THE INFLUENCE OF AN URBAN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP DOCTORAL

PROGRAM ON THE SOCIAL JUSTICE LEADERSHIP KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS,

AND DISPOSITIONS OF ITS GRADUATES: A CASE STUDY

by

Nilajah M. Nyasuma

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education

MORGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

May, 2012

UMI Number: 3516923

UMI 3516923

Copyright 2012 by ProQuest LLC.

ProQuest LLC.
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106 - 1346

THE INFLUENCE OF AN URBAN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP DOCTORAL

PROGRAM ON THE SOCIAL JUSTICE LEADERSHIP KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS,

AND DISPOSITIONS OF ITS GRADUATES: A CASE STUDY

by

Nilajah M. Nyasuma

has been approved

September 2011

DISSSERTATION COMMITTEE APPROVAL:

_____, Chair
Warren C. Hayman, PhD

_____, Member
Willie A. Bragg, PhD

_____, Member
Raymond A. Winbush, PhD

ABSTRACT

TITLE: THE INFLUENCE OF AN URBAN EDUCATIONAL

LEADERSHIP DOCTORAL PROGRAM ON THE SOCIAL

JUSTICE LEADERSHIP KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS, AND

DISPOSITIONS OF ITS GRADUATES: A CASE STUDY.

NAME: Nyasuma, Nilajah M.

INSTITUTION: Morgan State University

CHAIR: Warren C. Hayman, Ph.D.

An abundance of data indicates that social inequality contributes to the school failure of African American and other children of color. Despite this finding, educational leadership preparation programs, have not, overwhelmingly embraced a social justice curriculum (Lopez, 2003).

The purpose of this study was to understand faculty and student perceptions regarding the extent to which the doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership at a Historically Black College and University (HBCU) explicitly or implicitly espouses a social justice agenda in the preparation of leaders. Additionally, its purpose was to study stakeholder perceptions of the extent to which the program succeeds in advancing such an agenda.

This study was guided by three research questions: (1) What perceptions do faculty and graduates have of the core curriculum employed by Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership to encourage the utilization of a social justice style of leadership? (2) How do faculty and graduates of Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership perceive the impact of the core curriculum on the development of dispositions held by graduates toward social justice leadership? (3) In what ways do faculty and graduates perceive the ability of core curriculum used by Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership to provide skills that translate into the adoption of a social justice style of leadership?

This study employed a qualitative, case study research design. Utilizing a purposive sampling procedure, the prime method of data collection involved semi-structured interviews from 11 key informants comprised of 8 alumni and 3 faculty members from the program under review. Key informants focused primarily on the teaching strategies used by program faculty in their attempt to develop the knowledge base, skill sets, and dispositions of social justice leadership.

Critical Race Theory (CRT) served as the theoretical anchor for this inquiry. CRT, as a theoretical framework, places heavy emphasis on the importance of viewing institutional policies, practices, and structures through a

historical and cultural frame to ensure that the impact of race and racism are properly examined and acknowledged (Love, 2004).

Results from this study revealed two major findings: (1) social justice concerns were addressed only in those courses where such issues were directly applicable and (2) students who come to the program with prior knowledge, professional or life experience, or personal interest in or with social justice expressed a more favorable impressions of the program's ability to impart a social justice outlook than those students who identified no such experiences. Based on the findings of this study, recommendations are made for practice, and further research.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Completing this research would not have been possible without the guidance, and support of the following individuals: Dr. Warren C. Hayman, Dr. Willie A. Bragg, and Dr. Raymond A. Winbush. First and foremost, I am thankful for Dr. Warren C. Hayman, my dissertation committee chair, for the unrelenting encouragement and wisdom he offered me. Though I am grateful to Dr. Sylvester McKay for the invaluable albeit brief assistance he provided as my original chair, I was overjoyed when I learned that the Department assigned Dr. Hayman to serve as my dissertation advisor.   Dr. Hayman, it was you who saw the merit of this study from the very beginning; I am so very grateful to you for ensuring that I completed this study with success.

Dr. Willie A. Bragg agreed to serve as a member of my committee without hesitation. Throughout this entire process, she showered me with love, external support, and heartfelt encouragement. She allowed me to talk to her (day in and day out) about my conceptions of social justice and the stresses of completing a qualitative dissertation. Most importantly, she encouraged me to stay the course when the road became rocky. Dr. Bragg, you will always remain treasured in my heart.

Dr. Raymond A. Winbush agreed, from the moment I met him, to serve as a resource to me during the completion of my doctoral studies. Meeting with him and following the scope of his work as a scholar-activist functioned as an inspiration to me. Dr. Winbush, you provided a real, live example of what it means to lead for social justice. I plan to follow in your footsteps and use my scholarship as tool for the liberation of our people! I count it an honor to have worked with you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

TABLE OF CONTENTS (continued)

TABLE OF CONTENTS (continued)

TABLE OF CONTENTS (continued)

LIST OF FIGURES

Page

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background Information

Educational leadership preparation programs provide only a cursory examination of the impact of social inequities on school leadership (Lopez, 2003). However, in light of the escalating pressure on educational leaders to facilitate the success of students, regardless of race, class, gender, religion, or English language proficiency, educational leadership programs are faced with the overwhelming task of equipping graduates with the skills necessary to promote and provide equitable educational opportunities for all of the children they serve (Brown, 2004).

History of Public Education

At its inception, US public education was aligned with the dominant religious group established initially to assimilate the children of new immigrants and advance the Puritan view that education was "necessary for salvation, good citizenry and religious instruction" (Altenbaugh, 2002; Webb, Metha and Jordan, 2003, p. 145). As such, since the emergence of public education in the 16th century, American schools have a history of discrimination against individuals of diverse cultural, religious, and linguistic backgrounds; sexual orientations and physical abilities.

American schools were created to teach children (particularly immigrant children) what it meant to be an American and to articulate to the masses a

respect for the dominant culture (Tyson, 2003, p. 328). Today, teachers continue to place cultural conformity above academic achievement and cultivating a positive group identity in Black students (Tyson, 2003,p. 338).

Initially, schooling in this new nation was provided to the white, wealthy male children in private school settings (Butts, 1985). Prior to the Civil Rights Movement, the academic success of children of color had not been at the top of the nation's educational agenda (Blanchett, 2006). While serving as the secretary for education in Massachusetts, Horace Mann developed common schools and spawned the Common Schools Movement (Altenbaugh, 2002). At the root of this movement was the notion that all children, regardless of socioeconomic status, should have equal access to free education. Through Mann's advocacy and unwavering belief in the notion of free access to education for all, the common school was created.   Although Mann and other proponents regarded public education as the great equalizer (Alternbaugh, 2002), African American students and other students of color were not factored into this equation, illustrating that the nation could generate change while concomitantly perpetuating inequalities.

History of Educational Leadership as a Profession

Prior to the development of educational leadership as an academic field of study, school leaders were untrained members of the community charged with the duty of managing schools (Guthrie, 1990). Educational leadership emerged as a field of study because of the need to manage teachers and ensure the efficacy of schools (Gumbert & Spring, 1974; Tyack & Hansot, 1982). The

superintendency is recognized as the first school leadership position in US

public schooling (Murphy, 1998).

History of Educational Leadership Preparation as an Academic Discipline

Since its inception, educational leadership preparation has evolved

considerably (McCarthy, 1999).   Much of this evolution has been determined by

the educational priorities of the respective time period. Murphy (1998) identified

four developmental "eras" to describe the landscape of educational leadership

preparation: (1) The Ideological Era, 1820-1899; (2) The Prescriptive Era, 1900-

1946; (3) The Scientific Era; and (4) Dialectic Era, 1986-Present.

The Ideological Era (1820-1899) began with the formalization of

educational leadership as a profession and as an academic discipline. In 1875,

William Payne, who served as a superintendent of Michigan authored the first

textbook on educational administration: Chapters on School Supervision. Four

years later, in 1879, he accepted a faculty appointment at the University of

Michigan to teach the first university-level course in school administration. Yet

the field of educational leadership did not become a recognized academic

discipline until the early 1900s (Murphy, 1998).

In the Prescriptive Era, (1900-1946), Columbia University is credited as

establishing the first doctoral degree program in educational administration in the

early 1900s (Pierce, 1935).   Ellwood Cubberly, one of the inaugural graduates of

Columbia's program, made considerable contributions to educational leadership

preparation (Pierce, 1935). Most significant was his authoring a foundational

textbook, Public School Administration, which was commonly utilized in

university-based educational administration programs.   Reflected in Cubberly's writings, like that of many other educational leadership pioneers of the day, was the notion that African-Americans, Asians, and Latinos were intellectually inferior to Whites (Williamson, Rhodes & Dunson, 2007).

During this era, the overwhelming majority of students matriculating in educational leadership programs were white men who attended graduate programs on a part-time basis while employed as full-time administrators (Murphy, 1998). Similarly, educational leadership faculty was comprised of retired school principals who prepared future educational leaders by exploring and examining case studies (Milstein, 1993).   These pioneering educational leadership faculty members established a knowledge base of the field rooted in anecdotal or "prescriptive" accounts from practicing school leaders to guide the course of study (Murphy, 1992; Murphy, 1998).

The prescriptive approach to educational leadership preparation was highly criticized for its lack of empiricism giving birth to the Scientific Era, 1947-1985. In this era, educational administration faculty focused on the development of a "science of administration" to guide the way in which school leaders were prepared and the manner in which educational leadership was practiced (Callahan, 1962; Murphy, 1998). Developing this "scientific knowledge base in the field became paramount and educational leadership scholars were keenly "focused on the establishment and enforcement of performance standards rather than equity standards" (Grogan, 1999, p. 518). Accordingly, this era was marked by an intense focus on creating faculty members who were trained in behavioral

sciences (Milstein, 1993).   With pressures from the Scientific Management movement, educational leadership faculty also began to introduce corporate models of leadership to the university-based preparation curriculum (Murphy, 1998).

Noteworthy during this era was the establishment of several major professional educational organizations including the National Conferences of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA), the Committee for the Advancement of School Administration (CASA), and the University Council for Educational Administration. These organizations sought to reform the manner in which school leaders were prepared by conducting and utilizing research grounded in scientific and theoretical concepts of leadership which, in turn, aided in the professionalization of the field (Murphy, 1998).

The 4th wave, the Dialectical Era (1985 to the present) is unfolding presently (Murphy, 1998). Noting the criticisms of preparation programs in the previous eras, Murphy (1998) posited that the current era is characterized by "devastating attacks on the current state of preparation programs, critical analyses of practicing school administrators, and references to alternative visions of what programs should become (p.366).

Current Landscape

At present, there are 228 schools and universities that award 42% of doctoral degrees to students of educational administration (Levine, 2005). This translates into 88% of the 250,000 school leaders being educated by University-based educational leadership programs (Levine, 2005). Although an aspiring

educational leader can travel a non-traditional pathway to leadership, (e.g. as an alumnus of New Leaders for New Schools), the chief manner in which school leaders enter the field is through university-based educational leadership programs (Levine, 2005).

Educational leadership preparation programs pay little, if any, attention to educational inequities (Marshall, 2004; Shields, 2004). When these programs broach issues of educational inequality, they reduce inequalities to matters of poverty (Payne & Krabil, 2002). Payne (2002) provided one of the most popular explanations of educational inequity, in her framework for understanding poverty, citing economic status as the prime predictor of academic success. In response to Payne's framework, Kunjufu (2006) argued that poverty was accepted as the chief cause of school failure in urban spaces because ascribing causation to social class absolved policy makers and educators of their role in the perpetuation and maintenance of educational inequality among marginal children (Kunjufu, 2006).

Leithwood and Riehl (2003) concluded that educational leadership was a salient factor in student achievement, noting that educational leaders, if they are to be effective, must be able to respond to the multitude of obstacles that racially diverse children face. Researchers have illustrated that social justice concerns are a missing component in educational leadership preparation (Bates, 2006; Blackmore, 2002; and Bonillia-Silva, 2001). To this end, stakeholders have encouraged preparation programs to develop curricula that will prepare future leaders to effectively respond to the challenges of educating children from

diverse cultural, sexual orientation, economic, racial, ethnic and religious backgrounds.

Educational Inequity

Many scholars and researchers charge public schooling with the maintenance of educational and social inequities (Adams, Bell & Griffin, 1997; Ani, 1994; Apple, 1992; Applied Research Center, 2000; Asante, 1992; Blanchett, 2006; Caruthers, 1990; English, 2002; Garrity, 2004; Gamoran,1992; Haberman, 1999; Hilliard, 1998; Hilliard; 1999). According to Tyson (2003) the "more closely students' homes reflect mainstream culture, the greater their initial advantage in school" (p. 327). Suggesting that schooling practices are structured to support white, middle class society and by contrast position black students as culturally deviant (Tyson, 2003, p. 338).

The United States of America purports to be a nation of equal opportunity. Yet, the disparities between white and marginalized student outcomes and educational inputs have created what amounts to a dual system of education which has existed since the founding of American public schools (Apple, 2009; Applied Research Center, 2000; Delpit, 1995; Darling-Hammond, 2004; Darling-Hammond, 2007). Examples of these dual systems of education include ability grouping, inequitable school funding, access to curriculum, teacher quality, suspension and expulsion rates, and student teacher attrition rates (Nieto & Bode, 2008). These inequitable educational systems which still exist so profoundly have resulted in disparities in high school graduation rates, college

completion rates and decreased earning potential among people from marginalized groups.

Rushing (2001) stated that education in the United States "is not a neutral institution but one that functions in the context of political, cultural and social inequities and plays a role in maintaining and legitimating those inequalities" (p.32). In the same vein, Haberman (2007) compellingly argues that there are at least 20 entities that benefit from failing urban schools. These beneficiaries include central office personnel, students outside of urban school districts and, consultants hired to repair failing schools and politicians to name a few.

The intentional creation and maintenance of educational inequality must be abolished if America is to be successful in this emerging knowledge-based and technological economy (Darling-Hammond, 2007; Darling-Hammond, 2010). Academic failure is associated with a broad range of negative outcomes for children (e.g. lack of readiness for higher education or the workplace), thus jeopardizing their opportunities for future success. Students who do not achieve academically will have to contend with unemployment, underemployment and entrapment in a level of marginal, low paying and. often part-time jobs (Darling-Hammond, 2009/2010).

School failure also has serious consequences for the larger society. With the generation of knowledge and technology as the driving forces of the American economy, educational planners and policymakers must aggressively investigate and employ innovative ways to prepare all students, especially those

who have traditionally not excelled in school, for success in this technologically advanced and globally changing society (Darling-Hammond, 2010).

Accountability Pressures

Pressures from local, state, and national government leaders have sparked a discordant discourse about the preparation and credentialing of educational leaders. The 1983 publication of *A Nation at Risk* penned by the National Commission of Excellence in Education, an 18 member panel appointed by Secretary of Education, Terrell Bell, during the Reagan administration is credited with spawning the accountability movement and played a major role in informing the educational leadership era during this decade (Murphy, 1998). Examining test scores from the SAT, the National Assessment of Educational Progress, and College Board Achievement tests, the "A Nation at Risk" report documented the degree to which American students were being outperformed by high school students from other industrialized nations. Consequently, the report called attention to the field of educational leadership (National Commission of Excellence in Education, 1983).

According to the National Commission of Excellence in Education (1983), underachievement, along with the increasing technological advancements occurring in other nations, could compromise American prosperity, security, and civility (p.1). To remedy this, A Nation at Risk, called for reform of teacher training, curriculum and graduation requirements, and increased accountability among principals and teachers (National Commission of Excellence in Education, 1983).

With increased attention now focused on how educational leaders were trained, the University Council for Education Administration established the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration (NCEEA) in 1987 (Murphy, 1998). This Commission was assembled to analyze the state of educational leadership in the United States. Its report recommended that: educational leadership be redefined; a National Policy Board of Educational Administration (NPBEA) be created; educational leadership programs be reformulated to resemble those of professional schools; public schools contribute to the training of educational leaders; minorities and women be recruited to hold leadership positions; licensure programs be restructured; and professors and practitioners of educational leadership leaders participate in professional development (NCEEA, 1987, p.11).

Under the commission's report, NPBEA was formed to provide a standardized knowledge base for the field of educational leadership (NCEEA, 1987).   In 1994, the NPBEA commissioned the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISSLC) to create a set of professional standards that would guide how educational leaders are trained and evaluated. This consortium, which was comprised of representatives from local, state, business, and professional organizations, reviewed research on effective schools and consulted with accomplished educational leaders in an effort to fulfill their charge (CCSSO, 1996). Two years later, the ISSLC published six standards to communicate what information leaders should know, how leaders should performance and what sensibilities they should exhibit (CCSSO, 1996).

The ISSLC standards gained prominence in the field of educational administration and led to the creation of national accreditation standards which have had a profound impact on licensure and the accreditation of educational preparation programs and placed a stronghold on the practice of educational leadership (Murphy, 2003). For example, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) allowed the ISSLC standards to drive the accreditation of university-based programs that grant degrees in educational leadership and have provided the foundation for the School Leaders Licensure administered by the Educational Testing Service (Murphy, 2003).

The ISSLC standards appear to voice concerns for social justice issues; however, English argues that a school leader "adhering to ISSLC standards would not be propelled by them to end the socially accepted practices of racial prejudice" (p.89). In 2008, the ISSLC standards were updated and continue to shape how educational leadership programs are delivered.

Concerns have been raised about the extent to which social justice issues are being considered in the development of standards for preparing leaders (English, 2005; Lalas and Morgan, 2006; Marshall and Olivia, 2006). Further, standards and licensure requirements don't explicitly encompass social justice concerns. According to Cambron-McCabe and McCarthy (2005) "when asked to identify social justice elements, policy makers point to high academic standards and stringent assessment measures as proof of equity concerns" (p.202). Thus, the elimination of the "achievement gap" has become a signifier for fairness and equal opportunity (Cambron-McCabe & McCarthy, 2005, p. 202).

The reauthorization of No Child Left Behind Act (NCLBA), formerly known as the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) by President George W. Bush, has led to increased accountability and intensified its iron grip on educational leadership (Darling-Hammond, 2004; Easley, 2005; Fletcher, 2005). NCLBA, as introduced by former president George W. Bush, placed the elimination of the achievement gap at the top of the nation's educational agenda by holding educators accountable for the success of all students (particularly those from diverse cultural, economic and linguistic backgrounds) sanctioning what Easley (2005) referred to as the "most intensive policy guidelines around standards and accountability" (p.492).

NCLBA requires schools to provide qualified teachers, conduct annual testing, demonstrate academic progress, and publish report cards that detail success (NCLB, 2002). This law requires that, by 2014, schools demonstrate that all students are "proficient" in the critical subject areas of reading and mathematics thereby meeting what is referred to as adequate yearly progress (AYP). Thus, schools and districts that receive Title I federal funds are under mandate to demonstrate AYP via student achievement (NCLB, 2002).

Although NCLBA supports the social justice aim to facilitate the academic success of all students by holding states and schools more accountable for student progress, it resulted in outcomes that were more punitive than positive for the population that it intended to serve: disenfranchised populations. Fletcher (2005) explains that the "law's tough sanctions have a disparate impact on districts with large minorities and low-income populations" (p. 17). Since the

passage of NCLBA, 26,000 of the 93,000 US Public Schools have failed to meet Adequate Yearly Progress (Darling-Hammond, 2004). While the social justice aims of ISLLC standards and the NCLBA are evident, Marshall and Olivia (2006), note that neither the federal mandate nor licensure process provide strategies on how a social justice leadership practice can be actualized (Hall, 2004).

The Knowledge Base Debate

Since the inception of educational leadership as a profession and academic discipline, there has been a raging debate among policy makers, researchers, practitioners, and educational leadership faculty regarding what knowledge base should be included in educational leadership programs (Achilles, 2005, Levine, 2005; Murphy 1992; Murphy, 1998). Early educational leadership faculty members were divided over what paradigm to utilize in preparing school leaders (Levine, 2005). Some scholars argued that an empirical knowledge base was essential. Others asserted that a base of practical knowledge allowed leaders to function effectively.

Tracing the genealogy of educational leadership preparation, Levine (2005) noted that James Russell, dean of Columbia University's School of Education, contended that educational leaders needed practical knowledge in order to function as effective educational leaders. On the converse, Henry Holmes, the Dean of Harvard University's School of Education insisted that preparation for school leaders should resemble the approach used by law and medical schools requiring students to complete one year of core courses and one

year of specialized training. In opposition, Dean Charles Judd of the

University of Chicago's School of Education encouraged educational leadership

faculty to develop a "science of education" grounded in empirical knowledge

(Levine, 2005). These educational leadership preparation pioneers failed to

reach a consensus regarding the educational leadership knowledge base, and

this ideological divide has continued.

