds as fast as they can” (DIBELS Description, 2015, p. 3). The NWF subtest has two parts. One part, the Correct Letter Sounds, is the count of all correct letter sounds in the student response. The second part, The Whole Words Recoded Completely and Correctly (WRC), measures the number of whole nonsense words that the child read.

The pattern of strong IL Nonsense Word Performance held true throughout the data sets. These sets produced scores approaching the critical value of 2.42: 1.97 for Kindergarten EOY Nonsense Word Fluency 1 (Appendix B), 1.67 for Grade 1 MOY Nonsense Word Fluency 2 (Appendix D), and 1.15 for Grade 2 BOY Nonsense Word Fluency 1 (Appendix F).

**Letter naming.** Another subtest that demonstrated a pattern of higher scores for the IL participants over the non-IL participants was the Letter Naming subtest. Kindergarten BOY produced an F value of 1.871, and MOY produced an F value of 1.02 (Appendix B). Grade 1 BOY produced an F value of 2.02 (Appendix D).

**Miscellaneous.** The Oral Reading Accuracy, Fluency, and Retelling subtests each produced a high F value: 1.07 for Grade 1 MOY Oral Reading Fluency 1, and 1.73 for MOY oral retelling (Appendix D). In Grade 2, the high F values included 1.35 for BOY Oral Reading Fluency 1 and 1.51 for EOY retelling with a critical value of 2.42 (Appendix F).

Oral Reading Fluency involved having students read a passage aloud for one minute. Words omitted or substituted and hesitations of more than 3 seconds were scored as errors. Words self-corrected within 3 seconds were scored as accurate. The number of correct words per minute is the oral reading fluency score (University of Oregon, 2015).

**Competency rates.** The grade level competency pass rates were also compared for the two groups. The IL pass rate for Grade 1 requirements was 80% while the pass rate for non-IL students was 55%. The Grade 2 level competency pass rate continued with the same pattern. The pass rate for IL Grade 2 students was 70% while the non-IL pass rate was 45%.

**Conclusion**

IL students scored significantly higher on the Nonsense Word Fluency subtest on the kindergarten (Appendix B) and Grade 1 (Appendix D) levels. The IL students scored consistently higher, but not significantly higher, on all 32 DIBELS subtests except three (Appendices B, D, and F). These findings, although not conclusive, suggest that IL students were better able to match sounds to symbols of print specifically and were better able to read orally than students who had not been enrolled in the program. This pattern continued into Grade 2. Fluency and accuracy of oral reading scores were higher with the IL group. Comprehension was measured by the child’s retelling of the story. All but one set of retell scores were higher for the IL group (Appendix F).

In addition to limitations suggested earlier, several variables might have affected
the outcomes of the study. The fact that students who scored below the 40th percentile received extra instructional time for remediation was not controlled. Because length of instruction time is a major determinant of achievement, this factor could have affected the outcome of the study. Additionally, the efforts made by the IL program to support the early vocabulary development, although not a variable, nevertheless could influence preliteracy skills of infants, toddlers, and young children and pay dividends that extend well beyond kindergarten entry into reading development during the first years of elementary school. Students who listen to stories bring new vocabulary to their conversations in class, and nonparticipants may well benefit from the discussions with rich, new vocabulary.

The results of this research were offered to the community in a monthly IL newsletter and appeared on the Grant County IL website. Additional research that compares competency-pass scores of students who have participated in the IL program with those of other cohort groups who have not had the benefit of IL participation would possibly offer more evidence to assess the IL program and its value to stakeholders.

References


### Appendix A

*Means and Standard Deviations for Imagination Library Kindergarten DIBELS Subtests Compared to No Imagination Library Kindergarten DIBELS Subtests*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subtests</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Letter Naming</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.95</td>
<td>15.929</td>
<td>0-48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11.35</td>
<td>13.476</td>
<td>0-48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>42.05</td>
<td>16.41</td>
<td>0-62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>13.364</td>
<td>0-64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phonemic Segmentation Fluency</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>35.95</td>
<td>21.838</td>
<td>0-60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>31.15</td>
<td>21.172</td>
<td>0-63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>51.1</td>
<td>20.09</td>
<td>0-73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>49.35</td>
<td>14.97</td>
<td>27-74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nonsense Word Fluency 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>14.47</td>
<td>0-51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>13.34</td>
<td>0-54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>45.95</td>
<td>20.017</td>
<td>0-77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>20.556</td>
<td>0-94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nonsense Word Fluency 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>9.136</td>
<td>0-26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>9.284</td>
<td>0-33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Appendix B

*ANOVA for Scores from Kindergarten Students Enrolled in Imagination Library and Those Who Were Not Enrolled in Imagination Library*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subtest</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Fcv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Beginning of the Year</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Letter Naming</td>
<td>1.817</td>
<td>2.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Middle of the Year</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Letter Naming</td>
<td>1.028</td>
<td>2.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phonemic Segmentation Fluency</td>
<td>0.439</td>
<td>2.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonsense Word Fluency 1</td>
<td>3.993*</td>
<td>2.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>End of the Year IL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Letter Naming</td>
<td>0.118</td>
<td>2.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonsense Word Fluency 1</td>
<td>1.973</td>
<td>2.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonsense Word Fluency 2</td>
<td>0.331</td>
<td>2.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.10    **p<.05
Appendix C
Means and Standard Deviations for Imagination Library Grade 1 DIBELS Subtests Compared to No Imagination Library Grade 1 DIBELS Subtests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subtests</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Letter Naming</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.95</td>
<td>15.929</td>
<td>0-48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11.35</td>
<td>13.476</td>
<td>0-48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phonemic Segmentation Fluency</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40.05</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>0-61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>0-61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nonsense Word Fluency 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>37.75</td>
<td>22.72</td>
<td>0-93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>31.95</td>
<td>17.14</td>
<td>0-71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>66.6</td>
<td>36.81</td>
<td>0-143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>60.55</td>
<td>26.98</td>
<td>0-109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>84.4</td>
<td>38.63</td>
<td>0-143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>75.55</td>
<td>34.34</td>
<td>0-143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nonsense Word Fluency 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5.93</td>
<td>8.62</td>
<td>0-28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>6.65</td>
<td>0-24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19.55</td>
<td>14.46</td>
<td>0-50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>11.54</td>
<td>0-38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27.25</td>
<td>15.42</td>
<td>0-50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22.45</td>
<td>12.52</td>
<td>0-43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Oral Reading Fluency 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33.15</td>
<td>30.46</td>
<td>0-121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>26.22</td>
<td>0-93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>34.79</td>
<td>0-127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>42.7</td>
<td>27.61</td>
<td>0-99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Oral Reading Accuracy 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>75.4</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>0-99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>75.15</td>
<td>23.54</td>
<td>0-99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>84.9</td>
<td>26.14</td>
<td>0-100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>87.55</td>
<td>21.79</td>
<td>0-100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Oral Reading Retell 3</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>14.53</td>
<td>0-53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11.05</td>
<td>10.30</td>
<td>0-35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>14.43</td>
<td>0-56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>14.24</td>
<td>0-62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Appendix D**