Just as the controversy surrounding what should be included in the

knowledge base for educational leaders has persisted, so too, have the

disparities in educational achievement with respect to race, class, gender, and

physical ability.   In addition, those from diverse religious backgrounds and

sexual orientations are continually forced to endure unjust treatment in public

schools (Love, 2004).

The increase of diversity in public schools mandates that educational

leaders understand individuals, cultures, and families from various backgrounds.

In addition, in the context of these demographic changes, leaders will also be

expected to respond to the issues of educational inequity that so often impact the

lives of marginalized populations (Bruner, 2008; Evans, 2007). This requires

educational leadership programs to provide their students with tools that teach

them how to lead and work with diverse populations (Brunner, 2008).

The continuing lack of a social justice leadership knowledge base in the

field of educational leadership undermines the manner in which current

leadership preparation is executed. Lopez (2003) noted that future educational

leaders cannot be prepared to lead for social justice if faculty members avoid exposing them to issues of diversity, racism, and discrimination.

Statement of the Problem

The demographic shift in the student population underscores the need for a reexamination of educational leadership preparation (Cooper, 2009; Shields, 2004). An abundance of data indicates that social inequality contributes to school failure of African American and other children of color (Afrik, 1993; Brown, 2004; Delpit, 1995; Disxon &Rosseau, 2005; Hilliard, 1998; Kunjufu, 1984; Karpinski, 2004; Ladson-Billings, 1999; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995); Lomotey, 1989; Lynn & Adams, 2002; Matsuda et al.., 1993; Shields, 2004; Tyson, 2007). Despite this finding, educational leadership preparation programs, have not, overwhelmingly embraced a social justice leadership curricula (Lopez, 2003).

With federal mandates requiring educational leaders to ensure equitable outcomes for all students regardless of race, universities preparing school leaders must insert a social justice knowledge base into their curriculum (Lopez, 2003). Moreover, most preparation programs have only encouraged a cursory examination of the impact of racial and social inequities on school leadership (Lopez, 2003). The shortage of research on student and faculty perceptions regarding the influence of the role of doctoral programs in preparing graduates to assume a social justice style of leadership indicates a severe gap in the literature.

Escaping the stronghold that NCLBA and the ISSLC standards have placed on educational leadership preparation programs is impossible (Darling-

Hammond, 2004). Therefore, educational leadership programs must provide students with strategies that involve improving student performance using a framework anchored in social justice leadership.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to understand faculty and student perceptions regarding the extent to which the doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership explicitly or implicitly espouses a social justice agenda in the preparation of leaders. Additionally, its purpose is to study stakeholder perceptions of the extent to which the program succeeds in advancing such an agenda.

As such, this research examines how those who administer and those who graduate from the program perceive its influence on the alumni's acquisition of social justice leadership knowledge, skills, and dispositions toward social justice.

Theoretical Framework

Critical Race Theory (CRT) serves as the anchor for this study. CRT, as a theoretical framework, places heavy emphasis on the importance of viewing institutional policies, practices, and structures through a historical and cultural frame to ensure that the impact of race and racism are properly examined and acknowledged. CRT encourages the use of qualitative research—specifically the use of narratives— to understand and explore the lived experiences of oppressed people (Solórzano, 1998). Parker and Villalpando (2007) note that CRT has grave "implications for educational leadership practice and policy"

(p.520). Thus, allowing CRT to guide the research methodology will allow a

comprehensive examination of the ways in which institutional practices and

policies maintain educational and societal inequalities (Crenshaw et al.., 1995).

CRT acknowledges that "race and racism are deeply embedded in the

structures, discourse, and policies that guide the daily practices of educational

institutions" (Parker &Villalpando, 2007, p. 520). Yet, educational researchers

agree that the field of educational administration intentionally employs a race

neutral approach to the preparation of current and future school leaders

(Jennings & Lynn, 2005; Lopez, 2003; Marshall, 2004; Yosso, 2005). Therefore,

the use of CRT as a theoretical framework seeks to expose the existence or non-

existence of social justice constructs in the curriculum or pedagogy used in the

educational leadership preparation under review.

The rationale for using CRT in this research is detailed in Figure 5. In the

context of this study, the CRT framework will:

1) Acknowledge that issues regarding race and racism are deeply rooted

in the policies and practices that inform public and higher education

(Parker & Villalpando, 2007).

2) Challenge any race neutral practices and color-blind approaches with

respect to program delivery.

3) Advocate for a social justice agenda in educational leadership

preparation.

4) Assume that students and faculty have a counter-narrative that differs from the one that dominates educational leadership preparation literature.

5) Acknowledge the importance of a trans-disciplinary approach to understanding the current state of education and educational leadership preparation.

Figure 1. Theoretical Framework of Critical Race Theory in Education

Critical Race Theory served as the theoretical anchor for this study (see Figure 1) therefore this research was conducted through the lens of Critical Race Methodology (CRM). This methodological perspective instructs the researcher(s) to place marginalized persons or groups at the center of the research inquiry in an effort to gain an intimate understanding of their "experience with and response to the US educational system" (Solorzano & Yosso (2002, pp. 36-37).

Solórzano and Ornelas (2002) advocated for the utilization of CRM when posing research questions, conducting literature reviews, data analysis, and summarizing conclusions in research aimed at eliminating educational inequity. Solórzano and Ornelas (2002) posited that critical race methodology:

1) Places race, and its intersection with other forms of subordination at the center of research;

2) Uses race in research to challenge the dominant scientific norms of objectivity and neutrality;

3) Ensures that research is connected with social justice concerns;

4) Makes experiential knowledge central to the study and link this knowledge to other critical research and interpretive perspectives on race and racism;

5) Acknowledges the importance of trans-disciplinary perspectives that are based in other fields to enhance understanding of the effects of racism and other forms of discrimination.

Research Questions

This study is guided by three research questions.

Research Question 1:   What perceptions do faculty and graduates have of the core curriculum employed by Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership to encourage the utilization of a social justice style of leadership?

Research Question 2:   How do faculty and graduates of Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership perceive the impact of the core curriculum on the development of dispositions toward social justice leadership?

Research Question 3:   In what ways do faculty and graduates perceive the ability of core curriculum used by Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership to provide skills that translate into the adoption of a social justice style of leadership?

Significance of the Study

Grogan (2004) proffered that educational "leaders have the power to affirm marginalizing policies or counter them" (p.227). A school leader's decision to maintain the status quo or lead a socially just institution is influenced by the knowledge base he or she obtained while matriculating in their leadership preparation program (Karpinski & Lugg, 2006). There is a dearth of research on educational leadership that examines how faculty members and students perceive the influence of educational leadership preparation programs on preparing students to adopt a social justice style of leadership.

This study seeks to enhance the educational community's understanding of social justice concerns as they intersect with educational leadership

preparation. Thus, this research will inform administrators and faculty members of educational leadership programs as they seek to prepare future leaders.

Limitations and Delimitations

This study is limited by its use of a single case study research design (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). Thus, this research does not represent urban educational leadership programs across the nation.   Findings from this study are specific to Mid Atlantic University's urban educational leadership program as they represent the perspectives and experiences of those faculty members and alumni of the program.   Therefore, findings from this research can only be generalized to other institutions with similar characteristics.

Only recent graduates and faculty (within the last five years) were included in the study. Therefore, the data gleaned from former faculty and graduates from more than five years ago could differ, which creates a delimitation of this study.

Definition of Terms

To ensure that the reader understands how concepts are operationalized in the context of this study, definitions of key terms are provided below.

Colorblindness—"is a willed ignorance of color that, although well

    intended, insist on assimilating the experience of people of color to that of

    Whites" (Thompson, 1998, p. 524).

Critical Race Theory—"in education is a framework or set of basic insights,

    perspectives, methods, pedagogy that seeks to identify, analyze and

    transform those structural and cultural aspects of education that maintain

    subordinate and dominant racial positions in and out the classroom

    (Solorzano & Yosso, 2002, p.24).

Deficit Thinking—refers to the belief "that students who fail in school do so

    because of alleged internal deficiencies--such as cognitive and/or

    motivational limitations--or shortcomings socially linked to the youngster—

    such as familial deficits and dysfunctions. This popular "at-risk" construct,

    now entrenched in educational circles, views poor and working class

    children and their families (typically of color) as predominatly responsible

    for school failure" (Valencia, 1997, p. xi).

Dispositions—(1) what an administrator values, believes in, and is

    committed to" (CCSSO, 1996, p.10). (2) "the values, commitments, and

    professional ethics that influence behaviors toward students, families,

    colleagues, and communities and affect student learning, motivation, and

development as well as the educator's own professional growth.

Dispositions are guided by beliefs and attitudes related to values such as

caring, fairness, honesty, responsibility, and social justice. For example,

they might include a belief that all students can learn, a vision of high an

challenging standards, or a commitment to a safe and supportive learning

environment" (NCATE, 2006, p.53).

Knowledge Base— (1) "what an administrator has a knowledge or understanding

of" (CCSSO, 1996, p.10). (2) "empirical research, disciplined inquiry,

informed theory and the wisdom of practice which undergird" the practice

of educational leadership preparation (NCATE, 2006, p.54).

Racism —"the deep, implicit, taken-for-granted dominance of whites and white

cultural norms, standards, assumptions, philosophies, etc. as the natural

nature of reality. As such, the cultural norms, standards, assumptions,

philosophies, language and dialects of people of color are positioned as

less, negative, weak, uncivilized, undeveloped and less meaningful"

(Scheurich, 2002, p. 3).

Skills— (1) "processes and activities the administrator can facilitate" (CCSSO,

1996, p.10). (2) "The ability to use professional knowledge effectively and

readily in diverse educational settings in a manner that ensures that all

students are learning" (NCATE, 2006, p. 56).

Social Justice Leadership—Leadership-means that educational leaders "make

issues of race, gender, class, disability, sexual orientation, and other

historically and currently marginalizing conditions in the United States

central to their advocacy, leadership, practice and vision" (Theoharis,

2007, p. 222).

White Privilege—"any phenomena, whether individual (e.g., biased teacher

attitudes), structural (e.g. curricular and pedagogical practices geared

toward White-middle class students), political (e.g. biased educational

policies), economic (e.g., school funding formula that contribute to

inequity), or social (e.g. social construction of race and disability), that

serve to privilege Whites while oppressing people of color (Blanchett,

2006, p.24).

Summary

Chapter I provided background information on the topic of social justice leadership and educational leadership preparation. In addition, CRT, the theoretical framework for this study, was outlined. Also, a glossary of key terms was supplied. Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature. Chapter 3 delineates the methodology used to conduct this study. Chapter 4 presents the research findings. Lastly, Chapter 5 provides a discussion of conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Chapter 2 provides a synthesis of pertinent literature that supports the research questions and research methodology guiding this study.   This review defines social justice leadership, explains why social justice leadership is necessary, and identifies the role of educational leadership preparation programs in preparing graduates to become leaders for social justice.   Moreover, this review of the literature illuminates and attempts to fill the gaps in knowledge related to the intersection between educational leadership and social justice agenda.

Educational leadership for social justice is an emerging area of scholarly inquiry that has attracted considerable attention in the educational research arena.   In 1999, Catherine Marshall, with the financial backing of the Ford Foundation, assembled 140 scholars to form Leaders for Social Justice. Following their lead, the American Educational Research Association created Leadership for Social Justice Special Interest Group while the University Council of Educational Administration developed the Center for Educational Leadership and Social Justice. Since then, a growing body of literature (see Bates, 2006; Mckenzie & Scheurich, 2004; Blackmore, 2002; Brown, 2004; Cambron-Cambron-McCabe& McCarthy, 2005; Grogan, 2004; Lugg 2003a; Marshall, 2004; Normore, Rodriguez, & Wynn, 2007; Rapp, 2002; and Theoharris, 2007)

has led to the placement of social justice themes on the conference agendas at major educational professional organizations.

There also has been an increase in social justice research published in educational journals (see Journal of Educational Administration [Shoho, 2006]; Journal of Educational Administration Quarterly; and Journal of Research in Education [Rusch, 2007] and the reconstruction of educational leadership programs to include social justice themes in course content. This mounting attention has caused researchers and policy makers to focus on conceptualizing social justice educational leadership, the necessity for educational leaders of social justice, the role of the school principal in creating socially just schools, and the challenges school leaders encounter when operating from a social justice leadership praxis.

The use of a social justice educational leadership framework in educational leadership preparation can be valuable in developing future leaders' knowledge, skills, and dispositions and preparing them to address obstacles to school success originating from the historical oppression of children of color. Such a framework will be especially beneficial to leaders who serve or will serve in urban schools.

Conceptualization of Social Justice Educational Leadership

An examination of the scholarship on educational leadership for social justice illustrates a variety of ways in which the term social justice has been defined. Researchers consider social justice leadership in education an ethical

imperative that endeavors to improve "practice and student outcomes for culturally diverse, economically disadvantaged, female, gay/lesbian, and other students who have not traditionally been served well in schools" (Marshall & Oliva, 2006, p. 6).

Tillman (2002) referred to social justice as a movement that seeks to "investigate and pose solutions for issues that generate and reproduce social inequities" (p.162).Conversely, Karpinski (2004) regarded social justice as the "viewpoint of someone who seeks to identify inequities and who pursues practices that offer opportunity and equity to historically marginalized students" (p.42). From a broader perspective, Furman and Shields (2004) argue that "meanings of social justice are constructed by the members of any given community drawn from their understandings of the historical context, their present circumstances, and the moral purpose of their organizational context" (p. 15). A common theme among all of these definitions is the "view that educational leaders need to become activist leaders who focus on equity" (Bogotoch, 2001, p.114).

The Necessity of Social Justice Educational Leadership

Educational leadership scholars have identified a broad range of issues that present social justice leadership challenges to school leaders. These issues include the deleterious effects of high stakes testing on children of color (Parker, 2002), increasing retention and attrition rates of marginalized children (Hodgkinson, 1999), the inclusion of students with disabilities into the

mainstream curriculum (*Frattura & Topinka, 2006*) ensuring equitable funding for schools attended by minorities (Kozol,1991) serving children who are homosexual or from homosexual families (Leck, 2000) promoting gender equity (Lundeberg, 1997), and religious diversity (Kirmani & Laster, 1999).

Urban school leaders face many challenges that have implications for the preparation programs that educate them. The most urgent challenges involve demographic trends. These trends include population projections and the mismatched demographics of educational leaders and parents, faculty and students, racism in schools, deficit perspectives, and the racial achievement gap.

Population Projections

The demographic makeup of the United States is steadily shifting (Shrestha, 2006). Population projections from the United States Census Bureau indicate that the US population will swell to 420 million people by the year 2050 (United States Census Bureau, 2004). It is forecasted that, by 2050, the Latino population will double in size, rising from 12.6% to 24.4%. Similar trends are also expected in the growth of the Asian population which is projected to double from 3.8% to 8% (United States Census Bureau, 2004). The African-American population is also slated to rise from 12% to 14% of the total US population by the same year.   Conversely, the composition of the White population will experience a significant decline, falling from 81% to 72% of the total population by the year 2050.

The population of United States school age children from diverse cultural, ethnic, religious, linguistic and sexual orientation backgrounds has and will continue to experience a shift. Projections indicate that children of color will comprise more than 50% of the US school-age population. These projections have salient implications for future educational leaders and urban educational leadership programs (Cooper, 2009; Tarca, 2005).

Researchers have noted that the disparate scores on achievement tests of the aforementioned students on all academic performance measures has not abated (Haberman, 2003; Parker, 2002). These persistent educational inequities have caused educational researchers and academicians to consider new approaches to educational leadership preparation (Bussey, 2007; Tillman, 2002). As demographic trends usher in increasing cultural diversity in the school age population, educational leaders must begin to create or enact a leadership praxis that is culturally sensitive (Marshall, 2004; Riehl, 2000). It is not surprising, then, that topics related to leadership for social justice have captured the attention of educational policymakers, and researchers.

Mismatch in Demographics Between Educational Leaders, Faculty, Students and Families

It also estimated that the educational leadership workforce will experience a change in its demographic composition (Hess & Kelly, 2005). Over the past two decades, the educational leadership workforce has experienced a 40% turnover of school leaders (Doud & Keller, 1998). And, according to Levine (2005), this trend is not likely to subside. Clearly, these current trends and future projections

illustrate that the US population is becoming more ethnically and culturally diverse (Young & Laible, 2000).

However, researchers have documented the tendency for educational leadership programs to prepare their graduates to lead the types of schools that no longer exist (Lopez, 2003; Young & Laible, 2000). Young and Brooks (2008) advised educational leadership scholars "to explore and interrogate the racial dynamics of their programs and respond to the needs of a changing student population" (p.393).

These demographic trends have led policy makers, educational leadership scholars and faculty, and stakeholders to investigate the effectiveness of preparation programs. Many scholars agree that educational preparation programs are antiquated and need to be reconceptualized (Fossey & Shoho, 2006; Hess & Kelly, 2005; Cambron-McCabe& McCarthy, 2005).Traditional approaches to educational leadership preparation are steeped in the principles of management and therefore ignore the vast challenges presented by the current demographic trends and persistent educational inequities (Lalas & Valle, 2007; Jackson & Kelly, 2002; Marshall, 2004).

Racism in Schools

In light of current and projected demographic trends, school leaders must fully understand the ways in which racism manifests in schools. Developing such an understanding, in large measure, will depend on how well the training

that leaders receive empowers them to interpret and counteract racially and socially unjust school practices (Delpit, 1995; Hilliard, 1992; Lopez, 2003).

Research conducted by Murray and Clark (1990) discovered eight strands of racism in schools: (a) insensitive or hostile acts, (b) biased application of harsh sanctions, (c) inequalities in the amount of teacher attention given to students, (d) biased curriculum materials, (e) inequalities in the amount of instructional time provided, (f) biased attitudes toward students, (g) failure to hire educators and school staff of color, and, (h) denial of racist actions. Nearly two decades later, race-related inequity continues to pervade urban public education (Apple, 2009). These issues include modern day school segregation, the racial achievement gap, the overrepresentation of black students (specifically black males) in special education, and racial disparities in suspension and expulsion rates (Beauboeuf-Lafontant, and Smith, 1996; Porter, 1998; Winbush, 2001).

The Deficit Perspective

African-American children and other children of color are continually subjected to numerous educational inequities (Lynn & Adams, 2002; Solórzano & Ornelas, 2004). Educational statistics rank African-American student achievement at or near the bottom of nearly every measure of academic success (e.g. graduation rates, grade point averages, and college enrollment rates) when compared to their White counterparts (Casteel, 2000; Lewis, 2008). Explanations of these persistent "gaps in achievement" have placed a heavy focus on the alleged deficiencies of African-American and other children of color

and therefore perpetuate attitudes of racial prejudice among school leaders

(Blanchette, Klinger & Harry, 2009; Blanchette, Mumford & Beachum, 2005;

Casteel, 1998; Delpit, 1995; Kunjufu, 1984; Lee, 1990; Lomotey, 1995; Porter,

1998; Shujaa, 1994; Smitherman, 2000).

　　　　Scholars have long argued that US schools purposely serve the interest of

capitalism and consequently reproduce a system of racial, gender, and class

stratification (Tyson, 2003). Explanations that address why the "institutional

agents- who are implicated in these processes-would cooperate with the system

to aid in the reproduction of social inequality" are noticeably absent from the

literature (Tyson, 2003, p. 326). Thus, stakeholders must begin to question why

educators "systematically participate in the oppression of students such that a

pattern of academic underachievement and failure persists among some

culturally diverse and low income groups" (p. 326).

　　　　Educational leaders attribute school failure of African-American children to

socioeconomic status, parents' level of education, or cultural/racial inferiority

(Afrik, 1993). This deficit perspective is based on the assumption that African-

American children and other children of color are not excelling academically

because they are at-risk, hard to teach, or culturally disadvantaged (Skrla &

Scheurich, 2001). Operating from the deficit orientation requires educational

leaders to develop programs that reconcile these "deficiencies" and therefore

rescue or "fix" marginalized children (Skrla & Scheurich, 2001, p. 24). Such a

response communicates a message to African-American and other children of

color that their cultural values, knowledge and experiences are invalid and pathological. This, according to Parker and Stovall (2004), forces marginalized children to assimilate and therefore serves to maintain and advance white privilege.

Conversely, educational leaders who operate from a social justice framework seek to explode the deficit myth by regarding the family, cultural and community values and resources of marginalized children as valid and significant. Further, leaders for social justice regard the cultural and familial networks of students, not as liabilities, but as indispensible "funds of knowledge" that aid in the facilitation of academic success (Lalas and Valle, 2007).