*ANOVA for Scores from Grade 1 Students Enrolled in Imagination Library and Those Who Were Not Enrolled in Imagination Library*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subtest</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Fcv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Beginning of the Year</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Letter Naming</td>
<td>2.017</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phonemic Segmentation Fluency</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonsense Word Fluency 1</td>
<td>2.545*</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonsense Word Fluency 2</td>
<td>0.142</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Middle of the Year</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonsense Word Fluency 1</td>
<td>5.724**</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonsense Word Fluency 2</td>
<td>0.499</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Reading Fluency 1</td>
<td>1.069</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Reading Accuracy 2</td>
<td>0.209</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Reading Retell 3</td>
<td>1.729</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>End of the Year IL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonsense Word Fluency 1</td>
<td>0.651</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonsense Word Fluency 2</td>
<td>1.672</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Reading Fluency 1</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Reading Accuracy 3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Reading Retell 3</td>
<td>0.473</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.10   **p<.05
### Appendix E

*Means and Standard Deviations for Imagination Library Grade 2 DIBELS Subtests Compared to No Imagination Library Grade 2 DIBELS Subtests*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nonsense Word Fluency 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>75.7</td>
<td>34.23</td>
<td>20-137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>60.1</td>
<td>34.03</td>
<td>0-129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nonsense Word Fluency 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>12.96</td>
<td>2-48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20.25</td>
<td>12.71</td>
<td>0-45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Oral Reading Fluency 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>55.25</td>
<td>29.51</td>
<td>4-107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>51.95</td>
<td>34.87</td>
<td>0-120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>70.4</td>
<td>32.15</td>
<td>15-126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>63.2</td>
<td>38.25</td>
<td>0-140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>84.6</td>
<td>32.21</td>
<td>15-132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>75.85</td>
<td>38.95</td>
<td>0-150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Oral Reading Accuracy 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>12.96</td>
<td>2-48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20.25</td>
<td>12.71</td>
<td>0-45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>11.25</td>
<td>63-100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>86.55</td>
<td>22.46</td>
<td>0-100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>94.25</td>
<td>10.89</td>
<td>54-100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>90.5</td>
<td>22.23</td>
<td>0-100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Oral Reading Retell 3</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>0-27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9.05</td>
<td>14.24</td>
<td>0-56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>20.34</td>
<td>0-74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>14.01</td>
<td>0-55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>39.95</td>
<td>17.36</td>
<td>0-75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Year No IL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>31.05</td>
<td>15.65</td>
<td>0-62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Appendix F

**ANOVA for Scores from Grade 2 Students Enrolled in Imagination Library and Those Who Were Not Enrolled in Imagination Library**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subtest</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Fcv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Beginning of the Year</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonsense Word Fluency 1</td>
<td>1.147</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonsense Word Fluency 2</td>
<td>0.828</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Reading Fluency 1</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Reading Accuracy 2</td>
<td>0.445</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Retell 3</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Middle of the Year</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Reading Fluency 1</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Reading Accuracy 2</td>
<td>0.231</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Reading Retell 3</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>End of the Year II</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Reading Fluency 1</td>
<td>0.682</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Reading Accuracy 3</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Reading Retell 3</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.10  **p<.05
The Revelation of **UBUNTU**

By Kaija Teikari

The purpose of this article is to return to the 2005 International Confederation of Principals (ICP) in Cape Town, where 2000 principals from all over the world probably wondered what the theme of the congress meant. This paper shows that theme—Ubuntu—in two roles: first, as recollections through keynote speeches at ICP, and secondly, as an ethical principle worthy of appreciation in today’s school life. The core meaning of this Zulu word appeared in ICP lectures, both African and international: “I am because we are.” The writer’s philosophical inquiry into the education sector of one Finnish city could also refer to Ubuntu: the need for togetherness and collaboration. These are among characteristics of educational design facilitated by an authentic and effective leader who knows how to do the right thing.

**Introduction**

What I know about Ubuntu today consists of what I learned in the International Confederation of Principals (ICP) congress in Cape Town in 2005. I find the core meaning of this Zulu word most relevant even today—both for educational leadership and for myself as a researcher on the philosophical ethics of one Finnish education sector.

This article shows first how an audience of 2,000 principals was initiated into Ubuntu and what kind of African voices and Western echoes connected with this theme were heard in the convention in 2005. Furthermore, findings of the present writer’s research—not forgetting the magic words “I am because we are”—are presented.

**ICP and African Voices**

Before sitting down in the opening session of the Cape Town congress, 2,000 principals had to pick up a plastic tube and a wooden stick from their seats—short red tubes in one section of the huge hall, longer blue tubes in the other, and so forth. No greetings were heard, but all at once, a lady appeared in front of the audience, lifted up a long blue tube and knocked it with the stick, trying to make those with similar tubes do the same thing! This proceeded for the short red tubes, long white tubes—sounds of knocking them with sticks—and then all together! Amazing! All the banging and knocking had been turned into a real tune…and Ubuntu was born through us all! After this musical opening the president of ICP, David Wylde, continued with the initiation of the audience. According to him, Ubuntu is a value but not a typical western value concentrated on measuring outcomes; rather, it is a value concerning human relationships. He referred to a Nigerian saying according to which one will need help from a whole village to be able to raise a child. In Tanzania, people speak about dry sticks, which are unbroken when bound into a bundle. Dr. George K. T. Oduro of the University of Cape Coast, Ghana, defined the western “self” as the one who is independent of his or her community or who designs his or her own personality. For the African “self,” however, communality is the basis of Ubuntu, which underlines human dignity, group solidarity, and mutual support (G. K. T. Oduro, personal communication, 2005).
Naledi Pandor, Member of Parliament and Minister of Education, mentioned *Ubuntu* in a way when she told about School Governing Bodies (SGBs) that were created “to bring nation into schools” (N. Pandor, personal communication, 2005). After 10 years of South African independence, many things had improved due to the work of these strong SGBs. However, the quality of teaching and learning still needed attention, and, especially, the role of school leadership had to be strengthened. Courses for the Advanced Certificate of Education (ACE) served three types of school leaders: serving principals, newly appointed ones, and the future applicants who worked as deputy principals or department heads. The leaders who had done well in their schools could act as mentors during these courses. As many as 20,000 principals were estimated to be in need of ACE education, which was supposed to provide participants with the ability to have a positive impact on practical schoolwork, offer new ideas, and connect personal professional growth with improvement of the school.