Racial Achievement Gap

Research on achievement gap focuses heavily on the racial component of student achievement with less attention dedicated to the racial discrimination. Lewis, James, Hancock, Hill and Jackson (2008) indicated that race is often cited as a contributing factor concerning the achievement gap but noted that there is a tendency of researchers to "avoid dismiss connections to racisms as a factor in African-American underachievement" (p. 128). This approach fails to analyze the significant role that race-based discrimination plays in student outcomes (Castagno, 2008). For example, Larson and Ovando (2001) found that when educators were confronted with the racial dimension of school failure, lack of relevant curriculum and poor instruction, they relied on bureaucratic operating

procedures and enforced neutral administrative policies to address such problems.

More often than not, educational leaders attribute racial achievement gap issues to a broad range of personal factors without an analysis of the systemic factors that prevent academic success (Castagno, 2008). As Marshall and Oliva (2006) noted, the academic failure of marginalized students does not occur because of personal, communal or familial deficiencies but because of the structural inequalities that are deeply woven in institutional practices and policies. More to this point, Love (2004) posited that classifying black children as ill-prepared for advanced placement courses absolves the school system from any responsibility for its failure to provide rigorous curriculum to this population.

Criticism of Educational Leadership Preparation

Educational leadership preparation programs have come under harsh criticism for their unqualified faculty (Levine, 2005) curriculum relevance, (Hess & Kelly. 2005), academic rigor (Meyer & Feistritzer, 2003) lack of research (Riehl, Larson, Short, & Reitzug, 2000), and theoretical and practical relevance (Jackson & Kelley, 2002). Levine's (2005) report which presents findings from a four year study of 1,200 schools of education, criticized programs for their lack of coherent curricula, loose admission policies, and ill-prepared faculty. As a remedy, Levine (2005) called for the elimination of the EdD degree. Along the same vein, Hess and Kelly (2005) called for the banishment or reform of university-based educational leadership programs.

Fulmer, Muth and Reiter (2004) posited that current curricula and pedagogy in educational leadership training programs "continue to be driven by books, lectures and exams often focusing on the managerial aspect of what school leaders do on the job" (p.191). Research conducted by the aforementioned scholars has drawn similar conclusions: educational leadership programs need to be reconceptualized or eliminated.

The Fordham Institute's publication, Better Leaders for America's Schools: A Manifesto critiqued the quality of educational leadership programs arguing that the current manner in which school leaders are educated and licensed is ineffective. To remedy this, the Manifesto recommends that school leadership preparation is deregulated so that individuals outside of the field of education can enter the educational leadership labor pool.

Educational leadership programs have also been cited as ineffective in preparing future school leaders to adequately lead in distressed schools. Research conducted by Frakass, Johnson and Duffet (2003) revealed that only 4% of principals considered their university-based training effective in preparing them for the principalship. Tilman (2002) cautiously advises educational leadership scholars and theorists that any "re-examination of the profession must include the following question: Should we continue to train future leaders using traditional models which are non-inclusive and prepare principals for an ideal school? Or, given these changing demographics, should we commit ourselves to bridging theory and practice?" (p. 152).

Other criticisms of educational leadership preparation include the assertion that traditional educational leadership models are grounded in deficit theories which characterize children of color as culturally and intellectually inferior.   Operating from the assumption that racially diverse children have to assimilate to become successful, educational leaders dismiss the "funds of knowledge" and ways of being that marginalized children and families bring to the classroom. Normore, Rodriguez & Wynne (2007) assert that "deficit perspectives pervade the psyche of educators and the institutions that serve historically underserved communities" (p. 659). These deficit assumptions regard the cultural experiences, values, learning styles and language as inferior. Consequently, educational institutions presume that children of color need to assimilate in order to be successful. Thus, educational leaders dismiss the cultural knowledge, folkways, and mores that marginal children bring with them to the school house.

Noting that the political, economic, and cultural factors are not the same as they were a century ago, Scheurich & Skrla (2004) asserts that educational leaders must now work to craft a leadership praxis that seeks to eliminate educational inequity. According to Lopez (2003), most of the traditionally taught courses in educational leadership are biased against children of color and discriminate against students from diverse cultural groups on factors unrelated to student merit and ability.

The Call for Social Justice Leadership

Although there has been a swelling body of literature and attention given to social justice leadership in the field of educational leadership (Bates, 2006; Bell, Jones, & Johnson, 2002; Bell McKenzie, & Scheurich, 2004; Blackmore, 2002; Bogotch, (2002b); Brown, 2004; Cambron-Cambron-McCabe& McCarthy, 2005; Dantley and Tilman, 2006; Furman & Gruenewald, 2004; Furman, & Sheilds, 2005; Goldfarb & Grinberg, 2002; Grogan, 2002; Leck, 2000; Larson & Murtadha, 2002; Lugg, 2003a; Lugg, 2003b; Marshall, 2004; Marshall & Oliva, 2006; Marshall & Ward, 2004; Ovando, 2002; Pounder, Reitzug &Young, 2002; Rapp, 2002; Riester, Pursch, &, Skrla, 2002; Rusch, 2004; Rusch, 2008;Sapon-Shevin, 2003; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003; Sensoy & DiAngelo, 2009; Shields, 2004; Shoho, 2006; Solomon, 2002; Theoharis, 2007, 2008; Tillman et al.., 2006), the development of social justice theoretical frameworks have not been given a high priority in university-based preparation programs.   Sensoy and DiAngelo (2009) assert that "many schools of education list social justice as a programmatic value in their mission statements. However, the manner in which social justice will be operationalized is rarely addressed" (p.349). And, even when issues of social justice are addressed in the academy, they are done so in a perfunctory manner (Lopez, 2003).

Proponents of social justice leadership call for the reform of the practice of educational leadership preparation. Lopez (2003) and Parker and Villalpando (2007) noted that school leaders have been and still are trained to lead schools

that no longer exist; therefore, educational leadership preparation programs are unsuccessful in developing administrators who are capable of leading culturally and ethnically diverse schools.

Arguing that traditional educational leadership preparation relies on corporate models and conceptions of leadership that disadvantage children of color, scholars have called for the extension of theories that form the knowledge base to include ethical and moral constructs that are aimed at improving outcomes for diverse students (see Brown, 2006; Cambron-Cambron-McCabe& McCarthy, 2005; Goldfard & Griberg, 2002; Marshall, 2004; Cambron-McCabe, & McCarthy, 2005; Normore, Rodríguez & Wynne, 2007; and Theoharris, 2007). These scholars do not entirely dismiss the current theoretical leadership models that dominate the field (Marshall and Gerstl-Pepin, 2005) rather, they call for the development of a social justice leadership pedagogy that focuses on the impact of institutional racism on school leadership (Brown, 2006). Although these leaders recognize the value of managerial and technical models of leadership, they also realize that leadership must be also viewed as a moral imperative (Scheurich & Skrla, 2003; Theoharris, 2007).

Larson and Murtadha's (2002) invited "researchers in educational administration who believe that injustice in our schools and communities is neither natural nor inevitable to coalesce under an umbrella of inquiry called leadership for social justice" (p.135). Furman (2003) opined that "social justice has recently acquired a new intensity and urgency in the field of education for

several reasons, including the growing diversity of school populations, the increasing documentation of the achievement and economic gaps between mainstream and marginalized children and the proliferation of an analysis of social injustice that manifests in schools" (p.5). Social justice leadership must become central to the educational leadership preparation (Bates 2006; Bell-McKenzie & Scheurich, 2004; Blackmore, 2002; Brown, 2004; Cambron-Cambron-McCabe& McCarthy, 2005; Rapp, 2002; and Theoharris, 2007).

Advocates of school leadership for social justice have indicated that educational leadership models draw to heavily from theories of scientific management which disadvantage children attending schools in urban communities (Lopez, 2003; Lugg, 2003a, Marshall, 2004 and Marshall & Oliva, 2006). The application of business leadership models, which focus on outcomes, also hinders those who answer the call to lead for social justice as they are often stifled in their attempt to develop and implement practices and programs that are socially just by bureaucratic policies that perpetuate social injustice (Hess & Kelly, 2005; Marshall, 2004; and Tyson, 2003). Scheurich and Skrla (2003) argued that although outcome measures like standardized test scores, may appear to be rooted in the principles of scientific management, these scores when properly used by educational leaders can promote the educational success of all children. Hence, they have conducted research which illustrates how conducting equity audits by exploring standardized test scores can be utilized to promote educational equity.

Role of Educational Leadership Preparation Programs in Developing Social Justice Leaders

The Educational Administration Quarterly published a special issue of its journal in 2004 which focused on equity concerns titled "Social Justice Challenges to Educational Administration." The authors who appeared in the issue agreed that "traditional training for educational leadership reflects a culture that has marginalized issues and concerns of social justice" (p.4). Marshall (2004) contended that there was "tendency for educational administration to avoid the examination of social justice concerns" (p.10). For example, research on the achievement gap has failed to identify the role that racism plays in the educational failure of children of color. The absence of such a dialogue does not occur arbitrarily (Grogan, 2002).

Shields (2004) called for the setting of an agenda in educational administration preparation to address the lack of social justice concerns infused in the curricula. Further, Shields (2004) noted that although some preparation programs may focus on equity concerns, most programs only take token stabs at social justice issues. Providing direction regarding how such an agenda can help increase the educational success of students of color, Shields (2004) suggested a framework that encourages educational leaders a) to become transformative leaders, b) to acknowledge the centrality of relationships and c) to facilitate moral dialogue.

Transformative leaders develop school communities that focus on the terminal value of promoting justice. Acknowledging the centrality of relationships

reminds educational leaders that "pedagogy is forged with and not for students" (Shields, 2004, p.115). In facilitating moral dialogue, leaders use conversations as interventions. Actualizing this framework requires educational leaders to overcome 'pathologies of silence', to acknowledge ethnicity, to recognize class, and to become inclusive (Shields, 2004).

Bates (2006) argued that "social justice is central to the pursuit of education and therefore should also be central to the practice of educational leadership" preparation (p. 153). Answering the call for the development of such a program, Lalas and Morgan (2006) provided a detailed explanation of their endeavor to create a doctoral program focused on educational leadership and justice at the University of Redlands in California. After a report by the California State University System revealed that there was a shortage of educational leaders with doctoral degrees in California as compared to rest of the nation, Lalas and Morgan (2006) conducted a needs assessment, which involved focus groups with state leaders, substantiating the need for a social justice educational leadership degree.

According to Lalas and Morgan (2006), comments from educational stakeholders, practicing school leaders and alumni encouraged the development of the degree program. The report, the needs assessment, and consensus from the community represented the three sources of data faculty members relied upon to guide curriculum planning and course development, which led to the fusion of equity and justice concerns into the course content.

Similarly, Bell-McKenzie et al.. (2008) provided a framework for educational leadership preparation programs that focus on the preparation of leaders who operate from a social justice framework. Faculty members engaged in curriculum planning and developed courses that fused issues of justice into course content. To ensure that faculty members were qualified to teach social justice educational leadership classes, partnerships were formed with school districts to host summer training workshops on social justice.

Noting that preparing students for social justice leadership is "messy and complex" Bell-Mckenzie et al.. (2008) argued that faculty members must be attuned to issues related to educational injustice as well as the implications that social justice places on educational leadership preparation.   To guide the process, Bell-McKenzie et al.. (2008) issued a "proposal for faculty members who dare to engage in such work (p.114). The proposal argued that graduates of educational leadership programs should be able to bolster student achievement, prepare students to become critical thinkers and actors who challenge social inequality and develop inclusive schools that offer all students equal access to challenging curriculum.   To achieve these goals, components of an educational leadership program must include selection, knowledge content and induction (Bell-McKenzie et al., 2008).

Regarding selection, Bell-McKenzie recommended (2008) that educational leadership program selection committees accept students who are sensitive to social justice concerns. Sensitivity to social justice concerns can be assessed by

requiring participation in activities that allow selection committees to evaluate a

candidate's commitment to social justice, discussing assumptions regarding

school leadership during the interview/admissions process, and performing off-

site observations of applicants' teaching/leadership style.

The knowledge and content component of an educational leadership

program should develop students' critical consciousness, prepare students to

coach school personnel into becoming social justice leaders, and teaching

students to create inclusive schools (Bell-McKenzie et al.. (2008).

Induction refers to the two to five year period following a candidate's

graduation from an educational leadership preparation program. Bell-McKenzie

contended that during this critical period, leadership preparation programs

provide continuing professional development in the area of social justice to

graduates.

Social Justice Leadership Knowledge Base: What Should Social Justice Leaders Know?

Knowledge Base refers to "what an administrator has knowledge

or understanding of" (CCSSO, 1996, p.10). The National Council for the

Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) defines knowledge as

empirical research, disciplined inquiry, informed theory and the wisdom of

practice which undergird" the practice of educational leadership preparation

(NCATE, 2006, p.54). As social justice educational leadership becomes a highly

studied topic in educational research, scholars have sought to develop a theory

of social justice leadership to guide the actions of school leaders and leadership

preparation programs alike.

Theoharis (2007) examined seven educational leaders who employed a social justice leadership approach. From this research, a three-pronged framework of resistance emerged, which included the following:

- The resistance principals enact against historic marginalization of particular students.

- The resistance principals face as a result of their social justice agenda.

- The resistance they develop to sustain their social justice agenda in the face of resistance.

Findings from this research have salient implications for educational leadership preparation programs, as the participants revealed that administration preparation programs do not address issues related to educational injustice. Thus, Theoharis (2007) concluded that educational leadership programs must be reorganized in order to develop students' capacity to enact resistance.

Caper et al.. (2006) reviewed over 70 articles and book chapters from educational journals including Educational *Administration Quarterly* and the *Journal of School Leadership*, in addition to literature published by the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), to identify a framework for Social Justice Educational leadership. From this analysis, a framework emerged that included three vertical and horizontal domains. The vertical domains were critical consciousness, knowledge, and practical skills; the horizontal domains

were curriculum, pedagogy and assessment. Critical consciousness refers to curriculum that "raises student awareness about power, privilege and associated issues" (p.204). Knowledge is characterized as information and theories that related to school leadership and skills refers to the methods students learn to advocate for children from marginalized populations (e.g. the ability to lead dialogue about race and racism and to reexamine iconoclastic beliefs).

Regarding the horizontal domains, curriculum refers to the content of leadership programs, pedagogy refers to how the curriculum is delivered and assessment refers to how the critical consciousness, knowledge and skills of students are assessed.

Social Justice Leadership Skills: What Should Social Justice Leaders Do?

In educational literature, skills refer to one's "ability to use professional knowledge effectively and readily in diverse educational settings in a manner that ensures that all students are learning" (NCATE, 2006, p. 56). More broadly, CCSSO (1996) defines skills as "processes and activities the administrator can facilitate" p.10). In an effort to connect social justice educational leadership theory to the practice, several scholars have identified what skill sets are necessary for leaders who operate from a social justice framework.

Karpinski (2006) wrote that "social justice provides not only a lens to recognize inequities but also a perspective to encourage action for greater equity in public school effectiveness" (p.40). Those who answer the call to lead for social justice do so with a full measure of devotion. McKenizi et al.. (2008)

contended that leaders for social justice are defined by three goals: a) raising academic achievement of all students in their school; b) preparing students to live as critical citizens in society and to use their intellection to challenge societal injustices, and c) creating inclusive schools where students learn in heterogeneous classrooms. These goals can be achieved by identifying equity traps and conducting equity audits (Scheurich & Skrla, 2003).

Theoharis (2004) researched seven principals who operated from a social justice framework to gain an understanding of how they enacted social justice in their schools. His findings indicated that these principals promoted social justice by a) encouraging staff participation in professional development activities that focused on equity; b) encouraging teachers to insert issues regarding race, social responsibility, and social change into the curriculum; c) boldly addressing issues of race and racism; and d) creating operating procedures that advanced social justice and were democratic.

In a qualitative study, Theoharris (2008) sought to understand how social justice leadership is enacted in urban educational settings. Theoharris's study identified examples of social justice leaders, investigated what motivated leaders to adopt a social justice leadership stance, and identified common disposition traits shared by the leaders who participated. The findings revealed that 7 of the leaders who served as principals in urban schools had three common leadership traits: arrogant humility, passionate leadership and tenacious commitment to social justice. Arrogant humility is a paradoxical blend of arrogance (the

headstrong belief that one is correct, knows what is needed, and is the
necessary leader to achieve that vision) and humility (willingness to question
one's own leadership effectiveness (p.13).

Karpinski (2004) conducted case study research on a new principal
operating from a social justice perspective. Karpinksi's qualitative study revealed
how one school principal identified patterns of inequity with respect to student
assignment, scheduling, and placement in music and arts programs. The study
also examined how the school leader observed and responded to the strain
caused by changes in student demographics and the differences in academic
and testing performance among marginalized groups.

Although Karpinski (2004) provided no details on how the principal
resolved these issues within her school, a list of questions and suggested
activities that school leaders could engage in to devise a social justice leadership
plan that diminished or eliminated issues of educational injustice was included in
this research. These questions focused on the extent to which leaders are
responsible for the maintenance and destruction of academic inequity, and the
activities focused on critical reflection exercises that forced leaders to develop
proposals and plans to address inequities.

Alsbury and Whitaker (2006) conducted a four-year qualitative study of
superintendents sponsored by the University Council for Educational
Administration (UCEA) to gain an understanding of how superintendents made
meaning of school improvement, accountability and democratic decision making

in the context of social justice. Alsbury and Whitakerr's study revealed that school superintendents held conflicting views about the NCLBA. In one regard, superintendents noted that NCLBA motivated school personnel to pursue academic excellence. Conversely, participants criticized the act for its over-reliance on high-stakes testing as a measurement of academic success. Regarding democratic decision making, superintendents acknowledged the importance of eliciting community and stakeholder input but neglected to mention the salience of staff input in the decision-making process.

The superintendents in Alsbury and Whitaker's study (2006) defined social justice as doing what is best for students. One theme that consistently emerged was the notion that school boards and principals often engaged in "turf" wars and often disagreed on what was best for the students they served. These superintendents agreed that accountability could jeopardize social justice pursuits, and that shared decision making could impair social justice as some stakeholders often advanced their personal agendas without regard for the broader context of creating socially just schools. Thus, Alsbury and Whitaker (2006) concluded that more expanded definitions of social justice were necessary and that these definitions should focus attention on the local applications of social justice that inform policy and research agendas as well as the democratic decision-making processes for those who are attempting to actualize social justice.

**Social Justice Leadership Dispositions: What Should Social Justice
Leaders Value and Be Committed To?**

NCATE (2006) defined dispositions as "the values, commitments, and professional ethics that influence behaviors toward students, families, colleagues, and communities and affect student learning, motivation, and development as well as the educator's own professional growth" (p.53). CCSSO (1996) refers to a disposition as "what an administrator values, believes in, and is committed to" (p.10). Common among both of these definitions is the notion of value-based action.

When the ISSLC Standards were developed in 1996, they were articulated in terms of knowledge, skills, and dispositions. However, with the 2008 revision of the ISSLC standards, dispositions were omitted. Educational leadership is a value-based endeavor. Moreover, social justice leadership is a moral enterprise; therefore, examining and acknowledging the importance of dispositions as a component of leadership should not be avoided.

Educational leaders operating from a Social Justice Leadership Framework are disposed to value the contributions for all children regardless of race, class, gender, ability or sexuality. Thus, Social Justice Educational Leaders are committed to advocating for children, families, and communities from the aforementioned populations (Stovall, 2004).   This advocacy would include ensuring that safe spaces and resources are provided for students who are lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgendered [LGBT] (Lugg, 2003), culturally

relevant curricula and pedagogy is utilized (Rusch, 2004), the home languages and cultures of students are respected (Wiley &Wright, 2004), issues of gender inequity are addressed (Sadker, Sadker & Zittleman, 2009), and the contributions of exceptional children are valued (Sapon-Shevin, 2003).

Critical Race Theory

Since claims of colorblindness and race neutrality dominate the literature on educational leadership preparation, CRT can be used as a theoretical framework allowing researchers to critically examine "how institutionalized theories, norms, and practices in schools and society lead to social, political, economic and educational inequities" (p.17). Furthermore, a vital component of CRT is social justice advocacy. As such, educational leadership preparation programs with social justice aims can be informed by CRT.

CRT emerged from Critical Legal Studies (CLS). An outgrowth of the Civil Rights Movement, CLS was developed in the 1970s by legal scholars to analyze the ways in which the legal system benefited wealthy and privileged members of society. Derrick Bell, Lani Guinier, Patrcia Williams, Richard Delgado, Kimberle Crenshaw and Alan Freeman argued that despite the critical lens it employed, CLS focused too squarely on issues of class ignoring the racial dimensions of law by regarding the legal system as a race-neutral practice (Crenshaw, Gotanda, Peller, &Thomas, 1995). Rejecting the claim of race neutrality, pioneering CRT scholars sought to develop a race-based theory to explain and expose the racial components of the legal system and in the larger society (Tate,

1997). Thus, to ensure that race and racism would be placed at the center of subsequent critiques regarding American society, Critical Race Theory was developed.