**ICP and Western Echoes**

Because the Cape Town ICP was meant to be a social gathering for educational experts, several presentations on leadership were heard, and, simultaneously, delicate shades of *Ubuntu* were experienced! Western echoes are presented here by references to speeches by professors Pam Christie, Andy Hargreaves, and John West-Burnham.

Christie, a professor from University of Queensland, Australia, and visiting professor at University of Witwatersrand, South Africa, connected *Ubuntu* and an ethic of engagement in education. She defined the concepts of leadership, management, and headship as follows:

- Leadership is not a position at schools—it can be found all over schools, and it should be dispersed through various persons and actions. It is a social relationship between and among people, but because it is concerned with exercising influence on others and aims at reaching certain goals, it is laden with visions and values.
- Management is the opposite of leadership, refers to processes or structures needed in organizations, and, in fact, is connected rather with formal positions than with persons. Good management is essential for schools and other organizations.
- Headship (or principalship) also belongs to organizations and has elements of accountability. As “leaders” act through influence, “heads/principals” might act through enforcement, contract, or influence. A principal represents a school formally and usually takes care of symbolic roles, such as meetings and ceremonies.
- The three concepts connect as follows: “Leadership should be dispersed throughout the school; management activities should be delegated with proper resources and accountabilities; and heads should integrate vision and values with the structures and processes by which the school realizes these.” (P. Christie, personal communication, 2005)

Hargreaves, Thomas More Brennan Chair of Education for Lynch School of Education at Boston College in the United States, gave a presentation on sustainable leadership.
Concepts of sustainability and social justice appear in the following formulations:

- do not steal your neighbor’s skills;
- use multiple indicators of accountability;
- lay emphasis on collective accountability;
- help your neighboring school that does not fare very well;
- influence the community that surrounds your school;
- collaborate with any school situated in a different environment compared to your school; and
- collaborate with your competitors. (Hargreaves, personal communication, 2005)

Hargreaves also mentioned four types of energy—physical, emotional, intellectual, and spiritual and maintained that one learns more from people who are different from rather than similar to the individual. He finished his presentation by quoting Adam Smith (1809): “The wise and virtuous man is at all times willing that his own private interest should be sacrificed to the public interest of his own particular order of society.”

Strong shades of Ubuntu were also heard in the address by West-Burnham, Senior Research Advisor at the National College for School Leadership in the United Kingdom. His presentation dealt with leadership development, which, according to Bennis, is a “process of ‘Self-Invention’ and is clearly linked to the creation of personal authenticity” (1989, p. 50). To become an authentic person is not a solitary process: Ubuntu captures the relationship between self and community, because “a person is a person through other persons” (J. West-Burnham, personal communication, 2005). Authenticity is thus a product of the capacity of an individual to explore what it means to be “me” and to recognize that becoming “me” is, in itself, a social process. Authentic leadership is about genuineness, connectivity, and congruence—internal and external, intrapersonal and interpersonal, personal and social. According to Csikszentmihalyi,

(Leaders)...are proactive and seek out whatever support they need, wherever they can find it. They are so determined to learn, to change, and to shape their experiences that whatever the situation in which they find themselves they will find a way to increase the complexity of their lives. (2003, p. 81)

West-Burnham finally sent the audience home with Seneca’s words: “…while we live, while we are among human beings, let us cultivate our humanity…”

Ubuntu Hidden in My Research

The Ubuntu recollections above led to its philosophical influence on my recent doctoral research. “I am because we are” is found in the concept of collaboration, which is an integral part of the well-being of the school world.

Practice and Theory

The main title of my research, Exploring ethics, needs a subtitle: A philosophical inquiry into the education sector of one Finnish city. As an explorer, I roamed around schools, meeting superintendents, principals, teachers, students, and other staff members. I interviewed some of them and handed out questionnaires or asked others to send e-mails. The rich data provided by the informants consisted of their experiences of everyday school life.

The research question asked “how to trace values, virtues, and well-being in the education sector of this Finnish city?” This question presented me not only as an explorer in a practical school world, but also as a philosopher trying to identify the ethical foundation on which everyday school life is built. After analyzing my informants’ responses, I utilized theories to formulate the ethical basis of everyday school life in the education sector. The elements
used to build this foundation come from philosophical ethics or moral philosophy.

In short, I moved in the practical school world gathering empirical data that I hoped to make work in theory. The informants’ conceptions and experiences of certain issues provided the empirical part, but my duty was to solve the secrets of corresponding ethical theories. Three main theories—value theory, virtue ethics, and consequentialism—ultimately emerged as relevant and were discussed in three parts of the research report, called Values, Virtues, and Well-being. In this article, I focus solely on well-being.

**Well-being and Collaboration**

*Ubuntu* is not mentioned in my research, but its philosophy is hidden in the concept of collaboration. I had collected manifold data concerning collaboration from outside and within the education sector. The results of collaborative actions of various informants were supposed to produce well-being, and, if taken theoretically, to represent consequentialist ethics. As I noted in my study, “Well-being, seen theoretically, has moved from strict utilitarianism towards common sense consequentialism” (Teikari, p. 69). These words suggested my decision to mention utilitarianism but also to reject it. In my initial thinking, I had actually connected the utilitarian ideals of the greatest expected net well-being and impartiality with the work of the Finnish National Board of Education (FNBE), wondering whether it followed utilitarian principles when formulating foundations for the National Core Curriculum for Basic Education. The schools in my research could be included in a larger group comprising all Finnish schools, and so they might be described as objects of utilitarianism but not uniquely so. The work of the FNBE is expected to produce educational and instructional well-being for all Finnish students. Teachers in their daily work also expect good results, but they cannot be impartial: they have individuals to consider. I agree with Brink (2006), who introduced a moderate form of consequentialism: “An agent has reason to be concerned for perfect strangers as well as intimate associates, but, all else being equal, she has more reason to be concerned about the well-being of an associate than a stranger” (p. 382; italics added). Driver (2012) similarly argued that “partial norms of love and friendship that involve showing preference for the near and dear’ can be justified along consequentialist lines” (p. 75); and Velleman (2009) also preferred common-sense morality:

> Maybe the grounding of morality lies closer to the social surface than philosophers like to think, neither in the structure of practical reason nor in a telos of human nature but rather in our mundane ways of muddling through together—that is, in how we get along. (p. 1)

Following Shaw’s words—“Whether we are consequentialists or not, we must act” (2006, p. 9)—I next provide a few examples of my informants’ collaborative actions.

**Findings: Leaders and Followers**

In this section I first concentrate on the collaborative roles of the mayor, superintendents, principals, and teachers and then present a figure depicting the overview of strength and targets of collaboration in the education sector studied. Furman (2004) defined a school “leader” as anyone and everyone who cares about what happens in schools and argued that educational leadership is fundamentally a moral endeavor. For Gini (1997), all leadership is value laden and, whether good or bad, is moral leadership. Leadership is a dynamic relationship between leaders and followers; it is “always plural; it always occurs within the context of others” (Gini, p. 325). Rubin (2002) further defined collaboration as a purposeful relationship in which all parties strategically choose to cooperate in
order to accomplish a shared outcome. Because of its voluntary nature, the success of a collaboration depends on one or more collaborative leader’s ability to build and maintain these relationships. (pp. 17-18)

When considering relevant points from the above definitions, I noted that the mayor of the city wanted to care about what happens in schools. He felt that he had a say in school issues but admitted that the personality of the superintendent was crucial. Their management group worked well as a whole, but in order to achieve progress, supportive personalities were needed.

I met two superintendents in the city: one (Sup 1) a little before her retirement, and the new superintendent (Sup 2) later. Sup 1 told me that she arranged meetings for principals once a month and confessed that she had not been able to visit all schools once a year because of lots of office work. Most principals expected visits from their leader, as one principal hoped, “…so that someone would listen to me…” Later, a more dynamic relationship seemed to have started. In Sup 2’s opinion, collaboration with principals worked relatively well; meetings and developmental discussions were arranged. Sup 2 had visited all the schools during his first year in office and considered this practice to be customary.

The principal’s main collaborative role within schools appeared to be that of team builder, facilitator and guarantor of information, and member of management teams. Upper secondary teachers formed mixed teams based on various tasks such as student care or organizing meetings and events. The team leaders belonged to the management team, in which they and the principal negotiated and prepared the agenda for teachers’ monthly meetings. The principal especially underlined the importance of effective information procedures.

The four middle school teams were based on school subjects. One primary school did not have teams, but Learning Groups: classes 1-2, classes 3-4 and classes 5-6. These groups were intended to work independently but could also collaborate—an arrangement that, according to the principal, did not work very well.

The most advanced form of teamwork was conducted in one of the primary schools with special needs education classes. The school was divided into four pedagogic teams, each consisting of class teachers, assistants, and students. Part-time teachers, the foreign language teachers, and the special needs education teacher served the whole school, taking turns visiting the different teams as needed. According to the school syllabus, the tasks of the teams were defined as follows: teaching and education conducted jointly, collaborative planning and sharing of responsibilities, evaluation of actions, and development of the school together with other teams and the principal. This syllabus clearly defined collaboration (cf. Rubin above) as a purposeful relationship in which all parties strategically choose to cooperate. Here the team leaders showed traits of teacher leadership, which Murphy called “a pathway to school improvement” (2005, p.vii). The principal seemed to be “a facilitator,” because she was willing to share power among her teacher colleagues. Maybe she was also effective, if effectiveness is taken to mean doing the right things. When questioned about this issue, most principals seemed to prefer effectiveness to efficiency (i.e., doing things right). In their opinion, the right things that should have been done were nearness, togetherness,
lifelong learning, and personal renewal in order to enhance the emotional well-being of children.

Responses by 74 teachers to the question What kind of collaboration is conducted in your school? were condensed as follows: Plentiful and works well… (27); It works, but… (20); Within our own subject group or teams… (16); ‘Plain’ definitions (10); Poor (1). The one negative case of poor wrote, “As usual in schools, that means: poor. Teachers are cliquish, they don’t want to share information, and they keep spying on each other.” The 27 comments considered wholly positive mostly told about successful teamwork: “We do everything together.” The remaining opinions (46) were a mixture. They suggested lack of enthusiasm or slight misunderstandings or turned positive tones into negative remarks, such as “[there is] collaboration, but not with everybody.” Some of these disappointed opinions probably related to poor information or lack of encouragement for collaboration.

The Figure shows, in both practice and theory, the various agents positioned in their natural groups within the education sector and the strength and targets of their collaboration. The arrows point toward the groups of individuals most influenced by collaboration. Dashed arrows indicate a weaker collaborative strength or outcome. Among Outsiders, the mayor and, more so, the new superintendent were beginning gradually to collaborate more closely with schools. While Visitors mostly served students, the teaching staff were also given practical assistance by local churches and the police. Mutual collaboration between the main Insiders was on the whole strong, with the exception of a few principals’ failures to encourage collaboration and too many “buts” expressed by some teachers who were hesitant or suspicious.

Because my research explored ethics and tried to interpret practice through ethical theories, I was able to convert the arrows into moral actions and utilize normative terminology (cf. Driver, 2007, pp. 6-7). Strong arrows represent right actions, i.e., actions that are not wrong. Moreover, because it is difficult to define which actions in schools generally are obligatory—i.e., actions that educators ought, morally, to do—I also considered these right actions to be supererogatory—i.e., good, but not obligatory. The consequences of these actions for the “near and dear” (cf. Driver, 2012) were good (or good enough). The dashed arrows can be considered to represent two types of action. The first are right but morally neutral actions by the mayor, the superintendents (partly), and youth..
services. I would not call the second type forbidden; such actions between some principals and teachers or between some teachers and colleagues were, perhaps, suberogatory—bad, but not forbidden.

Concluding thoughts

The thoughts in this article travelled from ICP 2005 to my academic dissertation of 2016. It brought Ubuntu from Cape Town, hiding this Zulu word among the themes in the research. Although the magic concept itself is not mentioned in the research, hopefully its meaning is. “I am because we are,” as a practical collaborative action, is relevant in any education sector even today. Ultimately, for me, Ubuntu’s philosophy refers to normative ethical theories that “give us some idea of how we ought to act” (Driver, 2007, p. 3).

References


Note: References to African and Western speakers are based on the author’s congress notes and www.icp2005.com/speaker papers.
Keepers of DKG: UV PURPOSES
Making the Unseen, Seen
By Kammie Richter, Beverley Johns, and Debra LeBlanc

The authors provide a 10-point vision for ways to focus a light on The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International in order to attract and retain members. Research and suggestions from sources both within and outside the field of education undergird their recommendations.

The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International (DKG), which will be 100 years old in 2029, needs to move forward throughout the next millennium as a vibrant women’s educational organization cognizant of interests and educational needs in order to recruit and retain young members. Many educators use acronyms or mnemonics in their classrooms to assist learners to remember key information. As authors of the previously published “Keepers of DKG” in the Collegial Exchange (Richter, Johns, & LeBlanc, 2017), we created the acronym “UV PURPOSES” to remind DKG members of 10 opportunities to ensure the Society is seen, not unseen. This article explains the ten points: (1) Updating the DKG international website; (2) Volunteering for school and community projects; (3) Providing professional development; (4) Utilizing electronic meetings; (5) Reducing time for business meetings; (6) Providing support for struggling chapters; (7) Offering child care and respite care; (8) Stressing our name; (9) Establishing a meaningful marketing campaign; and (10) Simplifying our rules.