Matsuda, Lawrence, Delgado and Crenshaw (1993) noted six tenets that characterize the critical race framework. First, CRT scholars regard racism as a normal part of American life. Second, CRT rejects claims of colorblindness, race neutrality, and meritocracy. Third, CRT posits that racism is responsible for group advantage and disadvantage (Matsuda, et al.., 1993). The fourth tenet of CRT involves the use of narratives and storytelling in recounting the lived experiences of people of color with respect to analyzing law and society.   The fifth feature of CRT is the use of an interdisciplinary approach to explore the impact of racism and other forms of discrimination (Solórzano, 1998). The final component of CRT is its focus on the eradication of racial oppression (Solórzano, 1998, p.6).

Although CRT has its roots in legal studies, it has expanded to additional academic fields, including education. Solórzano (1997) posited that CRT can be appropriately applied to field of education because it is "a framework, or set of basic principles, methods, and pedagogy that seek to identify, analyze ,and transform the structural and cultural aspects of society that maintain the subordination and marginalization of people of color" (p.6). Thus, as a framework, CRT can facilitate the exploration of the racial injustice that occurs in American schools (Ladson-Billings, 1998; Ladson- Billings, 1999).

CRT first made its appearance in the field of education in the early 1990's when Tate (1994) published an article credited as the first application of CRT to the field of education.   In this foundational article, published in Urban Education, Tate introduced CRT as a plausible framework from which to view education inequality based on race and racism.   Shortly thereafter, Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995) provided the conceptual backdrop for CRT as a theoretical framework in the field of education.   In their landmark article, Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995) asserted that racism is an "under-theorized topic in education." After the publication of this groundbreaking article, scholars like Lopez, (2003), Lynn and Adams, (2002), and Solórzano (1997) began to apply CRT to their research. Since that time, CRT scholars have used this framework to understand the how racism and other forms of oppression impact public education in the areas of desegregation, school funding, bilingual education, special education, curriculum, pedagogy, diversity of teaching and school leadership staff, and access to educational opportunity (Lynn, 2006; Lynn, Benigno, Williams, Park and Mitchell, 2006; Powers, 2007).

Solórzano (1988) and Yosso (2005) have adapted the five tenets of CRT to the field of education: (1) the centrality of race and racism, (2) the challenge of dominant claims of race-neutrality, meritocracy, and colorblindness, (3) the commitment to social justice, (4) the validation of the lived experience of marginalized groups, and (5) the use of interdisciplinary approaches.

First, and foremost, CRT regards racism as endemic to American society, and acknowledges the permanence of race and racism (Ladson-Billings, 1998; Solórzano, 1998). As an educational theory, CRT also allows for the exploration of how race intersects with other forms of oppression such as class, gender, sexuality, religion, immigration status, and language in educational theory and practice.

Second, CRT challenges the dominant claims of objectivity; neutrality, meritocracy, color-blindness and equal opportunity which are prevalent in educational literature and seeks to expose the manner in which such claims conceal the power and privilege of dominant groups (Solórzano, 1998). CRT disputes the idea that US public schools are colorblind institutions in which students achieve academically based on their own merit by "examining how educational theory, policy, and practice are used to subordinate certain racial and ethnic groups" (Solórzano, 1988, p.122).

Third, CRT is unapologetically committed to social justice and therefore seeks to disrupt systems of oppression by connecting educational research, policy, theory and practice to goal of eliminating racism in the academic and other institutions in the society (Solórzano, 1998). While used as a method to produce social inequality, to the CRT scholar education becomes a vehicle in which to facilitate social change.

Validating the experiences of marginalized groups, (i.e. those who have not traditionally experienced academic excellence), is the fourth tenet in the CRT

framework. CRT scholars validate these experiences by conducting research and using storytelling to describe how oppressed populations regard and understand their experiences. While this experiential knowledge is often ignored in mainstream academia, CRT scholars regard such knowledge as legitimate and extremely critical in understanding and analyzing racial inequality in the field of education (Solórzano, 1998). As Beaugoeuf-Lafontant and Augustine (1996) clarify, "when minority students speak for themselves, what emerges is an examination of their schooling experiences deeply contextualized by the histories, power dynamics, and systemic injustices that affect these people both outside the classroom and within its walls" (p.1).

Finally, instead of viewing the academic achievement of non-white groups in a fragmented manner, CRT scholars have called for trans-disciplinary approaches that frame the contemporary educational experiences of culturally diverse groups in a historical context. Thus, perspectives from African-America studies, Latino Studies, Asian-American Studies, gender studies, history, law, philosophy, and sociology are sought to enhance understanding of the effects of racism in United States educational environments (Solórzano, 1998).

Summary

Chapter Two summarized what researchers and authors have written about the current state of educational leadership preparation. This review of the literature offered a conceptualization of social justice leadership, discussed the necessity of social justice leadership in light of current population shifts, critical race theory, and detailed the role that leadership preparation programs play in developing leaders for social justice.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Chapter Three describes the study's research design. In addition, a rationale for a qualitative design, the role of the researcher, instrumentation, interview procedures, data collection, and data analysis will be provided in this description.

As substantiated by the literature review, although marginalized children are the fastest-growing population in public schools educational leadership programs have continued to prepare their graduates to lead in heterogeneous schools and school districts. This study sought to determine student and faculty perceptions of the degree to which Mid-Atlantic University's doctoral program in urban educational leadership program advanced a social justice agenda in the preparation of leaders.

To fulfill its purpose, this study reviewed how the instructional materials and practices influenced students to utilize a social justice leadership style. To this end, instructors and students were asked to examine their personal beliefs about the curriculum and pedagogical techniques in preparing students to adopt a social justice leadership practice. Faculty members were asked to examine the extent to which course assignments, research projects, classroom discussions, and internship experiences provide students with knowledge, skills, and dispositions rooted in social justice educational leadership. Additionally, program

documents were analyzed to identify if and how the theoretical constructs related to social justice are introduced in classroom assignments and discussions.

Rationale for Qualitative Research Approach

This study's research questions focused on uncovering the extent to which the program prepares its graduates to address issues of social inequity and adopt a leadership praxis rooted in social justice. These questions necessitated a qualitative research design.

According to Creswell (1998), qualitative research is utilized:

1) when the research questions starts with a how or what so that initial forays into the topic describe what is going on;

2) when a topic under investigation needs to be explored because variables cannot be easily identified and theories need to be developed;

3) when there is a need for a detailed view of the topic;

4) when there is a need to study individuals in their natural setting, and;

5) when you want to emphasize the researcher's role as an active learner who can tell the story from participants point of view rather than as an "expert" who passes judgment on participants (p. 17-18).

<center>**Research Design**</center>

To answer the research questions, a qualitative methodology employing a case study design was selected. Strauss & Corbin (1990) defined qualitative research as "any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification" (p. 17). Comparatively

speaking, "quantitative researchers exam data to identify causal relationships, to make predictions or to generalize findings, while qualitative researchers search for more detailed explanations regarding a phenomenon that may be tough to express solely in quantitative terms" (Hoepfl, 1997, p. 49).

Creswell (2007) identified five approaches, among many, utilized to conduct qualitative research. These approaches include ethnography, phenomenology, grounded theory, narrative inquiry and case study research (Creswell, 2007). Case study research was the approach best suited for this research design. A case study is an examination of a specific phenomenon such as a program, an event, a process, an institution or a social group (Merriam, 1998, p.9). In this study, a single urban educational leadership program at a Historically Black College and University (HBCU) was the focus of investigation. Thus, this program constituted the case.

Case study research is most appropriate when a researcher seeks to explore an issue through one or more cases within a bounded system (Creswell, 1998). Case study designs allow researchers to gain an intimate understanding of a phenomenon and its meaning to those involved in its natural setting (Creswell, 2007).

The Role of the Researcher

Denzin & Lincoln (2000) postulate that alongside the qualitative research methodology "stands the personal biography of the researcher who speaks from a particular class, gender, cultural and ethnic community perspective" (p.18). As

a woman of African descent, my life intersects with both issues of race and gender. Holding membership in these two historically oppressed groups has undoubtedly shaped my personal and professional ideology. Moreover, my experience has also fueled my desire to seek the fair and equitable treatment of all oppressed groups. Thus, in all of my personal and professional endeavors, I have positioned myself as an advocate for underserved and traditionally ignored populations. This personal quest for social change is in alignment with what Fine (1994) defines as activist research. Defining this concept, Fine (1994) writes that "some researchers fix themselves self-consciously as participatory activist; their work seeks to disrupt, and transform existing ideological and institutional arrangements" (p. 17).

As a critical race theorist, who intentionally seeks to engage in activist research, I realized that this may contribute to researcher bias thereby calling into question my objectivity. In an effort to illustrate the trustworthiness of my data, I took a cue from Lincoln & Guba (1985) who indicated that a researcher can "provide an audit trail consisting of: 1) raw data; 2) analysis notes; 3) reconstruction products; 4) process notes; 5) personal notes; and 6) preliminary and developmental information (p. 320).

Patton (2002) indicates that, in qualitative research, the researcher is the prime "instrument of data collection" (Patton, 2002, p. 51). Continuing in this vein, Patton (2002) implores qualitative researchers to ensure that their data are

"credible, trustworthy, authentic, and balanced about the phenomenon under investigation and fair to the people in the study" (p.51).

Population and Sample

The population for this study was comprised of approximately 34 recent graduates from Mid-Atlantic University's doctoral program in urban educational leadership between the 2004-2009 academic years. The sample, however, was comprised of 8 graduates of the program.

In qualitative research, "sample size is entirely a matter of judgment" (Gall et al., 2003, p.18). Purposive sampling was utilized to determine the sample for this study. Qualitative research, according to Creswell (1994) is premised on the idea that the informants who are best able to answer the posed research questions must be purposefully selected (p.148).

Description of the Case

Mid-Atlantic University was the pseudonym for the selected case. This pseudonym was created to protect the anonymity of the institution under review. The Mid-Atlantic University, a HBCU, is a public institution, located in a Mid-Atlantic state which was initially established in the late 1860s, as a private male seminary college. Later, the institution became a state teacher's college. The college continued to operate as a private institution until it was acquired by the state in the late 1940s. The acquisition was an attempt to offer more educational options for African Americans. In the early 1960s, the institution transitioned

from a state teacher's college to a liberal arts institution. In the mid-1970s the institution was designated as a university.

The campus is located in a residential neighborhood in a Mid-Atlantic state. The institution is a member of The Middle States Commission on Higher Education and its state accreditation system and currently enrolls over 8,000 students. Presently, the University offers 41 baccalaureate degree programs, 35 master's degree programs, and 15 doctoral degree programs.

The doctorate in education (EdD) in urban educational leadership is Mid-Atlantic University's oldest doctoral program. The objective of the EdD in Urban Educational Leadership is to prepare its graduates to lead in urban school systems and in other educational agencies as administrators, planners, researchers, and analysts (Morgan State University, 2006-2009).

Mid-Atlantic University has been charged, by the state, with the specific task of responding to the needs of the surrounding urban community and therefore offers uniqueness as a data source. It is for this reason that this institution was selected as a case for study.

Data Collection Methods

The research design relied upon two prime data collection methods: interviews and document analysis within a case study framework. Case study research is an "examination of a specific phenomenon such as a program, an event, a person, a process, an institution or a social group" (Merriam, 1988, p.9).

Interviews

Patton (1990) identifies three types of interviews: 1) informal interviews; 2) semi-structured interviews; and 3) standardized open-ended interviews. Semi-structured face-to-face interviews were the chief data collection method used to gather data for this study. The semi-structured interview was selected because the format allows the researcher to pose a number of pre-determined questions and following up with open-ended probing questions to gather in-depth information regarding the topic under review (Gall, et al..., 2003).

Semi-structured interviewing "makes data collection somewhat systematic for each respondent" (Patton, 1990, p.288). While a guided format is necessary in semi-structured interviewing, this approach does not prohibit the researcher from posing other probing, clarifying questions in a better attempt to understand the phenomenon under review (Best & Kahn, 2003).

Eleven face-to-face interviews were conducted. Eight of the interviewees were recent graduates from Mid-Atlantic University and three of the research participants were faculty members at the same institution. Each interview lasted for a period of 60 minutes and was tape-recorded to ensure accuracy. While Lincoln & Guba (1985) regard the tape recorder as intrusive, Patton (1990) considers the recording device as "indispensable" (p. 348). In this study, the tape-recorder proved to be an invaluable tool as it allowed the researcher the opportunity to capture participant responses verbatim.

Two interview guides (Appendix D and Appendix E) were developed, which contained open-ended questions, to ensure a methodical interview process while maintaining a natural and conversational flow.

The interview guide is a "list of questions that the interviewer wants to explore during each interview (Hoepfl, 1997, p.52). This guide essentially ensures that the same information is collected from all subjects (Hoepfl, 1997). Thus, two interview guides were developed. The first interview guide, (Appendix D), was developed containing nine open-ended questions to facilitate a conversation regarding the extent to which graduates of Mid-Atlantic University's program in educational leadership were encouraged to adopt a social justice leadership praxis. In addition, an interview guide (Appendix E) was created to examine the extent to which professors encouraged graduates to examine and develop of social justice leadership praxis.

Stewart and Shamdasani (1990) remarked that the interview guide should emerge from the study's research questions. The interview guide approach mandates that the issues to be discussed should be outlined so as to ensure that data collection is systematic (Patton, 1990). While this approach encourages structure, it also allows the researcher some degree of flexibility to probe and maintain a conversational, informal approach (Patton, 1990).

A pilot study was conducted to assess the content and clarity of interview questions and was critiqued by an expert on diversity.

Preparation for Data Collection

Data collection occurred in two phases. Phase One involved preparation. To prepare for data collection, a pilot study was conducted with three doctoral students studying educational leadership from an area University, and two professors teaching in the same program.   The pilot study was conducted to ensure the clarity of interview questions and to determine how much time should be allotted to conduct the interviews. Through detailed discussion it was determined that two of the 8 questions were not easily comprehendible and therefore had to be modified.

The second phase involved organizing the data. This process involved the creation of excel tables to prepare for the manual coding process (Creswell, 2005).

Interview Scheduling

A list of 30 students who graduated from the urban educational leadership program between 2004 and 2009, and seven faculty members who taught core program courses was retrieved from the Program Coordinator. Students and faculty members appearing on this list were e-mailed an invitation letter to participate in this study.

The letters, (Appendix A and Appendix B), indicated that participation in the study was voluntary and described the aim of the research as well as confidentiality procedures. Regarding the alumni, eight individuals indicated a desire to participate, three respondents indicated that they were not interested in

participating, eleven of the e-mail addresses were invalid and the balance of the e-mails requesting participation received no reply.   Four faculty members indicated a desire to participate in this study and the remaining three did not respond to the e-mail. Several follow-up phone calls, which received no response, were placed to these faculty members to verify their receipt of the invitation letter.

Each of the individuals who responded in the affirmative also provided telephone contact information and preferred e-mail addresses. Upon receipt of this information from prospective participants, telephone calls were placed to establish the time, date and location for each interview. Confirmation of interview scheduling was accomplished via e-mail. The interviews were conducted and transcribed over a three month period.

Interview Process

Data were collected through semi-structured, recorded interviews with eight graduates and 3 faculty of the program who administered or completed the doctoral degree in Urban Educational Leadership from Mid-Atlantic University. Interviews were conducted at locations most convenient for participants and included both on campus and off campus locations.

Prior to the start of each interview, a rapport question was used to break the ice. For example, participants were asked to describe their professional experience. Respondents were then informed that their participation in the study was completely voluntary. After receiving the consent of participants, interviews

were tape recorded. Each face-to-face interview lasted for one hour. To protect the anonymity of participants, they were assigned pseudonyms as their answers were transcribed for analysis.

Transcripts were provided to participants allowing them the opportunity to revise or add any information they determined to be imprecise. This is the process of member checking. After participants verified the accuracy of their responses, the audio files were erased.

Document Analysis

The second data collection method involved the gathering of documents relevant to this study.   Document analysis involved the examination of pre-existing documents that are relevant to the research inquiry (Creswell, 1998). Gall et al.. (2003) observed that reviewing other data sources, in qualitative research, works to enhance the validity of findings because they can substantiate data collected from other methods. Examples of documents frequently reviewed in qualitative research include minutes from meetings, reports, planning documents, and journals. For the purpose of this research, the graduate catalog, university website, and the syllabi from core courses archived in the urban educational leadership department were reviewed. The analyses of these documents aided in answering the research questions.

<div align="center">

Data Analysis

</div>

Analyzing qualitative data is a continuous process. To begin the data analysis cycle, all recorded interviews were transcribed. Each interviewee was

assigned a pseudonym.   This transcription produced nearly 110 pages of raw

data.   To ensure accuracy, interview transcripts and interview notes were made

available to the interviewees. This process is referred to as member checking.

Member checking allows the researcher makes the preliminary findings available

to participants to correct misreported information. This serves to ensure

accuracy.

Transcripts were reviewed to identify comparable and contrasting themes

and concepts. Documents analyzed relevant to this study were reviewed to

determine themes and codes. Data gleaned from these documents were then

coded and linked to the data gathered from participant interviews.

Credibility and Trustworthiness versus Validity and Reliability

Qualitative research often involves the observation or study of a

population by one researcher requiring the researcher and the study population

to be in frequent contact (Babbie, 2002). A qualitative research methodology,

therefore, can result in the loss of objectivity on the part of the researcher and

potentially compromise the reliability of the data (Babbie, 2002).

Quantitative researchers seek to establish the probability that findings

from a study sample can be applicable to the targeted population. Thus,

researchers using this methodological approach are heavily concerned with

validity and reliability (Borg & Gall, 1983). Quantitative research methodology is

deeply rooted in the positivistic paradigm, which assumes that researchers are

objective, and disconnected from the research process (Borg & Gall, 1983).

Alternately, qualitative research is grounded in the post-modernist paradigm that is not concerned with researcher objectivity (Creswell, 2007). Qualitative research is premised on the notion that the researcher is the prime instrument of data collection. Proponents of this research framework consider it is impossible to separate the inquirer from the object of inquiry (Creswell, 2007). Therefore, qualitative researchers seek credibility and trustworthiness over validity, reliability.

In qualitative research, credibility and trustworthiness can be achieved by using the following techniques: triangulation, peer review, clarifying researcher bias from the outset and member checking (Creswell, 2007, p207-208).

The techniques used in this study are: triangulation, member checking, and clarification of researcher bias. Triangulation refers to the use of data from multiple sources that increase the trustworthiness of research findings. In this study, interviews and document analysis will be triangulated to uncover complementary and/or competing themes.

Summary

This chapter included a discussion of the research design, identification of the participants included in the sample, and the instrument used for this study. In addition, the procedure the researcher used in conducting the study and the steps taken in the analysis of the data collected were described. The next chapter will discuss the results of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Chapter Four presents an analysis of data from the case study regarding the demographic information for each participant, responses to interview questions and a summary of documents analyzed.

The aim of this study was to investigate how faculty members and alumni of Mid Atlantic University's urban educational leadership program perceived the role of the core curricula in the development of a knowledge base that orientated students toward the utilization of a social justice style of leadership. Additionally, the study explored how alumni and faculty perceived the dispositions graduates developed toward social justice leadership and whether the skills they acquired translated into their adoption of a social justice leadership style.

Data was collected using qualitative case study research procedures guided by the following three research questions:

1. What perceptions do faculty and graduates have of the core curriculum employed by Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership to encourage the utilization of a social justice style of leadership?

2. How do faculty and graduates of Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership perceive the impact of the core curriculum on the development of dispositions toward social justice leadership?

3. In what ways do faculty and graduates perceive the ability of core curriculum used by Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership to provide skills that translate into the adoption of a social justice style of leadership?

Demographic Information

Eight alumni of Mid Atlantic University's Urban Educational Leadership program agreed to be interviewed for this study. These participants provided demographic information including professional title, age, and years of professional work experience, race and gender. Years of graduation were gathered by reviewing Mid Atlantic University's graduation program from 2004-2009. Demographic data is displayed Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic Information for Alumni Participants .

Participant	Age	Professional Title	Years of Experience
Females			
Alumnus 1	34	School Counselor	6
Alumnus 2	38	Principal	7
Alumnus 3	45	Educational Researcher	7
Alumnus 4	37	Science Teacher	9
Alumnus 5	51	Assistant Principal	17
Alumnus 6	53	Special Education Teacher	22
Males			
Alumnus 7	49	Assistant Principal	6
Alumnus 8	52	Principal	17

Table 1 indicates that the sample of alumni was comprised of two men and six women. Participants ranged in age from 36 to 67 and held various positions in the school system in teaching and administration.