1) Updating the DKG International Website

DKG—Key Women Educators—should seize the opportunity to showcase the Society’s educational services. The international website is a vehicle to focus on the vast knowledge of members while providing resources and information that impact the educational field. Members should be able to access the website easily to find information about trends in education, tips for teaching, and opportunities for professional development. DKG can be a voice at the center of education. Technology is constantly evolving, and the Society must move with it, offering members the best, brightest, and most useful resources possible. Suggestions include the following:

- **Celebrity broadcast via the website**: Recruit celebrities to engage with members in a live broadcast via the website. Perhaps an author can respond to questions about how she became a writer or answer questions about how he struggled with writing.

- **Why DKG is for Me**: DKG could offer a Why DKG is for Me section on the site where members could share how DKG has influenced their lives for the better, whether it be through friendships, travel opportunities, leadership growth, or a multitude of events that have made a difference to that person.

- **Authors and resources in education**: DKG can offer access to authors of educational material, references, and articles published by members employed at colleges and universities. Members published in one of the Society’s journals could be accessed easily
by the click of a button.

- **DKG as an educational resource:** The DKG website could serve as the main hub where educators seek information about new educational software, employment opportunities, templates such as resumes, and curriculum vitae. The website could also be a place to post questions and answers about the organization.

- **Highlight a chosen book:** International and state leaders often highlight a chosen book. Sharing can precipitate online discussions as well as book discussions at the conventions.

2) **Volunteering for School and Community Projects**

A survey from the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2015) reported that women over 65 years of age spend an average of 9.4 minutes per day in volunteer work, compared to women 25–34 years old who volunteer an average of 4.4 minutes per day. It is interesting to note that women 55–64 spend 7.6 minutes per day, women 45–54 spend 7.7 minutes, and women from 35–44 years of age spend 7.1 minutes per day. Women volunteer more than men in all age groups.

Members are called to encourage more women educators between the ages of 35–44 years of age to join Delta Kappa Gamma and participate in the many opportunities that DKG provides to give back to the community. The Society also faces the challenge of working with individuals who are between 25–34 years of age and instilling in them the reasons to volunteer.

- **The spirit of volunteering:** Volunteering to give back to the community and the educational field is an important component of the DKG culture and its mission. Members who stay active during their educational careers and after they have retired have seen the benefits firsthand of volunteering and making their community a better place. Members

---

**Dr. Kammie Richter** is a member of Xi Chapter, presently serves as the Executive Assistant for Illinois State Organization. She was the Illinois 2011 Ag in the Classroom Teacher of the Year. Richter and her husband serve as a host family for international students from the University of Illinois. execassistlambdast@gmail.com

**Beverley Johns** is the current first vice president of Illinois State Organization and is a Professional Fellow at MacMurray College in Jacksonville, Illinois. She is a member of Alpha Phi Chapter. bevjohns@juno.com

**Dr. Debra LeBlanc** is the president of the Illinois State Organization, where she is a member of Beta Phi Chapter. She is a consultant/advocate for parents of children with special needs. dleblancedd@gmail.com
feel a sense of pride in being needed and giving to others.

- **Mentoring:** All educators face many challenges teaching in schools today while expected to meet the needs of diverse students who may face poverty, learning problems, challenging behaviors, or language barriers. The best training cannot prepare them for the situations they will face. When DKG members mentor new teachers and volunteer in the schools, they can provide support to those teachers by sharing their own experiences and wisdom.

- **Sharing Expertise:** Members can volunteer to provide professional development that will not only showcase their particular expertise but will also provide needed guidance to current teachers. Because everyone wants to feel valued and recognized for her strengths, chapters should strive to capitalize on the wealth of chapter members’ knowledge and skills. For example, individuals within the 25–34 year old age range have technological skills that long-time members may lack because they are not digital natives. Leaders can ask such individuals to provide a program on the technology they are using in their classrooms or even to establish a social networking page to share tech tips. Learning and capitalizing on members’ strengths is key to the Society’s future growth.

3) **Providing Professional Development**

The education profession. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), replicating a 2008–2009 study of teaching and learning, published *TALIS Results: An International Perspective on Teaching and Learning* in 2014. More than 100,000 teachers in middle schools from 34 countries, including the United States, participated in the latter study, which revealed multiple themes related to professional learning:

- Professional learning is requisite for 21st-century teaching and learning.
- In the next decade, most countries will face teacher shortages; more importantly, most countries must focus on having enough quality teachers.
- Self-efficacy—an important aspect of job satisfaction—is critical for attracting and keeping the best professionals in schools; professional learning contributes to feelings of self-efficacy.
- All educators need professional learning, but more importantly, they need high-quality and effective professional learning.
- Standards for professional learning are valuable, whether they’re embedded in teacher quality standards or stand alone. (Easton, 2015, p. 11)

Speck and Knipe (2005) further noted, “High quality professional development is a sustained collaborative learning process that systematically nourishes the growth of educators (individuals and teams) through adult-learner-centered, job-embedded processes. It focuses on educators’ attaining the skills, abilities, and deep understandings needed to improve student achievement” (p. 3).

**DKG professionalism at the chapter, state, regional, and international levels.** DKG encourages all chapter members to engage in purposeful programs and projects. Strategies to do so have included the following suggested actions:

- Provide resources for local programs to involve members in policy discussions on
• Impact educator retention through support for educators, with an emphasis on early-career individuals.
• Collaborate with DKG Forums to empower members in impacting educational legislation, policy and pedagogy.
• Provide strategies and resources for the integration of programs and projects that provide personal and professional growth, including but not limited to the visual and performing arts. (DKG.org)

We suggest that chapters and state organizations consider the following practices to align with such international strategies:

· **Survey members to provide relevant professional development:** As an example, based on member interest surveys, Illinois State Organization of DKG strives to provide meaningful, engaging learning experiences for members. Chapters design professional development programs that create, shape, and sustain a culture of learning communities. Often professional hours are offered for these workshops.

· **Align professional development with standards:** In Illinois, professional development opportunities are aligned with rigorous standards: Learning Forward Professional Standards for Professional Learning (Learning Forward, 2017) and Illinois Teaching Standards (Illinois State Board of Education, 2017). Multiple opportunities for learning are provided in a variety of methods to honor individual learning needs. Teachers are encouraged to engage in thoughtful discussions relating new information to current experiences and to reflect on how this new information can be implemented in their schools.