Table 2. Demographic Information for Faculty Participants.

Faculty	Age	Gender	Course Taught	Years of Experience
Faculty 1	*61*	Male	Politics of Education	7
Faculty 2	*46*	Female	Economics of Education	4
Faculty 3	*63*	Male	Seminar in Urban Sociology	9

Table 2 indicates that the sample of faculty members was comprised of two males and one female.

Qualitative Data Analysis

Steps to analyzing qualitative data typically involve data organization, data reduction, data coding and data categorization (Creswell, 2005).

Data organization involved transcribing the interviews of eight alumni and three faculty members which produced 110 pages of raw data. Transcripts were reviewed multiple times to ensure familiarity with the data and to develop a sensitivity to emerging codes. Data reduction was accomplished through initial coding and graphic display on spreadsheets of the raw data bits and the codes that were assigned to them. Categorization of the codes based on their relatedness was the next step.   The search for relationships across categories resulted in the emergence of tentative themes. Transcripts were then reviewed

to determine whether or not the themes generated through the process just described could actually be substantiated by the raw data. A comparison of student and faculty responses was undertaken to search for competing or complementary themes.

The next phase of data analysis focused on identifying connections between themes that developed from the interviews and the content of the curriculum documents.

Key Theme

Interviews of alumni and faculty members served as the primary method of data collection. Interview data was supplemented with document analysis to achieve data triangulation.

Participants responded to open-ended questions which required them to reflect on their experiences with the program and its curriculum. Specifically, faculty and alumni were asked to discuss how the information they were exposed to resulted in the development of skill sets and dispositions toward social justice educational leadership.

While study participants shared diverse perspectives regarding their matriculation experiences, many of the responses contained similarities. Strategies faculty used to develop a social justice knowledge base, skill sets, and dispositions in graduates emerged as the overarching theme consistent across all data sources.

Strategies

Class discussions, debates on racial subjugation and addressing oppression and backgrounds were identified as key strategies used to develop a social justice knowledge base.

Varying opinions from both the alumni and faculty were obtained regarding the influence of the program's core curriculum on the examination of the historical and social context in terms of its contribution to the school failure of children from diverse backgrounds. Of the eight alumni who participated in the study, four agreed that the core curriculum had specific provisions that examined the historical and social context of school failure. They were Alumnus 1, Alumnus 2, Alumnus 7 and Alumnus 8. These four participants gave varying responses with some of them ascribing matters of policies while others based their responses on the evaluation processes of the curriculum.

For instance, Alumnus 2 shared that her "courses in research design impressed upon me the importance of program evaluation. For example, the impact of test scores on curriculum design." Alumnus 7 was of the opinion that, "the examination of historical and social context of urban education is not an episodic exercise but one of a chronic nature. The skills sets necessary to examine school failure of children from diverse backgrounds was simply fine-tuned as a result of matriculating in the program at MidAtlantic University."

Those who answered in the affirmative comprised half of the sampled group. On the other hand, two Alumni, Alumnus 3 and Alumnus 4, were

adamant that the core curriculum did not examine student performance in the context of historical or cultural factors. This group felt that there were structural challenges in the core curriculum that discouraged the examination of the aforementioned factors that contribute to urban school failure.

The rest of the Alumni were not strictly specific on either side of the opinion divide. Instead, they adopted a middle ground by arguing that the core curriculum had limited capacity for the examination of social and historical factors. Faculty responses on the same question were all unanimous in the affirmative. They offered different reasons ranging from politics, inequality, race and income. In terms of gender, there was an equal distribution on either side, of the question, which illustrates some ambivalence of opinion among the Alumni. The gender factor did not affect responses among Faculty respondents.

Debate on racial subjugation

Concerning the openness of class discussions around the subject of subjugation of children of color, five Alumni agreed that the topic was often discussed. Two disagreed that the matter was discussed at all.   One alumnus argued that there was little understanding among the students regarding matters of educational injustice.   Based on the high frequency of those who agreed, it is apparent that the matter of race was discussed to some significant degree. However, the same group agreed that race-related issues received some attention but were divided on the frequency of the rate at which such discussions occurred. Alumni 3 and Alumni 5 thought that the matter was actively discussed.

Alumnus 5 and Alumnus 7 opined that the matter was very openly and widely encouraged respectively whereas Alumnus 8 ascribed the demographic make-up of both staff and students as the main reasons why the matter of racial subjugation was discussed. According to Alumnus 6, "The issue was very open by the vast majority of the urban education class participants." The three faculty responses were united on the opinion that the matter under study was highly encouraged. The trend illustrated the same tendency as in the first question where the Alumni were divided on either side of the matter whereas all faculty responses were congruent.

Demographically, all those who argued that the matter of subjugation was not openly discussed were female. One of them was a counselor while the other served as a school principal. The impression created is that the female alumni were more aware of matters of racial inequality than their male counterparts. This pattern is consistent with socio-cultural factors that dispose women to challenges of race and gender more than their male peers (Klein, 2007).

Social Justice Praxis

The study sought to determine faculty and student perceptions of Mid Atlantic University's core curriculum to orient its students towards a social justice praxis of leadership. Responses obtained from Alumni showed that alumni were divided on the issue. Four Alumni argued that the program lacked the capacity to instill the praxis of social justice leadership in its graduates. Those who argued in the negative varied in their responses. Alumnus 1 regarded this issue of the

curriculum deficiency as a structural problem. She proffered that the curriculum

was not designed to suit matters of social justice. Alumnus 2 did not recall any

specific ways in which the program contributed to her development of a social

justice leadership framework. Alumnus 3 could only specify that the program did

not encourage the inclusion of social justice elements whereas Alumnus 4

argued that the nature of social justice received scant attention noting that "There

was only one professor who attempted to challenge students understanding of

social justice. There is a gap in the authentic experiences of the staff."

The other four Alumni (Alumnus 5, Alumnus 6, Alumnus 7 and Alumnus 8)

agreed that there was some considerable level with which the core curriculum

addressed social justice concerns. In the opinion of Alumnus 5, the issue of

social justice was addressed through some deliberate focus on urban education.

The remaining alumni thought that the content of the curriculum reflected some

significant element of social justice. All of the three faculty responses were of the

opinion that the issue of social justice within the core curriculum had received

substantial coverage in both form and substance.

The gender distribution around this question showed that there was nearly

a perfect balance on each side. This means that opinions were not shaped by

gender inclinations. However, there was a clear tendency of respondents within

the ranks of administration to indicate that the program provided them with a

social justice perspective whereas those in the non-administrative positions

offered negative responses regarding the program's social justice focus. On this, the responses were five against three respectively.

Addressing Oppression

Responses were sought regarding the extent to which the curriculum examined the role that oppression plays on the academic achievement of students from marginalized backgrounds. Generally, the majority of Alumni agreed that the matriculation process did not encourage, in any specific way, an examination into the role of oppression on the students' performance. Naturally, their answers were different but united on the overarching opinion that the program did accommodate, on some level, analyses of oppression as it related to urban schooling. Alumnus 1 specified that the curriculum did not have provisions for examining the historical factors of education. In the opinion of Alumnus 2, only one professor made some mention of the matter. Alumnus 4 argued that there was a disconnection between the core curriculum and the real world experiences of educational leaders.

On this matter, divisions arose regarding the degree with which matters of policy could be utilized to inform real world experiences. Only three respondents among the Alumnus argued that there existed some degree by which the core curriculum encouraged the examination of students' racial, ethnic, and linguistic backgrounds as factors of educational success. Among the faculty, two faculty members were of the opinion that the core curriculum encouraged an examination into matters of background with regard to student performance.

Generally, the responses appear to indicate that the core curriculum does not in any direct way, favor the exploration of matters of oppression and background in relation to urban student performance.

Proficiency and skills

This research sought to determine perceptions of the level of proficiency, among the respondents, regarding the acquisition of key skills that prepared them to overcome the challenges of students from marginalized communities, particularly those with disabilities, those from diverse cultural and religious backgrounds and those who speak English as a second language. Of the eight Alumni respondents, five were of the opinion that the coursework did not equip them with sufficient skills to handle these challenges.

The remaining three respondents postulated that there was adequate information in the course materials, which prepared them for the challenge of leading for social justice to address the specific needs of students attending urban schools. Alumnus 1 indicated that the coursework was completely deficient in structure to prepare them for the task of leading students from diverse backgrounds. She suggested that the decision to confront prejudices could only be made at a personal level. Her answer was similar to the response offered by Alumnus 4 who cited the existence of a gap in the curriculum with regard to meeting the needs of marginalized children.

Respondents Alumnus 6, Alumnus 7, and Alumnus 8 agreed that the coursework could provide mental tools to confront these challenges. Faculty

were of the opinion that the coursework was structured in a manner that could help the students cope with the cultural issues in a variety of ways. They added that interaction in the learning environment with peers fostered the development of these same skills in the proper context. Essentially, from the evidence of the responses of the majority, there existed some disconnection between the content of the coursework and its ability to facilitate social justice leadership skills. This disagreement among respondents can in large part be attributed to the fact that the core coursework was never developed to address equity-related concerns.

Equitable outcomes among students

Regarding the program's capacity to equip school leaders to produce equitable outcomes among their students, various responses were obtained among the Alumni. The responses were equally divided with the first group of respondents, Alumnus 1, Alumnus 2, Alumnus 3 and Alumnus 4 theorized that the program did not offer any guarantees on the aspect if equitability in outcomes of students. The remaining Alumni comprising of Alumnus 5, Alumnus 6, Alumnus 7 and Alumnus 8 gave the opinion that the composition of the program's core curriculum could be restructured to include ensuring equitable outcomes for students as a learning objective. Alumnus 6 added "the program itself did not directly address this issue; I sought to read work by diverse authors and experts in the field."

Specifically, Alumnus1 posited that the coursework did not prepare graduates to understand the needs of marginalized children. She added that the

essence of equitability rested with personal decisions of trained leaders to confront their own prejudices. Alumnus 4 maintained that there existed a significant gap in the training of the graduates with regard to the provision of equitable outcomes for urban school children. On the other hand, Alumnus 5 argued that the answer to the matter of creating equity in student outcomes rested within the structure of the training, which allows for the examination of differing teaching styles to address the needs of a diverse student population.

Alumnus 6 and Alumnus 8 argued that exposure and experience provided sufficient leverage for graduates to understand how to address the matter of equitable student outcomes.

Levels of Leadership Confidence

The study sought responses regarding the levels of leadership confidence among the Alumni and faculty members regarding their capacity to lead racially diverse schools and educational institutions as a result of their experience with the core curriculum. The responses offered by the Alumni showed that the majority of Alumni believed they were sufficiently prepared to lead for social justice. With the exception of Alumnus 2, all of the respondents expressed different levels of confidence ranging from prepared to very prepared. However, some of the respondents such as Alumnus 4 and Alumnus 7 cited the strength of pre-existing knowledge of and experience with social justice leadership frameworks before they joined the program as their central anchorage of leading for social justice at the time of graduation. Alumnus 2 maintained that the entire

training program did not impact, in any way, his level of confidence in terms of leading with a social justice stance. Faculty members gave different opinions on the subject agreeing that they did not feel confident in the ability of the alumni to lead with a social justice style of leadership. Faculty member 2 admitted that the matter was complex, admitting that she placed more focus on academic rigor rather than on social justice issues. Faculty member 3 noted that this issue elicited mixed feelings. In his opinion, most students were not interested in social justice concerns since their main focus was on upward mobility. These responses indicate that the vast majority of the alumni felt prepared to lead diverse organizations.

Suggestions for remedy

Responses were sought from the Alumni and Faculty members regarding their opinions on the structural adjustments that could improve the program's ability to produce leaders that operate from a social justice style of leadership. Alumnus 1 thought that the program would be more beneficial if it provided more opportunities for reflection. In her opinion, the inclusion of simulation activities could help in the overall improvement of the structure of the program. Alumni 2 opined that the program could be improved by increasing the integration of social justice issues in core courses. This response appears directed at the structural flaws of the programs that tended to focus more on academic rigor at the expense of social justice issues.

The suggestion offered by Alumnus 4 was that the program should make deliberate efforts to revise admission requirements so that only students with existing social justice awareness are accepted into the program. Alumnus 6 suggested that the provision of hands-on scenarios that address concerns of social justice. Generally, responses obtained from Alumni coalesce around the matter of providing more tools for practical applications and strengthening elements of social justice within the program.

The Alumni responses on this matter are closely synonymous with those offered by the faculty members, two of whom suggested that remedies in the areas of social justice and the inclusion of more instructional materials in the core curriculum. Faculty 2 offered the suggestion that a separate social justice course should be instituted that incorporates social justice issues without compromising academic rigor within the program. Faculty member 3 agreed with Alumni 4, opining that the program should move toward the hiring of members who have a clearly demonstrated social justice stance. Ultimately, both faculty members and alumni were united on the need to revamp the program, particularly in the area of infusing matters of social justice into the curriculum.

Document Analysis

Document analysis is a key feature of qualitative research as it is used to substantiate data collected from other methods. Reviewing documents in case study research is helpful as it can lead to a deeper understanding of the phenomena under review (Creswell, 2005).

The following Mid-Atlantic University documents relevant to this study were analyzed: (1) Graduate School Catalog; (2) Program Website; and (3) Course Syllabi for all the program's 6 required core courses.

Program Website and Graduate Catalog

Upon review, it was determined that the graduate catalog, and program website were identical. For example, in both of the aforementioned documents, the program description and mission were identical. The program mission statement declares "providing an educational experience that will prepare doctoral candidates to assume leadership positions in urban school systems and other educational agencies as administrators and/or planners, researchers of social policy, fiscal officers, development officers, and facilities and operational analysts" as its mission. It was concluded from this analysis that the program does not list social justice as a key priority.

Course descriptions in the Mid Atlantic's graduate catalog were reviewed to determine if social justice themes were emphasized. The course description for the Contemporary Issues in Urban Education class indicated that an "overview of social policy and an emphasis on diversity, access, and student success" were key aims of this course. (MAU Graduate Catalog, 2009, p.277).

The Economics in Education course description highlighted the "examination of state methods of financing, school budgeting procedures and the federal role." The course description for the Politics of Education course cites "enhancing students' understanding of the role of politics" as its main purpose.

Theories and Practices of Urban Educational Leadership is described as a course that "researches theories of classical and contemporary leaders, explores the problems, functions, and duties, style and effectiveness of urban leaders (MAU, p. 283). The Seminar in Urban Sociology focuses "on the process of urbanization" (MAU Graduate Catalog p.156). A description for the Philosophy of Education course could not be located in the graduate catalog.

An analysis of course descriptions found in the graduate catalog illustrate that concerns for social justice or social justice leadership concepts were not expressly emphasized.

Course Syllabi

To determine if a social justice orientation was espoused in the core curriculum, syllabi from the six, required core courses were reviewed. Specifically, syllabi were examined to identify if the course descriptions, required readings, course assignments including concepts of social justice such as gender discrimination, access to educational opportunities, and emerging demographic trends. An excel spreadsheet was created to organize the collected data.

Regarding course descriptions, all of the syllabi described the courses in the same manner as the graduate catalog. All of the professors included course objectives, which in two cases included issues of equity as a key objective. For example, the Contemporary Issues in Education course syllabus listed "examining equity issues limited full participation relative to gender, ethnicity and socio-economic status" as a key objective.

Of the six syllabi examined, two professors did not require textbooks, but rather directed students to internet based journal articles. Of the five textbooks listed, only two, both of which were for the Urban Sociology course, focused on race and urban life. One textbook was from the business field, one from the economics field, and the other was an opinion-based textbook which offered a scathing critique of U.S. education.

Syllabi were reviewed to determine if course assignments encourage students to examine, critically, their personal biases regarding marginalized children and their families. In addition, syllabi were appraised to establish if course readings introduced topics that acknowledged or ignored educational injustice in schools. Analysis of course assignments demonstrated that students were not provided the opportunity to critically interrogate personal biases. Further, analysis of course readings evidenced an attempt to ignore the existence and cause of educational injustice.

Summary

This chapter included a summary of the data collection and analysis process. In addition, a discussion and analysis of the findings were provided. Additionally, four key themes that emerged from the data were identified. The next chapter will discuss conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter Five of this inquiry will present a summary of the study's research design, a discussion of the findings, and recommendations for future research and practice.

This research inquiry examined faculty and alumni perceptions regarding the ability of the core curriculum employed by Mid-Atlantic University's doctoral program in urban educational leadership to implicitly or explicitly espouse a social justice agenda. Specifically, this study focused on how alumni viewed and experienced the social justice aims, or lack thereof, found in the core curriculum.

Summary of the Study

Research on educational leadership confirmed that urban schools are presented with distinctive challenges because they are charged with providing education to large numbers of underprivileged students from diverse racial, linguistic, religious and cultural backgrounds (Lawrence, 2010). Further, population projections indicated that African-American, Latino and Asian student populations are growing at a rate that outpaces that of their white counterparts. Researchers have documented the social justice implications that the aforementioned challenges have for university-based educational leadership preparation programs (Adams et al., 1997; Bogotoch, 2002; Brown, 2006; Dantley, 2002; Dantley and Tilman, 2006; English, 2005; Furman, 2004; Lopez,

2003; Marshall, 2004). In response, researchers have proposed the use of models of social justice leadership in the preparation of pre-service and practicing school administrators (Brown, 2006; Cambron-McCabe& McCarthy, 2005; Goldfard & Griberg, 2002; Marshall, 2004; and Theoharris, 2007) in an effort to prepare them to meet the educational and social needs of diverse student populations. Such models prepare leaders to address the racial gap in academic achievement, school funding, curriculum access, and low teacher expectations (Tilman, et al.., 2006).

The application of social justice themes to educational leadership preparation is a fairly new movement which emerged out of the need to address how oppression continues to perpetuate the educational underachievement of marginalized children (Marshall & Olivia, 2006a). There is a dearth of educational research focusing on how educational leadership faculty and alumni perceive the core curriculum's influence on the acquisition of social justice knowledge, skills, and dispositions. Thus, this study attempted to fill this glaring gap.

A qualitative case study design was utilized to give voice to the participants. Research participants consisted of alumni and faculty members from the program under review. Data collection methods included interviews and document analysis. Interviews elicited open-ended responses and documents were analyzed to aid in answering the research questions which focused on determining how faculty and alumni of Mid-Atlantic University's doctoral program

in urban educational leadership perceived the social justice aims of the core curriculum.

Critical Race Theory (CRT) served as the theoretical anchor for this study. Scholars have applied this framework to research endeavors to evaluate various aspects of the educational process to determine if or how marginalized students are being disadvantaged. Some of the topics of inquiry have included the academic achievement gap (Love, 2007) school funding (Vaught, 2009), tracking/ability grouping (McPherson, 2010), and disciplinary policies (Valles & Miller, 2010).

This theoretical framework was suitable to this study because it 'advocates for the advancement of a social justice agenda and it allows educational leaders to examine how the practices and policies utilized by both K-12 and higher educational institutions contribute to the academic failure of urban students. Within the framework of this study, CRT seeks to disrupt notions of colorblindness, empower educational leadership faculty and alumni to become activists, and campaigns for the use of theoretical and practical methods of which can be used to examine and respond to race, class, and gender disadvantages (Parker & Villalpando, 2007).

Two of the five tenets of CRT were related to this study. These tenets include:

1. challenging claims of race neutrality

2. ensuring that educational theory, practice, and research is connected to the elimination of racism and other social justice concerns.

Findings

Findings from this study contribute to the literature regarding faculty and alumni perceptions regarding the manner in which educational leadership preparation programs prepare leaders for social justice. This research can inform, identify and articulate practices that could advance social justice leadership in urban educational leadership programs.

The analysis of data from this study revealed three major findings consistent across all data sources (i.e. faculty interviews, alumni interviews, and the analysis of data). What follows is a summary of these findings.

Finding 1. Social justice concerns were addressed only in those courses where such issues were directly related to the course content. Reflecting upon their experiences with the core curriculum, students and faculty alike admitted that social justice aims were not infused throughout all core courses.

Data from participant interviews revealed that the program did not address social justice issues in all of the core courses. One alumnus indicated that she was encouraged by one professor, only in one core course, to examine the constructs of social justice educational leadership. Similarly, one faculty member, who taught the Sociology of Education course, commented that he stressed the importance of understanding "issues manifesting in the urban arena, specifically examining how race, education, and income contribute to the quality

of life indicators (i.e. police protection, environment, clean air and noise.")
Conversely, the professor who taught the Economics of Education course
admitted that she purposely avoided examining issues related to educational
achievement race and racism implying her preference of a race-neutral
methodology in educational leadership preparation.

Similar to the data gleaned from participant interviews, the document
analysis illustrated that a recursive strand of social justice themes was noticeably
absent from the core curriculum. However, aspects of social justice appeared in
those classes where the application of such theoretical concepts could be directly
applied to practical knowledge and experience.