· **Develop a yearly theme for programs:** Leaders should consider thematic strands when developing their programs. As an example, incorporating technology into the classroom in a 1-hour program may not be sufficient; however, having the strand as a year-long theme deepens understanding and practice. Meeting the social and emotional needs of students is another example that could be a year-long focus, as is adaptations for students with special needs. An advantage to focusing on a year-long theme is an opportunity for members to practice what they have learned and return for discussion and participation in follow-up meetings.

4) **Utilizing Electronic Means for Meetings and Professional Development**

We live in a hurried society, and DKG members are busy educators. As a result, individuals are always looking for ways to save time and money—and electronic means for meetings and professional development provide both. Members may benefit from resources from a *PC Magazine* article (http://www.pcmag.com/article2/0,2817,2388678,00.asp) that contains an array of business-conferencing software tools and provides useful analysis of the varying features of each.

Some additional suggestions for use of electronic tools in a chapter or state are:

· **Conference Calls:** Free conference call systems are available provided a limited number of people are on the call and a time frame is established. It is easy to use one’s cell phone to merge calls with several people and even share information and presentations on Google Docs at the same time.

· **Online meetings:** Several years ago, DKG began to offer opportunities to state organizations to utilize GoToMeetings (www.gotomeeting.com) as an alternative to multiple face-to-face meetings. In Illinois, for example, state committees now have one face-to-face meeting where travel is involved and one GoToMeeting during the biennium. The system has worked well and has saved many hours and dollars because committee
members can participate from the comfort of their own homes. GoToMeetings allow
individuals to see and hear each other on the computer screen as well as view the agenda
for the meeting. It is useful and expedient for one member of the committee to write the
minutes on the live agenda document, which allows all participants to see what is being
recorded. Immediately following the meeting, minutes are sent to all members. Those
whose Internet access may not be working, who do not have access to their computer, or
who are traveling in their cars can call in using a telephone. Other online meeting options
include Civicom (www.civi.com), Zoom (www.zoom.us), AnyMeeting (www.anymeeting.
com), and join.me (www.join.me), with more being developed.

· **Webinars:** Webinars are another valuable tool for professional development and can
cover a wide variety of topics. Some organizations charge for participation in webinars
while others provide them as a resource to their members. An example of using webinars
can be training for chapter leaders, with topics of membership recruitment and retention,
program ideas, the basics of technology, and more. Small video clips or podcasts can also
be developed on relevant topics.

· **Speaker presentations:** When chapters would like to have a speaker from a different
part of the state or country, he or she can be asked to join via online meeting, webinar, or
even Skype or Facetime. There is no fee, and these formats provide for greater speaker
availability.

· **Training for effective use of technology:** Training of members in the use of
electronics is critical for successful professional development opportunities. Grants from
the Cornetet Fund have allowed Illinois to host Technology Seminars to provide multiple
levels of workshops geared toward electronic possibilities.

· **Evaluating which tools will work:** As chapters determine which services they
want to use, they will want to consider price, ease of use, and a backup system in case
the technology does not work. The easier the system is to use, the better. Chapters want
members to have a positive experience and thus should choose carefully. Before deciding
to adopt any system, the chapter should have one or more trial runs to determine whether
the program matches its needs.

**5) Reducing Time in Meetings**

DKG members are active and involved women who desire to be part of an efficient
and effective organization. No one wants to attend long meetings that accomplish little.
Suggestions to reduce the time in meetings include:

· **Send a written agenda and materials in advance.** Create and distribute a clear and
concise agenda to allow members to know the issues that will be discussed at the meeting.
Consider sending a draft agenda and asking whether other issues need to be discussed.
Doing so can prevent a number of problems that arise from surprise topics no one is
prepared to discuss. Send reports in advance so members have the opportunity to review
the information and so a written record is readily available at the meeting.

· **Begin and end on time.** Be respectful of everyone and her time. To encourage
everyone to be on time, do not take time to update latecomers on the information missed.
Ending on time is also critical, as doing so allows people to maintain their schedules for
the day. Suggest giving each item an allotted time for discussion. Not adhering to timelines
sends a message that the leaders are not well organized. DKG’s key women educators are
instrumental in schools across the globe, and as such they are capable of running a meeting
effectively.

· **Provide minutes and follow-up tasks.** Minutes sent within a few days after a meeting
allow everyone to have a written summary of the meeting and assigned activities to be completed. This in turn will drive the next agenda.

- **Strike the balance between having a voice and the amount of time spent on issues.** When issues requiring a vote need to be discussed, come to a decision by using Robert's Rules of Order. Protecting members' voices is the primary function of the rules, which prevent individuals from dominating discussions.

- **Time is critical when speakers are presenting.** Their time should be valued along with that of the chapter members. The time for the program speaker should be specified in the agenda in advance. The objective of the presentation is important so members can come prepared with thoughtful questions and comments. When professional development hours are being given, consider scheduling the program at the end of the meeting so those who are not interested may exit.

6) Providing Support for Struggling Chapters

Many organizations that flourished in membership 30 or 40 years ago are now struggling to stay alive due to competing interests, responsibilities, and multigenerational membership. DKG offers the opportunity to develop dynamic leaders at all levels in the Society. State leaders are encouraged to mentor all members but especially local leaders as they strive to meet the needs of members.

- **Training chapter leaders.** Multiple opportunities for training chapter leaders are available. These include sessions at the beginning of the new biennium, leadership management seminars, technology workshops, legislative forums, and visits from state and international officers.

- **Programs must connect with the needs of members.** Numerous easy-to-use tools can help define the needs and interests of members when planning programs; surveys of potential topics, meeting dates, and locations are several that are helpful. DKG members are leaders in the field and possess a wealth of knowledge on a wide variety of topics. They also have many connections to individuals who may be able to provide a program of interest to members. Evaluations of programs and suggestions for change should be solicited, carefully reviewed, and treated seriously by leaders. When individuals are unable to attend an event, alternative means of training should be implemented, such as webinars that follow up on live training or substitute for live sessions. Alternative media such as Internet videos may also be considered tools.

- **Recognizing leaders.** State leaders should continue to recognize chapters that excel and to spotlight members who are active in Society projects, write for the *Bulletin* and newsletters, and make significant contributions in their classrooms and communities. When individuals are recognized publicly, others learn from their recognition. Sharing leaders’ program topics and workshop titles provides valuable information for chapters to consider in future planning of outstanding programs they may want to replicate.

- **Frequent communication.** In today’s busy world, multiple reminders about activities are necessary. A simple advertising principle is that someone needs to see information in various forms numerous times (some say at least 12 times) in order to recall it (Krell & Johns, 2017). Leaders should include information in a newsletter, post it on a website or
social media, and send it via email or text.