This finding substantiates the validity of CRT's challenge of claims of race-
neutrality in education and is consistent with literature on educational leadership
preparation. Capper et al. (2006) noted that there is a tendency on the part of
educational leadership programs to utilize a race-neutral approach to preparing
school leaders. To combat this frequent occurrence, Lynn et al. (2006) suggests
that educational leadership preparation programs begin to deliver curricula using
a CRT framework. CRT, according to Lynn et al. (2006), provides educational
leaders the opportunity to "theorize, examine and challenge the ways in which
race and racism shape schooling structures, practices and discourse" (p.70).
The use of such a framework is becoming increasingly important as CRT
scholars note that "ignoring the historical and contemporary realities of those
from marginalized backgrounds under the guise of color-blindness" has

deleterious effects as it protects and perpetuates white privilege thereby further injuring students of color (Yosso, Parker, Solorzano, & Lynn, 2004).

Finding 2. Students who come to the program with prior knowledge, professional or life experience, or personal interest in or with social justice expressed a more favorable impression of the program's ability to impart a social justice outlook than those students who identified no such experiences. For example, one alumnus shared how her experiences growing up in the segregated south has colored her perspective on life in general and educational leadership in particular. To this alumnus, the pursuit of social justice was a "given." Similarly, another respondent commented that she came to the program with a social justice worldview in place. Reflecting on her experiences with matriculating in core curriculum courses, this alumnus questioned the authenticity of faculty experiences as it related to social justice and urban education. Further, she asserted that the lack of student understanding of and commitment to social justice diminished the quality of classroom discussions surrounding these issues.

An alumnus, currently serving as school counselor, criticized the program for what she considered a lack of exposure to social justice concepts in the core curriculum. She attributed the development of her social justice outlook to her personal commitment, sharing that it was her dissertation research which prompted her to investigate the relationship between educational leadership and social justice.

Data also revealed that Alumni who served in administrative capacities held high opinions of the program's ability to develop leaders for social justice. This, in large part, can be attributed to the fact that those serving in leadership roles were given more opportunities to connect the dots between theoretical concepts and practical applications.

This finding is consistent with McKenzie's et al. (2008) assertion that admitting students to educational leadership programs with pre-existing social justice proclivities is critical to the "development of social justice-oriented program graduates (p.17). When students are selected to attend educational leadership preparation programs that do not have social justice leanings, McKenzie et al. (2008) warns that considerable time and resources would have to be allocated to the raising of student awareness toward social justice.

Finding 3. Although faculty-prepared course syllabi alluded to social justice objectives, there was little evidence to suggest that these issues were explored via curriculum or instruction. The analysis of documents indicated that the program does not explicitly list social justice concerns as key feature of the program.

Conclusions

Conclusions drawn from data analysis are presented below according to each research question.

Research Question 1: What perceptions do faculty and graduates have of the core curriculum employed by Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in

Urban Educational Leadership to provide a knowledge base of social justice educational leadership?

Alumni and faculty agreed that issues of social justice and educational equity were important to the field of urban education. However, both sample groups indicated that the core curriculum utilized by Mid-Altantic University provided limited exposure to theories and concepts of social justice leadership. Alumni that were already familiar with or interested in social justice issues held favorable opinions of the program's ability to develop and nature a social justice knowledge base. In addition, those students serving in leadership roles overwhelmingly identified curriculum experiences which focused on equity issues. Thus, it can be concluded from this research that the program did not produce new knowledge of social justice conceptions of leadership. Rather, it broadened or enhanced pre-existing knowledge.

Research Question 2: In what ways do faculty and graduates perceive the core curriculum used by Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership to provide skills that translate into the adoption of a social justice style of leadership?

Findings regarding this research question indicate that the skills students acquire as a result of their completion of Mid-Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership had no bearing on whether or not they assumed a social justice leadership stance

Research Question 3: How do faculty of Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership perceive the impact of the core curriculum on the development of dispositions toward social justice leadership?

The study concludes that alumni did not develop any social-justice dispositions as a result of their matriculation in Mid-Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership. Alumni who were disposed toward leading for social justice indicated that such dispositions existed prior to their matriculation.

Based on the findings and conclusions from this study, the following recommendations are made**:**

Recommendations for Practice

Approaches to educational leadership that do not advance a social justice agenda aid in the maintenance of educational injustice (English, 2005). The need for such an agenda is increasing important as urban schools are exclusively challenged to meet the educational needs of students who are culturally, economically, racially, linguistically, and spiritually diverse.

By all accounts, students from marginalized backgrounds are rapidly becoming the most dominant group in urban education. This development has major implications for departments of educational leadership.

Literature on educational leadership preparation verifies the importance of curriculum, pedagogy, assessment and faculty influence as it relates to the

development of student interests in social justice leadership (Brown, 2006).

Capper et al. (2006) are confident that the knowledge and skills educational

leaders need to exact social justice is predicated upon the training they receive in

educational leadership programs.

The following recommendations are made with the aforementioned

assertions in mind:

1. Revise the program mission statement naming social justice and

   educational equity as a key theme.

2. Reconstruct course syllabi to include social justice/equity based learning

   outcomes in all core courses.

3. Recruit and select students with a demonstrated commitment to social

   justice leadership.

4. Hire faculty with social justice professional experience and research.

5. Provide educational and field experiences that allow students to develop

   and apply social justice knowledge, skills and dispositions.

Alumni and faculty, alike, who admitted to embracing a social justice

theoretical stance, criticized the program for the admittance of students that

lacked an awareness of and committed to social justice leadership.

Recommendations for Future Research

Alumni who graduated from the Mid-Atlantic University's doctoral program

in Urban Educational Leadership between 2004-2009 academic years were

interviewed. Thus, many of the participants did not take classes from the same

instructors. Conducting future qualitative studies with alumni who matriculated via a cohort model may yield different results.

The Mid-Atlantic University doctoral program urban educational leadership has recently undergone changes as it relates to the dissertation process, qualifying exam, the course titles, and the acquisition of full-time faculty. Future qualitative studies can be conducted to determine if these changes to the program produce different results.

This study utilized a qualitative framework to analyze program documents. It is recommended that future research employ a mixed-methods approach using a content document analysis method. Babbie (2002) defines content document analysis as a methodical process of document analysis that can be quantified to encode messages.

References

Achilles, C. M. (2005). Drama in educational administration: A farce or a morality play? In T. Creighton, S. Harris, & J. C. Coleman (Eds.), Crediting the past, challenging the present, and creating the future (pp. 56-82). Huntsville, TX: National Council of Professors of Educational Administration.

Adams, M. Bell, L.A.& Griffin, P. (eds). (1997) Teaching for diversity and social justice: A sourcebook. New York: Routledge.

Afrik, M. (1993). *The future of African American education: A practitioner's view.* Chicago: Council of Independent Black Institutions.

Alsbury, T. L., & Whitaker, K. S. (2007). Voices of superintendents: Accountability, students, and democratic voice. *Journal of Educational Administration, 45*(2),157-174.

Altenbaugh, R. (2002). *The American people and their education: A social history*. Alexandria, VA: Prentice Hall.

Ani, M. (1994). Yurugu: An African-centered critique of European cultural thought and behavior. Trenton, NJ: Africa World Press.

Apple, M.W. (2009). Is racism in education an accident? Educational Policy, 23(4) 651.

Apple, M.W. (1992). Education, culture and class power. *Educational Theory, 42,* 127-145.

Applied Research Center (2000). Facing the Consequences: An Examination of
Racial Discrimination in US Public Schools. Oakland, CA: Applied
Research Center.

Asante, M. (1992). Afrocentric Curriculum. In Rousmaniere, K. & Abowitz,
K. (1998). *Readings insociocultural studies in education* (pp. 393-
395). New York, The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.

Babbie, E. (2002). *The practice of social research*. Stamford: Wardsworth.

Baker, B. D., Orr, M. T., & Young, M. D. (2007). Academic drift, institutional
production and professional distribution of graduate degrees in
educational administration. *Educational Administration Quarterly,
43* (3), 279-318.

Baker, B., Wolf-Wendel, L., & Twombly, S. (2007). Exploring the faculty
pipeline in educational administration: Evidence from the survey of
earned doctorates, 1999-2000. *Educational Administration
Quarterly, 43*(2), 189-220.

Bates, R. (2006). Public education, social justice and teacher education.
Asia Pacific Journal of Education, Vol. 34 No.3, pp.275-86.

Bell, G. C., Jones, E. B., & Johnson, J. F. (2002). School reform: Equal
expectations on an uneven playing field. *Journal of School Leadership,
12*, 317-336.

Bell-McKexnzie, K., Christman, D.E., Hernandez, F., Fierro, E, Capper, C.A.,
Dantley, M., Gonzalez, M.L., Cambron-McCabe, N. & Scheurich, J.J.

(2008). From the field: Proposal for educating leaders for social justice.

Educational Administration Quarterly, 44 (1), 111-138.

Best, J. W., & Kahn, J. V. (2003). Research in education (9th ed.). Needham

Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Beauboeuf-Lafontant, T. & Augustine, D. Smith, (eds). (1996). Facing *racism in*

education, second edition. Cambridge, MA:Harvard College.

Blackmore, J. (2002). Leadership for socially just schooling: More substance and

less style in high risk, low trust times? *Journal of School Leadership, 12*,

198-222.

Blanchett, W. J. (2006). Disproportionate representation of African Americans in

special education: Acknowledging the role of white privilege and racism.

Educational Researcher, 35(6), 24-28.

Blanchett, W.J., Klingner, J.K., & Harry, B. (2009). The intersection of

race,culture, language and disability: Implications for Urban Education.

Urban Education, 44 (4), 389-409.

Blanchett, W. J., Mumford, V., & Beachum, F. (2005). Urban school failure

and disproportionality in a post-Brown era: Benign neglect of the

constitutional rights of students of color. *Remedial and Special*

Education, *26*(2), 70-81.

Bogdan, R. C. and S. K. Biklen (2007). Qualitative Research for Education:

An Introduction to Theory and Methods. 5th ed. Boston, Pearson.

Bogotch, I. (2002). Educational leadership and social justice: Practice into theory. *Journal of School Leadership, 12*,(2), 138-156.

Bonilla-Silva, E. (2001). *White supremacy and racism in the post-civil rights era.*Boulder, Colorado: Lynne Rienner Publishers.

Borg, W. R., & Gall, M. D. (1983). Educational research. New York: McKay.

Brooks, J. S., & Normore, A. H. (2005). An Aristotelian framework for the development of ethical leadership, Journal of Values and Ethics in Educational Administration, 3(2), 1-8.

Brown, K.M. (2006). Leadership for Social Justice and Equity: Evaluating a Transformative Framework and Andragogy. Educational Administration Quarterly, 42(5), 700-745.

Brown, K. M. (2004). Leadership for social justice and equity: Weaving a transformative framework and pedagogy. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *40*(1), 79-110

Bruner, D. Y. (2008) Aspiring and Practicing Leaders Addressing Issues of and Social Justice. *Race, Ethnicity and Education, 11 (4), 483-500.*

Bussey, L. (2007, April). *A framework for implementing, growing and evaluating social justice leadership preparation programs: An interview study of scholars of social justice*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association Chicago.

Butts, R.F. (1985) Progressive education. In The World Book Encyclopedia, Vol 15 (Chicago:World Book Inc.).

Callahan, R. E. (1962). Education and the cult of efficiency. Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.

Cambron-McCabe, N., & McCarthy, M.M. (2005), "Educating leaders for social justice", Educational Policy, Vol. 19 No.1, pp.201-22

Caper, C. A, Theoharis, G., & Sebastian, J. (2006). Toward a framework for preparing leaders for social justice. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *44*(3), 209-224.

Caruthers, J. H. (1990). The African-centered curriculum and the white supremacy control of African-American education. Lecture/speech given at the Fulton School in Philadelphia.

Castagno, A. (2008). "I don't want to hear that!": Legitimating whiteness through silence in schools. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 39,* 314-333.

Casteel, C.A. (2000) African American students' perceptions of their treatment by Caucasian teachers. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 27, (3), 2-15.

Casteel, C.A. (1998) Teacher-student interactions and race in integrated classrooms. *Journal of Educational Research*, 92, 115-120.

Cooper, C.W. (2009). Performing Cultural Work in Demographically Changing Schools: Implications for Expanding Transformative Leadership Frameworks. Educational Administration Quarterly, 45,

(5), 694-724

Council of Chief State School Officers.(1996). Interstate School Leaders

Licensure Consortium: Standards for School Leaders, State

Education Assessment Center, Washington, D.C.

Crenshaw, K., Gotanda, N., Peller, G., & Thomas, K., (Eds.) (1995). *Critical*

*race theory: The key writings that formed the movement.*New York,

NY: The New Press.

Creswell, J. (2007).Qualitative inquiry & research design: choosing

among five approaches.   Sage: Thousand Oaks, California.

Creswell, J. W. (2005). Educational research: Planning, conducting,

and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research (2nd ed.).

Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.

Creswell, J. (1998). *Qualitative Inquiry and research Design: Choosing*

among five traditions. London: Thousand Oaks.

Creswell, J.W. (1994). Research design: Qualitative and quantitative

approaches. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dantley, M. (2002). Uprooting and replacing positivism, the melting pot,

multiculturalism, and other impotent notions in education leadership

through an African American perspective. Education and Urban

Society, 34, 334-352

Dantley, M.E., & Tillman, L. C. (2006). Social justice and moral

transformative leadership. In C. Marshall, & M. Oliva (Eds.),

Leadership for social justice: Making revolutions in education (pp. 16-30).Boston, MA: Pearson Education

Darling-Hammond, L (2009/2010). America's Commitment to Equity Will Determine Our Future, Phi Delta Kappan, 91(4), 8-14.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2007). The flat earth and education: How America's commitment to equity will determine our future. Educational Researcher, 36(6), 318-334.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2004). From "separate but equal" to "No Child Left Behind": The collision of new standards and old inequalities. In Deborah Meier and George Wood (eds.), Many Children Left Behind. NY: Beacon Press.

Delpit, L. (1995). *Other people's children: Cultural conflict in the classroom.* New York, NY: The New York Press.

Dixson, A., & Rousseau, C. (2005). And we are still not saved: critical race theory in education ten years later. *Race, Ethnicity & Education,* 8 (1), 7-27.

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

Easley, J. (2005). The political tension of education as a public good: The voice of a Martin Luther King Jr. Scholar. Urban Education and Society, 37(4), 1-16.

English, W.F. (2002). On the intractability of the achievement gap in urban schools and the discursive practice of continuing racial discrimination.

Education and Urban Society, 34(3), 298-311.

Evans, A. (2007). School leaders and their sense making about race and demographic change. *Education Administration Quarterly, 43*, 2, 159-188.

Farkas, S., Johnson, J., & Duffett, A. (2003). Rolling up their sleeves. New York: Public Agenda.

Fine, M. (1994). Dis-stance and other stances for feminist researchers. In A.Gitlin (Ed.) Power and Method: Political activism and educational research. (p. 13-35) New York: Routledge.

Fletcher, A. (2005). Meaningful student involvement: Guide to students as partners in school change. Bothell, WA: HumanLinks Foundation.

Flick, U. (1998). An introduction to qualitative research. London, Sage.

Fossey, R., Shoho, A., & Dantley, M. (Guest Eds.) (2006) Educational leadership preparation programs in transition. *Journal of Cases in Educational Leadership*.

Frattura, E.M. &, Topinka, C. (2006). Theoretical underpinnings of separate educational programs: The social justice challenge continues. Education and Urban Society, (38), 327-344.

Fulmer, C. L., Muth, R., & Reiter, K. F. (2004). Design elements for meaningful clinical practice experiences: The core of principal preparation programs. In C. S. Carr & C. L. Fulmer (Eds.), *Educational leadership: Knowing the way, showing the way, going the way* (pp. 190-199). Lanham, MD: Scarecrow Education.

Furman, G.C., & Sheilds, C.M. (2005). How can educational leaders promote and

    support social justice and democratic community in schools? In W.A.

    Firestone & C. Riehl (Eds.), A new agenda for educational leadership

    (pp. 119-137). New York, NY: Teachers College Press

Furman, G. C. (2004). The ethic of community. Journal of Educational

    Administration, 42(2), 215-235

Furman, G.C., Gruenewald, D.A. (2004). Expanding the landscape of

    social justice: A critical ecological analysis", Educational

    Administration Quarterly40 (1), 47-76.

Furman, G. (2003). Moral leadership and the ethic of community. Values and

    Ethics in Educational Administration, Vol. 2, No.1, pp. 1-8.

Gall, M. D., Borg, W. R., & Gall, J. P. (2003). *Educational research: An*

    i*ntroduction* (7th ed.). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Gamoran, A. (1992). Is ability grouping equitable? Educational Leadership,

    50(2), 11-117

Gardnier, M.E., & Enomoto, E.K. (2006). Urban school principals and their

    role as multicultural leaders. Urban Education, 41, 6, 560-584.

Garrity. D. (2004). Detracking with vigilance. School Administrator, 61(7), 24-27.

Goldfarb, K. P., & Grinberg, J. (2002). Leadership for social justice:

    Authentic participation in the case of a community center in

    Caracas, Venezuela. Journal of School Leadership, 12, 157-173.

Grogan, M. (1999). Equity/equality issues of gender, race and class. Educational

Administration Quarterly, 35(4), 518-536.

Grogan, M. (Ed.) (2002), "Leadership for social justice", Journal of School

Leadership, 12(2), p. 226-336.

Grogan, M. (2004). Keeping a critical, postmodern eye on educational

Leadership in the United States: In appreciation of Bill Foster.

Educational Administration Quarterly, 40, 229-239.

Gumbert, E.B. & Spring, J.H. (1974). *The superschool and the superstate:*

American education in the twentieth century, 1918-1979. New York:

John Wiley and Sons.

Guthrie, J. (1990). The evolution of educational management: Eroding

myths and emerging models. In B. Mitchell & L. Cunningham (Eds.),

Educational leadership and changing contexts of families,

communities, and schools: Eighty-ninth Yearbook of the National

Society for the Study of Education (Part II, p. 210–231). Chicago:

University of Chicago Press.

Haberman,M. (2007). Who benefits from failing urban schools?*Theory Into*

Practice,46(3), 179-186.

Haberman, M. (2003). Who benefits from failing urban school districts? An essay

on equity and justice for diverse children in urban poverty. *The Haberman*

Educational Foundation: EducationNews.org.

Haberman, M. (1999). The anti-learning curriculum of urban schools, part 2: The

solution. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*. 35(2), 71-74.

Hall, C. (2004). Social justice challenges to educational administration:

Introduction to a special issue. *Educational Administration Quarterly,*

40, 3-13.

Hess, F. & Kelly, A. (2005). An innovative look, a recalcitrant reality: The politics

of principal preparation reform: Educational Policy, 19, 1, 155-180.

Hilliard, A. G., III. (1999b). What do we need to know now? "Race," identity,

hegemony, and education. Rethinking Schools Online, 14(2). Retrieved

April 28, 2008, from www.rethinkingschools.org

Hilliard, A. G. III. (1998). *SBA: The reawakening of the African mind*. Gainesville,

Florida, Makare Publishing.

Hilliard, A. G. III. (1992). Why We Must Pluralize the Curriculum. In

Rousmaniere, K. & Abowitz, K. (1998). *Readings in sociocultural*

studiesin education (pp. 291-293). New York, The McGraw-Hill

Companies, Inc.

Hodgkinson, H. L. (1999). All one system: A second look. Washington, DC:

Institute for Educational Leadership and National Center for Public

Policy and Higher Education. (ED 440 592).

Hoepfl, M.C. (1997). Choosing qualitative research: A primer for technology education researchers. *Journal of Technology Education*. 9,1, 47-63.

Jackson, B. L., & Kelley, C. (2002). Exceptional and innovative programs in educational leadership. Educational Administration Quarterly, 38(2), 192-212.

Jennings, M. & Lynn, M. (2005). The house that race built: Critical pedagogy, African-American education, and the re-conceptualization of a critical race pedagogy, *Educational Foundations*, *19* (3-4), 15-32.

Karpinski, C.F. & Lugg, C.A. (2006). Social justice and educational administration: mutually exclusive? *Journal of Educational Administration,* 44, 278-292.

Karpinski, C. F. (2004). And the band played on? Social justice and the Wilson Middle School Arts J*ournal of Cases in Educational Leadership* 9, 41-53.

Kozol, J. (1991). Savage inequalities: Children in America's schools. New York: Harper.

Kunjufu, J. (2006). An African centered response to Ruby Payne's poverty theory. Chicago: African American Images.

Kunjufu, J. (2002). Black Students. Middle Class Teachers. Chicago, IL: African American Images.

Kunjufu, J. (1984). *Developing positive self-images and discipline in black children.*Chicago, IL: African American Images.

Ladson-Billings, G. (1999). Preparing teachers for diverse student populations: A critical race theory perspective. *Review of Research in Education*, 24, 211-247.

Ladson-Billings, G. (1998). Just what is critical race theory and what's it doing in a nice field like education? *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education, 11*(1), 7-24.

Ladson-Billings, G. (1994). *The dreamkeepers: Successful teachers of African American children.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Ladson-Billings, G. ,& Tate, W. (1995). Toward a critical race theory of education. Teachers College Record, 97, 47-68.

Lalas, J. & Morgan, R. (2006). Training School Leaders Who Will Promote Educational Justice: What, Why, and How?" Educational Leadership and Administration: Teaching and Program Development, 18, 21-

Lalas, J. & Valle, E. (2007). Social Justice Lenses and Authentic Student Voices: Enhancing Leadership for Educational Justice. Educational Leadership and Administration: Teaching and Program Development, 19, 75-102

Larson, C. L. & Ovando, C. J. (2001). The color of bureaucracy: The politics of equity in multicultural school communities. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Larson, C.L., & Murtadha, K. (2002), "Leadership for social justice", in Murphy, J. (Eds),The Educational Leadership Challenge: Redefining Leadership for the 21st Century. NSSE Yearbook, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, IL, pp.134-61.

Leck, G.M. (2000). Heterosexual or homosexual?: Reconsidering binary narratives on sexual identities in urban schools. Educationa and Urban Society, 32, 324-348.

Lee, C. (1990). How shall we sing our sacred song in a strange land? The dilemma of double consciousness and the complexities of an African-centered pedagogy. *Journal of Education*, *172*, 45-52.

Leithwood, K. & Riehl, C. (2003). What we know about successful school leadership. Philadelphia, PA: Temple University, Laboratory for Student Success.

Levine, A. (2005). Educating school leaders. Washington, DC: *The Education Schools Project.*

Lewis, M. (2008). African American students in K-12 urban education settings. Urban Education, 43, (2) 123-126.

Lewis, C., James, M. & Hancock, S., & Hill-Jackson, V. (2008). Framing African American students' success and failure in urban settings: A typology for change. Urban Education, 43(2), 127-153

Lincoln, Y.S. & Guba, E.G. (1985*). Naturalistic inquiry.*Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Lomotey, K. (1989). Cultural diversity in the urban school: Implications for

   principals. *NASSP Bulletin, 73*(521), 81–85.

Lomotey, K. (1995). Social and cultural influences on schooling: A

   commentary on the UCEA Knowledge Base Project, Domain I.

   E*ducational Administration Quarterly*, 2, (31), 294-303.

Lopez, G. (2003). The (racially neutral) politics of education: A critical

   race theory perspective. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 39*,

   68-94.

Love, B. (2004). Brown plus 50 counter storytelling: A Critical Race Theory

   analysis of the "Majoritarian Achievement Gap" story. *Equity &*

   Excellence in Education, 37, pp. 227-246.

Lugg, C.A. (2003a), "Our straight-laced administrators: LGBT school

   administrators, the law, and the assimilationist imperative", Journal

   of School Leadership, Vol. 13 No.1, pp.51-85.

Lugg, C.A. (2003b), "Sissies, faggots, lezzies and dykes: gender, sexual

   orientation and the new politics of education", Educational

   Administration Quarterly, Vol. 39 No.1, pp.95-134.

Lynn, M. (2006). Race, culture, and the education of African Americans,

   Educational Theory, 56, 1, p107-119.

Lynn, M., & Adams, M. (2002). Introductory overview to the special issue.

   Critical race theory and education: Recent developments in the

   field. *Equity & Excellence in Education, 35*(2), 87-92

Lynn, M., Benigno, G., Williams, A., Park, G.,& Mitchell, C. (2006). Critical

theories of race, class, and gender in urban education. *Encounter:*

Education for Meaning and Social Justice, 19(2), 1-9.

Marshall, C. (2004). Social justice challenges to educational

administration: Introduction to a special issue. Educational

Administration Quarterly, 40, 5-15.

Marshall, C. & Gerstl-Pepin, C. (2005). Reframing educational politics for social

justice. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Marshall, C., & Oliva, O. (2006a). Leadership for social justice: Making

revolutions in education. Boston, MA: Pearson Education

Marshall, C. & Oliva, M. (2006b). Building the capacities of social

justice leaders. In C. Marshall and M. Oliva (Eds.), *Leadership for*

social justice: Making revolutions in education (pp. 1-15). Boston:

Allyn & Bacon.

Marshall, C., & Ward, M. (2004). "Yes, but . . .": Education leaders discuss

social justice. Journal of School Leadership, 14, 530-563.

Matsuda, M., Lawrence, C., Delgado, R., & Crenshaw, K. (Eds.). (1993).

Words that wound: Critical race theory, assaultive speech, and the

first amendment. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.Mars

McCarthy, M. (1999). How are school leaders prepared? Trends and

future direction. *Educational Horizons*, 77(2), 74-81.

McKenzie, K. B., Christman, D. E., Hernandez, F., Fierro, E., Capper, C. A., Dantley, M., et al. (2008). From the field: A proposal for educating leaders for social justice. *Educational AdministrationQuarterly*, *44*, 111-138.

McKenzie, & Scheurich, J.J. (2004). Equity traps: A useful construct for preparing principals to lead schools that are successful with racially diverse students. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 40, 601 –632.*

McPherson, E. (2010). Beyond the Nation's Capital: Minority students' *stumbling on the tracks after Hobson. Education and Urban Society, XX(X) 1–22.*

Merriam, S. (1998). Qualitative research and case study applications in education. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Meyer, L.& Feistritzer, E. (2003). Better leaders for America's Schools: A Manifesto: Washington, DC: Thomas B. Fordham Institute.

Milstein, M. M. (1993). Changing the way we prepare educational leaders: The Danforth experience. Newbury Park, CA: Corwin Press.

Morgan State University. (2006-2009). School of Graduate Studies Catalog. Baltimore, Maryland.

Murphy, J. (2005). Unpacking the foundations of ISSLC standards and addressing concerns in the academic community. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 40(1), 154-191.

Murphy, J. (2003). Reculturing educational leadership. The ISLLC standards ten years out. Paper prepared for the National Policy Board for Educational Administration.

Murphy, J. (1998). Preparation for the School Principalship: The United States' Story. School Leadership & Management. 18, (3), 359-372.

Murphy, J. (1992). The landscape of leadership preparation. Reframing the education of school administrators. Newbury Park, CA: USA. Corwin Press. Newbury

Murray, C. & Clark, R. (1990). Targets of racism, American School Board Journal, 30-39.

Nasaw, D. (1979). Schooled to order: A social history of public schools in the United States. New York: Oxford University Press.

National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration. (1987). *Leaders for America's Schools. The Report of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration.* Tempe, AZ: University Council for Educational Administration.

National Commission of Excellence in Education. (1983). A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform. Washington DC: US Government Printing Office.

National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education [NCATE] (2006). Professional standards for the accreditation of schools, colleges, and departments of education (2006 Edition). Washington, D.C.:

National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

Nieto, S. & Bode, P. (2008). Affirming Diversity: The Sociopolitical context of

multicultural education, 5th ed. Boston/NY: Allyn & Bacon/Longman.

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001, Pub. L. No. 107-110, § 115, Stat.

1425(2002).

Normore, A. H., Rodríguez, L. F., & Wynne, J. (2007). Making all children

winners: *Confronting social justice issues to redeem America's*

soul. Journal of Educational Administration, 45(6), 653-671.

Ogbu, J. U. (2003). Black American students in an affluent suburb: A study

of academic disengagement. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum

Associates.

Ovando, M. N. (2002). School leaders' perceptions of multicultural competencies:

Implications for school leadership. In G. Perreault, & Lunenburg, F. C.

(Eds.) The Changing world of school administration. Lanham, Maryland,

and London: The Scarecrow Education Book, 347-362

Parker, L. (2002). Statewide assessment triggers urban school reform: But how

high the stakes for urban minorities? Education and Urban Society, 33(3),

313-319.

Parker, L., & Stovall, D. O. (2004). Actions following words: Critical race theory

connects to critical pedagogy. Educational Philosophy and Theory, 36(2),

167-182.

Parker, L., & Villalpando, O. (2007). A race(cialized) perspective on

education leadership: Critical race theory in educational administration.

Educational Administration Quarterly, 43(5), 519-524.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). Qualitative evaluation and research methods (2nd ed.).

Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods* (3rd ed.).

Thousand Oaks, CA:Sage.

Payne, R. K. (2001). A framework for understanding poverty. Highlands, TX: aha!

Process.

Payne, R. & Krabill, D. (2002). Hidden rules of class; aha! Process, Inc.,

Highland, TX

Pierce, P. (1935). *The origin and development of the public school principalship.*

Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.

Pounder, D., Reitzug, U., Young, M.D. (2002), "Preparing school leaders for

school improvement, social justice, and community", in Murphy, J.

(Eds),The Educational Leadership Challenge: Redefining Leadership

for the 21st Century, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, IL,

pp.261-268

Porter, M. (1998). Kill them before they grow: The misdiagnosis of African

American boys in America's classrooms. Chicago, IL: African American

Images.

Powers, J.M. (2007). The relevance of critical race theory to educational theory and practice. Journal of the Philosophy of Education, 41(1),151-166.

Rapp, D. (2002). Social justice and the importance of rebellious imaginations. Journal of School Leadership, 12(3), 226-245.

Riehl, C.J. (2000). The principal's role in creating inclusive schools for diverse students: A review of normative, empirical, and critical literature on the practice of educational administration. Review of Educational Research, 70(1), 55-81.

Riehl, C., Larson, C. L., Short, P. M., & Reitzug, U. C. (2000). Reconceptualizing research and scholarship in educational administration: Learning to know, knowing to do, doing to learn. Educational Administration Quarterly, 36(3), 391-427.

Riester, A.F., Pursch, V., Skrla, L. (2002), "Principals for social justice: leaders of school success for children from low-income homes", Journal of School Leadership, Vol. 12 No.3, pp.281-304.

Rusch, E.A. (2008). Unifying messy communities: learning social justice in educational leadership classrooms. Teacher Development, 12 (4), 353-367

Rusch, E. A. (2004). Gender and race in leadership preparation: A constrained discourse. Educational Administration Quarterly, 40(1),16-48.

Rushing,W. (2001). Inequality and education reform: Formulating a macro-historical sociology perspective. Race, Ethnicity and Education, 4, 29-44.

Sadker, D. Sadker, M. & Zittleman, Karen R. (2009). *Still Failing at Fairness: How Gender Bias Cheats Girls and Boys and What We Can Do About It.* New York, New York: Charles Scribner).

Sapon-Shevin, M. (2003). Inclusion: A matter of social justice. Educational Leadership, 61, 25-28.

Scheurich, J., & Skrla, L. (2004). Educational equity and accountability, paradigms, policies and politics, New York, NY: Routledge Falmer.

Scheurich, J., & Skrla, L. (2003). Leadership for equity and excellence: Creating high achievement classrooms, schools, and districts. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Scheurich, J. (2002). Anti-Racist Scholarship: An advocacy. New York: SUNY Press.

Schwandt, T. (1997). *Qualitative inquiry: A dictionary of terms*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Sensoy, O. & DiAngelo, R. (2009). Developing social justice literacy: An open letter to our faculty colleagues. The Journal for Education. Phi Delta Kappan.   90(5), 345-352.

Shgestha, L.B. (2006). The changing demographic profile of the United States. *Congressional Research Survey,* Library of Congress*.*

Shujaa, M.J. (1994). *Too much schooling, too little education.* Trenton, NJ: African World Press.

Shields, C. M. (2004). Dialogic leadership for social justice: Overcoming pathologies of silence. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 40*, 109-132.

Shields, C., Larocque, L., & Oberg, S. (2002). A dialogue about race and ethnicity in education: Struggling to understand issues in cross-cultural leadership. *Journal of School Leadership*, *12*(2), 116-137.

Shoho, A. (Ed.). (2006). Preparing leaders for social justice [Special issue]. Journal of Educational Administration, 44(3).

Shoho, A., Merchant, B.M., Lugg, C.A. (2005), "Social justice: seeking a common language", in English, F. (Eds),The Sage Handbook of Educational Leadership, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA, pp.47-67.

Skrla, L., & Scheurich, J. (2001). Displacing deficit thinking in school district leadership. *Education and Urban Society, 33(*3), 235-259.

Skrla, L., Scheurich, J. J., Garcia, J., & Nolly, G. (2004). Equity audits: A practical leadership tool for developing equitable and excellent schools. Educational Administration Quarterly, 40, 135-163

Smitherman, G. (2000). *Talkin that talk: Language, culture, and education In African america.* Routledge: New York.

Stovall, D. (2005). A challenge to traditional theory: Critical Race Theory, African-American community organizers and education. Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education, 26 (1), 95 - 108

Stovall, D. (2004) School leader as negotiator: Critical race theory, praxis and the creation of productive space. <u>Multicultural Education</u>, 12 (2), 8-12.

Solomon, R. P. (2002). School leaders and antiracism: Overcoming pedagogical and political obstacles. *Journal of School Leadership, 12*, 174-197.

Solorzano, D. (1997). Images and words that wound: Critical race theory, racial stereotyping, and teacher education. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 24*, 5-19.

Solorzano, D. (1998). Critical race theory, racial and gender microaggressions, and the experiences of Chicana and Chicano scholars. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education, 11*(121-136).

Solorzano, D., & Ornelas, A. (2002). A critical race analysis of advanced placement classes: A case of educational inequity. *Journal of Latinos and   Education, 1*(4), 215-229.

Solorzano, D., & Yosso, T. (2002). Critical race methodology: Counter storytelling as an analytical framework. *Qualitative Inquiry, 8*(1), 23-44.

Stake, R.E. (2000). Case studies. In Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.) Handbook of Qualitative Research, 2nd Edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Stewart, D.W., & Shamdasani, P.N. (1990). Focus groups: Theory and
practice. London: Sage.

Tarca, K.(2005).*Colorblind in control: The risks of resisting difference
amid demographic change*. Educational Studies, 38(2), 99–120.

Tate, W. (1994). From inner city to ivory tower: Does my voice matter in
the academy? *Urban Education*, 29. 245-269.

Tate, W. (1997). Critical race Theory and Education: History, Theory
and Implications. *Review of Research in Education* 22, 195-247.

Theoharis, G. (2007). Social justice educational leaders and resistance:
Toward a theory of social justice leadership. *Educational
Administration Quarterly.* 40, 2, 221-258.

Theoharis, G.(*2008*).Woven in deeply: Identity and leadership of urban
social justice principals. Education and Urban Society, 41: 3-24**.**

Thompson, A. (1998). Not the color purple: Black feminist lessons for
educational caring. Harvard Educational Review, 68, 522–554.

Tillman, L., Brown, K., Campbell-Jones, F., & Gonzalez, M. L. (2006).
Transformative teaching for social justice in educational leadership
[Special issue]. Journal of School Leadership, 16(2).

Tillman, L.C. (2002), "The impact of diversity in educational
administration", in Perreault, G., Lunenburg, F. (Eds),*The Changing
World of School Administration*, Scarecrow Press, Lanham, MD,
pp.144-56.

Tyack, D., & Hansot, E. (1982). Managers of virtue: Public school leadership
in America, 1820–1980. New York: Basic Book.

Tyson, K. (2003). Notes from the back of the room: Problem and paradoxes in
the schooling of young black students. *Sociology of Education, 76*, 326-
343.

Valencia, R. R. (Ed.). (1997). *The evolution of deficit thinking: Educational
thought and practice.* London: The Falmer Press.

*Valles, B.; Miller, D.M. (2010).How Leadership and Discipline Policies Color
School-Community Relationships: A Critical Race Theory Analysis,
Journal of School. Public Relations, 31, 4, 319-341.*

*Vaught, S. (2009). The color of money: School funding and the commodification
of Black children. Urban Education In press.*

Vaught, S. & Castagno, A. (2008). "I don't think I'm a racist": Critical race theory,
teacher attitudes, and structural racism. Race, Ethnicity, and Education 11
(2) pp. 95-113.

Webb, L., Metha, A., & Jordan, K. (2003). Foundations of American Education.
Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice

Wiley, T.G., & Wright, W. (2004). Against the undertow: Language Minority
education and politics in the age of accountability. *Educational Policy
18*(1), 142- 168.

Williamson, J. A., Rhodes, L., & Dunson, M. (2007). *A selected history of social
justice in education.* Review of Research in Education, (31), 195-224.

Wilson, W. J. (1973). *Power, race, and racism: Race relations in theoretical And sociohistorical perspectives.* New York: The Free Press.

*W*inbush, R.A. (2001). *The warrior method: A parent's guide to rearing healthy black boys.* New York: Harper Collins.

Yosso, T.J. (2005). "Whose Culture has Capital? A Critical Race Theory Discussion of Community Cultural Wealth." *Race Ethnicity and Education*, *8*(1), 69-91.

Yosso, T., Parker, L., Solorzano, D. & Lynn, M. (2004). From Jim Crow to Affirmative Action and Back Again: A Critical Race Discussion of Racialized Rationales to Affirmative Action. Review of Research in Education, 28, 1-25.

Yosso, T. J., Lynn, M., Solorzano, D. G., & Parker, L. (Eds*.). (*2002*).* Critical race theory and education: Qualitative research in the new millennium [Special Issue]. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 8(1)

Young, M. D., & Brooks, J. (2008). Supporting graduate students of color. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44 (3), 391-423.

Young, M.D., & Creighton, T. (2002). Who is framing the national conversation on educational leadership? *Leadership and Policy in Schools, 141* (3), 222-241.

Young, M. D., & Laible, J. (2000). White racism, anti-racism, and school leadership preparation. *Journal of School Leadership, 10* (5) 374-415.

Appendix A

Recruitment Letter (Alumni)

Dear (Student Name):

My name is Nilajah M. Nyasuma. I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Advanced Studies, Leadership and Policy at Morgan State University. I am conducting a research study titled "*The Influence of an Urban Educational Leadership Doctoral Program On The Social Justice Leadership Knowledge, Skills, And Dispositions Of Its Graduates: A Case Study"* as part of the requirements of my degree in Urban Educational Leadership.

The purpose of this study is to determine how or if Morgan State University's Urban Educational Leadership influences the social justice knowledge, skill, and dispositions of its graduates. This research is necessary because a review of the literature reveals that educational leadership preparation programs provide only a cursory examination of the impact of social inequities on school leadership.

You are being invited to take part in this research study because of your affiliation with Morgan State University's Doctoral Program in Educational Leadership. If you agree to participate, you will be asked to meet with me for an interview about your matriculation at Morgan State University. In particular, you we will discuss how your matriculation and the curriculum at Morgan State University prepared you to adopt social justice praxis of leadership

The meeting will take place at a venue of your choice and should last about 60 minutes. With your consent, the interview will be audio taped so that I can accurately record what we discussed. The tapes will only be reviewed by me. They will then be destroyed.

Your participation will be kept strictly confidential. The results of the study may be published or presented at professional meetings, but your identity will not be revealed. Taking part in the study is purely voluntary. Thus, you may discontinue your participation in this study at any time or decide not to answer any question you are not comfortable answering without any detriment.

I will be happy to answer any questions you have about the study. You may contact me at (202) 577-8558 or via e-mail at NINYA1@mymail.morgan.edu or, Warren C. Hayman, my faculty advisor at (443) 885-1984 or via e-mail at bcps@comcast.net. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research, you can contact Morgan State University's Institutional Review Board Administrator at 443-885-3447.

I certainly hope that you will consent to an interview with me. Please let me know what days and times you are available. Attached you will find the participant information sheet and a list of questions which will posed during our interview.

Thank you for your consideration. I look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

Nilajah Nyasuma

Appendix B

Recruitment Letter (Faculty)

Dear (Faculty Member Name):

My name is Nilajah M. Nyasuma. I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Advanced Studies, Leadership and Policy at Morgan State University. I am conducting a research study titled "*The Influence Of An Urban Educational Leadership Doctoral Program on The Social Justice Leadership Knowledge, Skills, And Dispositions of Its Graduates: A Case Study"* as part of the requirements of my degree in Urban Educational Leadership.

The purpose of this study is to determine if Morgan State University's Urban Educational Leadership program prepares its graduates to become leaders who advocate for children from marginalized communities. . Additionally, its purpose is to study the extent to which students are encouraged to examine how social inequality impacts the field of educational leadership. This research is necessary because a review of the literature reveals that educational leadership preparation programs provide only a cursory examination of the impact of social inequities on school leadership.