- **Support from state organization officers.** A focus on such support is a two-way street. Leaders should ask for assistance when needed, and state organization leaders need to look for warning signs that chapters or state committees may be in difficulty: a decline in chapter membership, difficulty finding new officers, low attendance at meetings, or lack of support for projects. Leaders should have a finger on the pulse of all chapters and committees and be in regular contact with those who are struggling. Visits to chapter meetings are essential.

- **Interviewing resigning members.** In the workplace, organizations conduct exit interviews to seek information regarding why the individual is leaving and what could have been done to prevent his or her exit. DKG already conducts a dropped member survey, and chapters may develop short surveys to gather such information; however, having a chapter membership chair contact the member personally to discuss why she is not continuing her membership may be even more worthwhile. State organization leaders should gather similar data at the state level and develop action plans of support.

- **Identifying cheerleaders and naysayers.** Every organization has strong members who are enthusiastic and are worker bees. They are dedicated educators committed to growing the chapter. These individuals should be identified and recognized for their service as leaders visit chapters. At the same time, some chapter members have a pervasively negative attitude that can impact the tone of a meeting. These individuals are problematic to the mental health of the chapter and are even more problematic when they hold official positions such as president or treasurer of the chapter. In chapters where certain members disagree on an issue and cannot move beyond it, “agree to disagree” must be the rule of the day. When such dissension appears, officers need to be good listeners to determine what is really happening within the chapter and provide ideas for a more positive meeting environment. A state committee chair or officer who has a positive rapport with chapter members may seize the ideal opportunity to step in and offer support to the chapter.

7) **Offering Child Care and Respite from Other Demands**

DKG members, regardless of their generation, face many family demands. Members who have young children may be struggling with the cost of babysitters and may not be able to justify coming to a meeting if they do not have the financial means for a sitter. An opportune time to provide childcare is during a meeting, especially one offering professional development hours. Such services could be provided in many ways.

- **Child care classes at the secondary level have students who may be willing to babysit for required community service credits.** Similarly, students from a local church may need

“Delta Kappa Gamma has often been considered a sorority. It is not a sorority but rather an organization of key women educators who have contributed significantly to the field of education. The women in DKG make a positive difference for their students and their communities, and for many, the world.”
community service hours for confirmation. Explore classes at the college level where students may need practicum hours for their degrees or may want volunteer hours. Before instituting such a service, chapters need to check liability issues related to both volunteers and venues for meetings.

- Members may be faced with the care of an elderly parent or a spouse who is ill. Chapters should be willing to accept that a member may need to bring a mother or father with them to a meeting because they cannot be left alone. Some chapters have members take turns watching another member’s spouse who needs full-time care so that the member can leave the house to attend a meeting, gaining much needed respite. Members need a break from their many responsibilities, and DKG members can meet their needs.

8) **Stressing the Society’s Name—DKG—Key Women Educators**

Delta Kappa Gamma has often been considered a sorority. It is not a sorority but rather an organization of key women educators who have contributed significantly to the field of education. The women in DKG make a positive difference for their students, their communities, and, for many, the world. To stress this point, these actions should be considered:

- Sending letters to building principals or school superintendents, notifying them that a woman educator in their district is being invited to membership;
- Recognizing individuals who are DKG members at their individual school’s awards assemblies;
- Encouraging acknowledgement in DKG publications when current members receive any type of recognition;
- Stressing that DKG is comprised of key women educators in a professional society in all conversations and publications.

9) **Establishing a Meaningful Marketing Plan**

Over the past few years, use of the Delta Kappa Gamma website has increased; additionally, many state organizations and chapters have developed their own social media pages. Recently, use of more traditional media has increased, including such efforts as advertisements in *Education Weekly* and other educational publications. One local Illinois chapter has utilized radio announcements of fundraising activities.

- A consideration may be to have a 1-minute video of the exciting opportunities DKG offers and supports. Program ideas, projects, and publications can be highlighted.
- Most people have a story about a favorite teacher or teachers that may be shared in some type of social media, such as Facebook.
- The DKG website is inviting and informative and allows nonmembers to learn more about the Society’s mission, purposes, and programs. The world of social media is changing daily, and DKG leaders are wise to stay current with the latest trends to determine what marketing strategies will increase visibility. Creating a state organization group Facebook page is a great start.

10) **Simplifying Rules**

Although it is important to have rules that govern the actions of members, reading so many pages of information that may be redundant is overwhelming. State and chapter leaders should follow the lead of international in reviewing rules and frequently discussing what can be synthesized and streamlined.

- Teach members how to “simplify, simplify, simplify” all aspects of rules and bylaws.
• Submit ideas for “pruning” rules and bylaws for consideration at all levels.
• Support efforts to simplify the DKG Constitution at the 2018 International Convention.

Ten-Point Summary:

1. Updating the DKG website will allow it to be more interactive and focused on members. Current information can include educational resources, job opportunities, technology updates, and suggested webinars.
2. Volunteering in schools and communities encourages mentoring, support, and growth in the Society. Opportunities are offered to embrace individuals from different age groups. Relationships, connections, and networking opportunities will improve the educational profession and ensure the future of DKG.
3. Providing professional development at the state organization and chapter levels fulfills a requirement needed by all current working teachers to maintain licenses. Workshops are provided by knowledgeable presenters and are based on a solid foundation of standards.
4. Utilizing electronic means for meetings and professional development fills a need for educators in this fast-paced society. Time is of the essence, and technology provides alternative means to connect with members and accomplish goals.
5. Reducing time in meetings allows chapters to focus on meaningful programs and professional development.
6. Providing support for struggling chapters complements promoting the work of successful chapters.
7. Offering child care for younger members and respite for other caretakers respects their needs and allows them to attend meetings.
8. Stressing that DKG is a prestigious organization of women who have made and continue to make a positive difference in the field of education promotes the Society.
9. Establishing a meaningful marketing plan focused on DKG Purposes and reaching other key women educators will build membership.
10. Simplifying rules will allow more time to focus on key issues facing those in the field of education.

Every organization wants to grow and thrive. The suggestions captured by the UV PURPOSES acronym emphasize the goal of growing and retaining DKG membership through recognition and promotion of key women educators and the contributions of Delta Kappa Gamma to the world.

References


Board members, September 15, 2017.


**Bulletin Submission Guidelines**

Submissions from members will be accepted for review provided that:

- The submission is not being considered concurrently in whole or substantial part by another publisher.
- The *Bulletin* has exclusive option of possible publication for a period of 6 months following receipt of the submission.
- The author assumes responsibility for publication clearance in the event the submission was presented at a professional meeting or is the direct product of a project financed by a funding agency.
- Authors are responsible for accurately citing all quoted and bibliographic materials and for obtaining permission from the original source for quotations in excess of 150 words or for tables or figures reproduced from published works.
- Co-authors are permitted. At least one author must be a Delta Kappa Gamma member.