You are being invited to take part in this research study because of your affiliation with Morgan State University's Doctoral Program in Educational Leadership. If you agree to participate, you will be asked to meet with me for an interview about your experience as a faculty member at Morgan State University. In particular, you we will discuss how your method of instruction and the curriculum at Morgan State University has prepared its graduates to adopt a social justice praxis of leadership

The meeting will take place at a venue of your choice and should last about 60 minutes. With your consent, the interview will be audio taped so that I can accurately record what we discussed. The tapes will only be reviewed by me. They will then be destroyed.

Your participation will be kept strictly confidential. The results of the study may be published or presented at professional meetings, but your identity will not be revealed. Taking part in the study is purely voluntary. Thus, you may discontinue your participation in this study at any time or decide not to answer any question you are not comfortable answering without any detriment.

I will be happy to answer any questions you have about the study. You may contact me at (202) 577-8558 or via e-mail at NINYA1@mymail.morgan.edu or, Warren C. Hayman, my faculty advisor at (443) 885-1984 or via e-mail at bcps@comcast.net. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant

in this research, you can contact Morgan State University's Institutional Review Board Administrator at 443-885-3447.

I certainly hope that you will consent to an interview with me. Please let me know what days and times you are available. Attached you will find the participant information sheet and a list of questions which will posed during our interview.

Thank you for your consideration. I look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

Nilajah Nyasuma

Appendix C

Consent Form (Alumni)

You are invited to participate in a study regarding the Urban Educational Leadership program at Morgan State University. I hope to learn how your completion of the doctoral program has influenced your social justice leadership knowledge, skills, and dispositions. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a recent graduate of the program.

If you decide to participate, we will conduct an interview that should take approximately 60 minutes. Participation is on a purely voluntary basis. You will be asked to answer questions regarding your experiences as a student in Morgan State University's Urban Educational Leadership Program with an emphasis on how the curriculum influenced your leadership style.

There are not any risks associated with your participation. With respect to benefits, this study will offer you the opportunity to assess your educational experience while pursuing your EdD in Urban Educational Leadership program at Morgan State University. Particular emphasis will be placed on the curriculum's influence in preparing you to advocate for children who have not traditionally performed well in school.   Thus, the results of this study will provide an understanding as to how effective similar educational leadership preparation program can be in preparing its graduates to become leaders for social justice.

The results of the study will be used in connection with my dissertation, along with professional presentations and publications.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission. Your name will not appear on any documents. Data will be reported with a participant number.

Your decision whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relationship with the Morgan State University. If you decide to participate, you are free to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice. I would like to tape record this interview so as to make sure that I remember accurately all the information you provide. I will keep these tapes in a locked file cabinet and they will only be used by me.

If you have questions, you are free to ask them now. If you have questions later, you may contact me at (202) 577-8558 or via e-mail at NINYA1@mymail.morgan.edu, Dr. Warren C. Hayman, chair of my committee, at

(443) 885.1984, bcps@comcast.net, or Dr. E. Isuk, Institutional Review Board Administrator at (443) 885-3447.

You are making a decision whether or not to participate. Your signature indicates that you have read the information provided above and have decided to participate. You may withdraw at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you may be entitled after signing this form should you choose to discontinue participation in this study.

_____ _____
Signature   Date

_____ _____
Signature of Investigator   Date

Appendix D

Consent Form (Faculty)

You are invited to participate in a study regarding an Urban Educational Leadership program at Morgan State University. I hope to learn, from the perspective of faculty members who are assigned to the program, how or if Morgan State University's Urban Educational Leadership influences the social justice knowledge, skill, and dispositions of its graduates. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you taught at least one course in the program between 2004 and 2009.

If you decide to participate, we will conduct an interview that should take approximately 60 minutes. Participation is on a purely voluntary basis. You will be asked to answer questions regarding the instructional practices you employ and how those practices influenced the social justice leadership knowledge base, skill set and dispositions of graduates.

There are not any risks associated with your participation. With respect to benefits, this study will offer you the opportunity to assess the instructional methods you employed while teaching courses in Morgan State University's Urban Educational Leadership program. Particular emphasis will be placed on the influence of the curriculum in preparing graduates to become leaders for a social justice. Thus, the results of this study will provide an understanding as to how effective similar educational leadership preparation program can be in preparing its graduates leaders that address social injustice in schools.

The results of the study will be used in connection with my dissertation, along with professional presentations and publications.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission. Your name will not appear on any documents. Data will be reported with a participant number.

Your decision whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relationship with the Morgan State University.

If you decide to participate, you are free to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice. I would like to tape record this interview so as to make sure that I remember accurately all the information you provide. I will keep these tapes in a locked file cabinet and they will only be used by me.

If you have questions, you are free to ask them now. If you have questions later, you may contact me at (202) 577-8558, NINYA1@mymail.morgan.edu, Dr.

Warren C. Hayman, chair of my committee, at (443) 885.1984,
bcps@comcast.net, or Dr. E. Isuk, Institutional Review Board Administrator at
(443)885-3447.

You are making a decision whether or not to participate. Your signature indicates
that you have read the information provided above and have decided to
participate. You may withdraw at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to
which you may be entitled after signing this form should you choose to
discontinue participation in this study.

_____ _____
Signature   Date

_____ _____
Signature of Investigator   Date

Appendix E

Interview Guide (Alumni)

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to determine the extent to which the doctoral

program in Urban Educational Leadership explicitly or implicitly espouses a

social justice agenda in the preparation of leaders. Additionally, its purpose is to

study the extent to which the program succeeds in advancing such an agenda.

Interview Process

In this interview, you will be asked questions regarding your experiences

pertaining to school inequities and how the curriculum at Mid-Atlantic University

prepared you to address these injustices in education.   You may choose to

respond or not respond at any point during this interview.   This interview will be

audio-taped so that it can be transcribed for data analysis and will take

approximately 45-60 minutes.

Benefits of the Study

This study will offer you the opportunity to assess your educational experience

while pursuing your EdD in Urban Educational Leadership program at Mid-

Atlantic University. Particular emphasis will be placed on the curriculum's

efficacy in preparing leaders for a social justice leadership praxis.   Thus, the

results of this study will provide an understanding as to how effective similar

educational leadership preparation program can be in preparing its graduates to address racial injustice in schools.

Confidentiality

To protect your anonymity, you will be asked to select a pseudonym and therefore _will not_ be identified by name on any tapes or in any transcripts. Also, any school or organizational names that you mention will be replaced with generic names. You (and only you) will be provided a copy of the tape and transcript of your

Interview Guide (Alumni)

Questions

Knowledge

1. During classroom discussions, how openly were issues related to the subjugation of children of color discussed?

2. In what ways did this program familiarize you with and or encourage you to adopt a social justice leadership style?

3. How did the coursework instill in you a knowledge base that prepared you to address the needs of students with disabilities, from diverse religious and cultural backgrounds, and/or who speak English as a second language?

4. How did the program's core curriculum encourage you to examine the historical and social context that contributes to the school failure of children from diverse backgrounds?

5. How were you encouraged, during your matriculation, to analyze the role that oppression plays on the academic achievement of students from marginalized backgrounds?

Skills

6. How did this program train you to regard your role in the production of equitable outcomes for students from marginalized backgrounds?

Dispositions

7. At the time of graduation, how confident were you in your ability to lead racially diverse schools/educational organizations?

Feedback

8. What could the program have done differently to prepare you to deal with social justice in schools?

Appendix F

Interview Guide (Faculty)

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to determine the extent to which the doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership explicitly or implicitly espouses a social justice agenda in the preparation of leaders. Additionally, its purpose is to study the extent to which the program succeeds in advancing such an agenda.

Interview Process

In this interview, you will be asked questions regarding how the curriculum at Mid-Atlantic University and your method of instruction prepares its graduates to address social inequities in education. You may choose to respond or not respond at any point during this interview. This interview will be audio-taped so that it can be transcribed for data analysis and will take approximately 45-60 minutes.

Benefits of the Study

This study will offer you the opportunity to assess the instructional methods you employ as a faculty member at Mid-Atlantic University. Particular emphasis will be placed on the curriculum's efficacy in preparing leaders for a social justice leadership praxis. Thus, the results of this study will provide an understanding as to how effective this, and similar, educational leadership preparation program can be in preparing its graduates to address racial injustice in schools.

Confidentiality

To protect your anonymity, you will be asked to select a pseudonym and therefore *will not* be identified by name on any tapes or in any transcripts. Also, any school or organizational names that you mention will be replaced with generic names. You (and only you) will be provided a copy of the tape and transcript of your interview.

Interview Guide (Faculty)

Questions

Knowledge

1. How does your instruction prepare students to address issues of race, gender, disabilities and cultural diversity in urban school settings?

2. In what ways does the program's core curriculum encourage an examination of the historical and social context that contributes to the school failure of children from diverse backgrounds?

3. How openly do you encourage students to discuss issues related to educational inequities in classroom discussions?

4. In what ways does this program's curriculum familiarize and/or encourage its graduates to adopt a social justice leadership style?

5. How does the program's coursework prepare graduates to address the racial disparity in the educational achievement of children of color?

6. In what ways are students encouraged to analyze the role that structural inequality plays on the academic achievement of children from marginalized backgrounds?

7. How does the coursework instill in graduates a set of knowledge, skills, and abilities that prepare them to address the needs of students:
   - with disabilities;
   - from diverse cultural and religious backgrounds; and
   - who speak English as a second language?

Skills

8. How does this program train its graduates to regard their role in the production of equitable outcomes for all students?

Dispositions

9. When students graduate, how confident are you in their ability to lead racially diverse schools/educational organizations?

Feedback
10. What things could the program do differently to prepare graduates to deal with structural inequality in schools?

Figure 2. Content Analysis of Interview Guide for Alumni

Area of Research	Research Questions	Interview Questions	Description of Data to be obtained
Area One: Deals with the how the program's curriculum contributes to the social knowledge base of graduates. It seeks information that helps to answer the first research question.	Research Question 1: What perceptions do alumni have of the core curriculum employed by Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership to encourage the utilization of a social justice style of leadership?	1-7	1. Data will indicate the alumni perceptions of the program's influence on their adoption (or lack thereof) of a social justice leadership knowledge base.
Area Two: Focuses on how the program's curriculum contributes to the social justice dispositions graduates. It seeks information that helps to answer the second research question.	Research Question 2: How do faculty and graduates of Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership perceive the impact of the core curriculum on the development of dispositions toward social justice leadership?	9	2. Data will indicate the alumni perceptions of the program's contribution to the adoption (or lack thereof) of a social justice leadership dispositions.
Area Three: Deals with the how the program's curriculum contributes to the acquisition of social justice leadership dispositions of graduates. It seeks information that helps answer the third research question.	Research Question 3: In what ways do faculty and graduates perceive the ability of core curriculum used by Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership to provide skills that translate into the adoption of a social justice style of leadership?	8	3. Data will identify how alumni regard the role of the program's contribution to the development (or lack thereof) of a social justice leadership skills.

Figure 3. Content Analysis of Interview Guide for Faculty

Area of Research	Research Questions	Interview Questions	Description of Data to be obtained
Area One: Deals with the how the program's curriculum contributes to the social knowledge base of graduates. It seeks information that helps to answer the first research question.	Research Question 1: What perceptions do faculty have of the core curriculum employed by Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership to encourage the utilization of a social justice style of leadership?	1,2,3,4,5	1. Data will indicate the faculty perceptions of the program's influence on the adoption (or lack thereof) of a social justice leadership knowledge base by alumni.
Area Two: Deals with the how the program's curriculum contributes to the social justice dispositions graduates. It seeks information that helps to answer the second research question.	Research Question 2: How do faculty of Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership perceive the impact of the core curriculum on the development of dispositions toward social justice leadership?	7	2. Data will indicate the faculty perceptions of the program's contribution to the adoption (or lack thereof) of a social justice leadership dispositions among alumni.
Area Three: Deals with the how the program's curriculum contributes to the acquisition of social justice leadership skills of graduates. It seeks information that helps answer the third research question.	Research Question 3: In what ways do faculty perceive the ability of core curriculum used by Mid Atlantic University's doctoral program in Urban Educational Leadership to provide skills that translate into the adoption of a social justice style of leadership?	6	3. Data will identify how faculty members regard the role of the program's contribution to the development (or lack thereof) of a social justice leadership skills of alumni.

Figure 4.Document Analysis Guide

Document Analysis Guide

Graduate Catalog

Do course descriptions emphasize equity concerns?

Does the program's description list social justice as a key priority?

Program Website

Is social justice as a leadership framework mentioned as a critical aim of the program?

Course Syllabi

Do course readings introduce topics that acknowledge or ignore educational inequality in schools?

Do course assignments encourage students to critically examine personal biases regarding marginalized children and communities?

Figure 5. Critical Race Theory Application

Critical Race Theoretical Tenet	Subgroup Questions	Data Source
Tenet One: Asserts that racism is responsible for group advantage and disadvantage in education.	How does core course curriculum identify and analyze the historical and current ways in which race and racism contribute to the academic underachievement of children of color?	Program Mission Statement Program Website University Graduate Catalog Course Syllabi
Tenet Two: Challenges dominant claims of race neutrality, meritocracy and equal opportunity in education.	How does the core course curriculum advance the notion that educational success is achieved through merit? How are students encouraged to critically examination theories of colorblindness, meritocracy and equal opportunity in education?	Course Assignments Course Readings
Tenet Three: Ensures that educational theory, practice and research are connected to the elimination of racism and other social justice concerns.	In what ways are students trained to pursue a leadership stance that involves advocacy for marginalized students? How are students encouraged to produce research that addresses social justice concerns in education?	Course Assignments Student Reflections
Tenet Four: Validates the experiences of people of color in education through storytelling.	How are students encouraged to utilize qualitative research to generate and share knowledge that interprets the narratives of children of color regarding their educational experiences?	Course Assignments Research Projects
Tenet Five: Acknowledges the importance of using trans-disciplinary perspectives in education.	Are students encouraged to apply knowledge from sociological, political, legal, historical and other fields to analyze the historic and contemporary role of oppression in creating educational inequality?	Program Mission Statement Program Website University Graduate Catalog Course Syllabi

Figure 6. Document Analysis: Contemporary Issues in Urban Education Syllabus

Contemporary Issue *in* Urban Education

This course is designed to improve the student's understanding and working knowledge of contemporary urban education issues through the structured analysis of social and economic trends, key political developments, and emerging demographic projections. Emphasis will be placed on the effects of these issues on the planning, development and implementation of contemporary local, state and national public education policy. Required.

OBJECTIVES

- Recognize authors and contemporary issues in education.
- Trace the purposes of education in America.
- Identify charges made against America's schools and myths believed about American schools.
- Examine control in America schools.
- Examine equity issues limiting full participation relative to gender, ethnicity, SES.
- Describe social events and environments impacting students, teachers, and parents.
- Investigate gender issues in education and how schools typically respond to inequity.

SOCIAL JUSTICE TARGETS

Focuses on:

- Emerging demographic projections.
- How gender, ethnicity and socio-economic status limits access to educational opportunities.

ASSIGNMENTS

- Four (4) three-page Critical Analyses.
- One 8-to-10-page Critical Analysis of a book for the course.
- One Field-Report Interview of Professional Expert in issue-specific-area.
- Two (2) or more Group Presentations (Text Analysis by Chapter +Contemporary Issue).

COURSE READINGS

Gross, Martin L., (1999) . The Conspiracy of Ignorance: The Failure of American Public Schools, HarperCollins Publishers, 1999.

Figure 7. Document Analysis: Education Economics and Finance Syllabus

Education Economics *&* Finance

This course is designed to help students understand education finance in a capitalistic society. The course will capture classic microeconomic theory as a backdrop to understand how public schools are financed and why education may be important in our society. Topics such as revenues, expenditures, costs and affordability will be addressed. education.

OBJECTIVES

- Students will be expected to demonstrate their comprehension of course materials as well as their ability to apply their knowledge in practical ways.

- Students will be expected to give oral presentations on the economics of education at the end of the semester.

SOCIAL JUSTICE TARGETS

None.

(Does not emphasize or mention an attempt to understand the effects of poverty on school finance formula/ equitable school funding).

COURSE READINGS

Microeconomics in Context, Neva Goodwin, Julie Nelson, Frank Ackerman, Thomas Weisskopf, (IL: Houghton Mifflin 2(05)

ASSIGNMENTS

Quizzes, as well as a Midterm, will be given to make sure students are grasping economic theory.

Figure 8. Document Analysis: Philosophy of Education Syllabus

Philosophy *of* Education

The main topic of this course is the question "what is education." The focus is, then, is not on the various "philosophies" of education or rather theories but on the attempt to come to an understanding of what education IS, i.e. its essence, namely that which all educational processes must entail in order to be education.

OBJECTIVES

Students will gain an understanding of the introductory elements of education, ontological dimension and consequences of education.

SOCIAL JUSTICE TARGETS

None

(Does not specify an introduction to educational philosophies rooted in social justice or equity).

COURSE READINGS

No required textbook, various readings provided by instructor.

ASSIGNMENTS

Several papers in essay form and class discussions.

Figure 9. Document Analysis: Politics in Education Syllabus

Politics *in* Education

An analysis of the distributions of political power in the urban community and its institutions and how these distributions affect educational policy is the primary focus of this course. Particular emphasis is placed on organizational cultures, process and procedures that influence internal and external constituencies of schools. The impact of values on political, administration/planning, and social policy decisions will be explored.

OBJECTIVES

- To discuss and analyze the nature of politics as it applies to all levels of education, K-12 as well as higher and postsecondary education.
- To increase students' knowledge and identification of organizational structures, power structures, power brokers, advocacy (political action groups, aka pressure and interest groups), political elites, political strategies and tactics.
- To assure that students increase their knowledge, skills and application of politics in addressing a range of policy issues and decisions at all levels of education.
- To increase students' knowledge, skills and abilities in using the political process in education and higher education to assure power sharing among all constituent groups, as appropriate.

SOCIAL JUSTICE TARGETS

Increasing student knowledge, skills and abilities in using the political process in education and higher education to assure power sharing among all constituent groups is an implied social justice emphasis.

ASSIGNMENTS

Each week of the course, students were required to use local and national media (particularly newspapers and magazines) to identify articles or scenarios that deal with educational politics. Specifically, K-12 students should consult Education Week.

COURSE READINGS

No specific textbooks required for this combined course.

Figure 10. Document Analysis: Seminar in Urban Sociology Syllabus

Seminar *in* Urban Sociology

This course presents a critical perspective from which to examine the city in relationship to ecological organization, technological change, planning practices, Political economy and Sociological Theory.

OBJECTIVES

- An opportunity to compare and contrast the major sociological perspectiveson the study of the city.
- An opportunity to specifically understand the political economy of the development and growth/change of cities in America.
- An opportunity to compare and contrast various Social problems and issues associated with cities.

SOCIAL JUSTICE TARGETS

Focuses on the impact of the urban environment on the educational process is an implied social justice target.

COURSE READINGS

Kleniewski, Nancy. (2005). Cities, Change, And Conflict. A Political Economy of Urban Life. Belmont, CA. Wadsworth.

Patillo, Mary. (2007). Blacks on the Block: The Politics of Race and Class in 2007. The City. Chicago. University of Chicago Press.

ASSIGNMENTS

Three Urban Analysis Responses

- Each response/analysis 5-8 pages in length requires students to conduct personal field observations and response to unit material.
- Observations could include meetings, presentations, interviews, or personal thoughts/revelations.
- Student presentation on selected readings.

Figure 11. Document Analysis: Theory and Practice of Educational Leadership

Theory & Practice of Urban Educational Leadership

This course is an exploration of the nature and theories of leadership, both classical and contemporary. Various types of urban leaders will be identified and discussed in terms of their style and effectiveness. Problems of urban leaders will be explored as well as their functions and duties. Readings intended to explore the perceived competence of urban leaders will be required.

OBJECTIVES

- Understand and apply theories of leadership
- Develop an increased understanding of the problems confronting leaders
- Utilize leadership skills in planning, decision making and problem solving.
- Understand the need for effective leaders in urban education.
- Discuss the meaning of the term "urban" in relationship to educational leadership

SOCIAL JUSTICE TARGETS

None

(Course does not introduce theories of educational leadership focusing on equity, diversity and social justice).

COURSE READINGS

Kouzes, James and Posner, Barry. The Leadership Challenge (Third Edition). Jossey Bass Publishers (2002).

ASSIGNMENTS

- Compile a personal portfolio that includes all the written work, class project and class reports. Electronic portfolios are preferred.

- Make a class presentation on a chapter from one of the required or supplementary textbooks.

- Participate in a special project designed to highlight the importance of multicultural celebrations. The project will analyze the leadership implication of each of the following
  – African American History Month
  – Women's History Month
  – Asian American History Month