### Manuscript Preparation

- Although there is a suggested theme for each issue of the *Journal*, manuscripts on all topics are welcome. The *Collegial Exchange* is not theme-based.
- Manuscripts should be focused, well organized, effectively developed, concise, and appropriate for *Bulletin* readers. The style should be direct, clear, readable, and free from gender, political, patriotic, or religious bias. Topic headings should be inserted where appropriate.
- Please see Submission Grid on the following page for specific requirements of the types of manuscripts appropriate for publication.
- Double space the entire manuscript, including quotations, references, and tables. Print should be clear, dark, and legible. Pages must be numbered.
- References should refer only to materials cited within the text. Nonretrievable material, such as papers, reports of limited circulation, unpublished works, and personal communications, should be restricted to works absolutely essential to the manuscript.
- Abbreviations should be explained at their first appearance in the text. Educational jargon (e.g., preservice, K–10, etc.) should be defined as it occurs in the text.
- Place tables and figures on separate pages at the end of the manuscript. Use Arabic numerals and indicate approximate placement in the text.
- Photos, graphics, charts, etc. that may enhance the presentation of the manuscript may be included. Contact the editorial staff (bulletin@dkg.org) for information regarding the use of photos.

### Submission

- One submission per author per issue.
- Submit electronically, in Microsoft Word format, to bulletin@dkg.org. Do not submit PDF files. For a manuscript, include definitive abstract, photo of author(s) [see below], and biographical information. Biographical information must include author(s) name(s), occupational position(s), Society and professional affiliations (list offices held), address(es), phone number(s) and e-mail address(es).
- Electronic/digital photo files must be saved in JPG or TIFF format and must be a minimum of 1.5” x 1.5” with a 300 dpi resolution. For photos submitted to enhance text, include caption/identification information.
- For poems and graphic arts, submit name, address, and chapter affiliation. A photograph is not required.
- All submissions will be acknowledged and assigned a review number within 2 weeks. Contact the editor at bulletin@dkg.org if you do not receive timely acknowledgement of your submission.

### Publication of Submissions

- The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International and the editorial staff assume no responsibility for statements made or opinions expressed by contributors in *The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin*.
- All published materials are copyrighted by The Delta Kappa Gamma Society International and may not be reproduced in whole or in part without written permission.
- The editorial staff reserves the right to make changes of a nonsubstantive nature.
- Published authors will receive five complimentary copies of the *Bulletin* in which their article appears. For evaluation rubrics, please go to the *Bulletin* page in the Library at www.dkg.org.
## Bulletin Submission Grid

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Publication</th>
<th>Submission Type and Description</th>
<th>Word Length</th>
<th>Requirements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Journal</strong></td>
<td>Action/Classroom Research: Organized, systematic, and reflective analysis of classroom practice with implications for future practice in teaching and learning.</td>
<td>1,500-4,000</td>
<td>Abstract; documentation; bio; photo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Journal</strong></td>
<td>Qualitative/Quantitative/Mixed Methods Research: Essentially narrative with nonstatistical approaches and a focus on how individuals and groups view and understand the world and construct meanings from their experiences (Qual)/Gathers and analyzes measurable data to support or refute a hypothesis or theory through numbers and statistics (Quan)/Utilizes both qualitative and quantitative data to explore a research question (Mixed).</td>
<td>1,500-4,000</td>
<td>Abstract; documentation; bio; photo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Journal</strong></td>
<td>Position Paper/Viewpoint: Defines an issue; asserts clear and unequivocal position on that issue, provides data and references that inform that position, and argues directly in its favor.</td>
<td>1,000-1,500</td>
<td>Abstract; documentation; bio; photo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Journal</strong></td>
<td>Review of Literature: Presents supporting and nonsupporting evidence to clarify a topic and/or problem of interest and value to educators; synthesizes and critiques the literature; draws conclusions; mentions procedures for selecting and reviewing literature; may include narrative review, best evidence synthesis, or meta-analysis.</td>
<td>1,500-3,000</td>
<td>Abstract; documentation; bio; photo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Journal</strong></td>
<td>Program Description: Provides an overview and details of a single program in an educational setting. Goals, resources, and outcomes are included. No marketing or promotion of a program is allowed.</td>
<td>1,500-2,000</td>
<td>Abstract; documentation; bio; photo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Journal</strong></td>
<td>Book/Technology Review: Combines summary and personal critique of a book, Web site, or app on an educational topic or with educational relevance.</td>
<td>400-700</td>
<td>Introduction; documentation; bio; photo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Collegial Exchange</strong></td>
<td>Classroom Practice/Program: Describes practice or initiative used in a classroom to advance educational excellence</td>
<td>700-1,200</td>
<td>Bio; photo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Collegial Exchange</strong></td>
<td>DKG Chapter/State Organization Practice/Program: Describes a practice or initiative used by a chapter or state organization to advance the purposes of DKG</td>
<td>700-1,200</td>
<td>Bio; photo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Collegial Exchange</strong></td>
<td>Viewpoint on Current Issue: Defines and addresses an issue related to education, women, children, or DKG</td>
<td>700-1,200</td>
<td>Bio; photo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Collegial Exchange</strong></td>
<td>Personal Reflection or Anecdote: Shares a personal experience that provides insight to the human condition, particularly related to educators and women</td>
<td>500-700</td>
<td>Bio; photo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Collegial Exchange</strong></td>
<td>Inspirational Piece: Provides transcript of speech delivered at chapter, state, regional, or international events</td>
<td>700-1,200</td>
<td>Bio; photo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Collegial Exchange</strong></td>
<td>Bio and/or Interview: Shares the story or thoughts of a key woman educator or leader in education, women's issues, or children's issues</td>
<td>700-1,200</td>
<td>Bio; photo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Collegial Exchange</strong></td>
<td>Book Review: Combines a summary and personal critique of a textbook, resource, or book (fiction or nonfiction) related to education or to women and children</td>
<td>400-700</td>
<td>Bio; photo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Collegial Exchange</strong></td>
<td>Technology Review: Combines a summary and personal critique of an educational application, program, or piece of hardware that is useful in the classroom or that is useful in the life of an educator</td>
<td>400-700</td>
<td>Bio; photo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Journal or Collegial Exchange</strong></td>
<td>Letter to the Editor: Responds to items previously published in the Bulletin</td>
<td>200-300</td>
<td>Author's name; chapter/state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Journal or Collegial Exchange</strong></td>
<td>Poetry/Creative Work: Original expressions in any creative format</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Bio; photo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** More detailed explanations of each category may be found on the Editorial Board page at [www.dkg.org](http://www.dkg.org).