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Community Leaders' Perceptions of Their Leadership Behaviors and Practices Used to Influence K-12 Public Education: A Q Methodology Study

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Community Leaders' Perceptions of Their Leadership Behaviors and Practices Used to

Influence K-12 Public Education: A Q Methodology Study

by

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Abstract

This Q methodology study focused on the perspectives of diverse community leaders concerning how their perceptions of leadership behaviors and practices were used to influence K-12 public education. The leaders' perspectives were identified, described, analyzed, and compared with others who shared similar views through the use of Q methodology. Through purposeful and snowball sampling, a diverse group of community leader participants first responded to an open-ended questionnaire, inviting them to provide the leadership behaviors and practices they use to influence K-12 public education. This process of concourse development resulted in a total of 263 statements. These statements were then systematically reduced to 42 statements to be used in the Q sample, or research instrument. The Q sample represented the broad perspectives of the opinion domain and specifically addressed the content of the research question: *How do community leaders perceive that their leadership behaviors and practices are used to influence K-12 public education*? In the second stage of this Q methodology study, 45 community leader participants sorted these 42 statements to best reflect how they believed they most influenced public education. Following each sort, participants provided a rationale for their ± 4 statements which were used to further inform the data interpretation.

These 45 Q sorts were then correlated to one another, and these intercorrelations were factor analyzed. Four factors were then rotated and extracted for this study. These four factors were analyzed abductively through examining the holistic placement of statements within their respective factor arrays, the descriptive comments provided following the Q sorts, and the demographic characteristics of the participants who

comprised each factor. As a result of this analysis, the four factors were named: (a) Voice the Story and the Needs of My Underserved Community, (b) Provide Resources, Advocacy, and Grassroots Mobility, (c) Learn About Educational Issues to Lobby and to Serve, and (d) Build Supportive and Personal Relationships with Key School Stakeholders to Stay Informed.

Chapter 1: Introduction

National reforms for K-12 public education have largely focused on the mechanisms of school improvement based on accountability for students and educators and the free-market model offering both public and private school choices (Beal & Hendry, 2012; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Fuhrman, 2001; Fullan, 2011; Ladson-Billings, 2006, 2007; McDonnell, 2009; Ravitch, 2010). Such national reforms have resulted in educational policies, many of which have not been created solely by local, state, and federal governmental officials. Interest groups, such as business coalitions, education service-provider organizations, higher education institutions, foundations, and grassroots organizations, have also projected their own ideologies and interests into the legislative process in an effort to improve student achievement (McDonnell, 2009).

According to Fowler (2013), leaders, especially those who represent businesses and think-tank research organizations, are sought out for advice on K-12 public education content and formulation. On the other hand, grassroots and cultural leaders, who often do not occupy visible positions of leadership in mainstream institutions, are not as frequently sought out for advice and influence on public education policy. These leaders are not established through their elevated economic status or standing or through their formal positions within influential community institutions or organizations, but they serve and exert their influence within their community in other ways. Likewise, these community and cultural leaders are motivated to serve for reasons that seem to be less tied to their individual or affiliated organizations' needs. Rather, these community and cultural leaders more often exert leadership based on their collective sense for social change and common good (Bass & Bass, 2008).

Regardless of the particular type of community leaders, research has often ignored the dynamic relationships these individuals may have with one another and the influence they exert on policy makers in order to impact public education policy and processes. Instead, research tends to examine the policies themselves, the processes involved, and the consequences following implementation. The influencers of K-12 public education are rarely studied, despite the fact that they impact policy agenda, formulation, adoption, and implementation (Fowler, 2013; McDonnell, 2009).

Recognizing this gap in the literature, this study specifically focused on the influencers who are *community leaders*, representing themselves as individuals and/or interest groups to influence K-12 public education (Gilbert, 1972; McDonnell, 2009). Thus, there is a need to study these community leaders' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and practices used to affect K-12 public education policy on local, state, or federal levels. The community leaders are potential influencers of educational policies. It is important to gain understanding into how these community leaders work as individuals exerting transformational or charismatic leadership or as leaders who act in collaboration with others to collectively engage the community about K-12 public education in order to affect policy reform.

Public education policy and policy reforms are enacted at local, state, and national levels. At the local level, school boards and school districts are obligated to follow legislation passed by state lawmakers. One example of this need for compliance with state policy is that local school districts must adhere to curriculum content and benchmarks established at that the state level (McDonnell, 2009). In another example, although the local school boards can set their own rules and regulations while creating

instructional programs for their district, schools, administrators, and teachers to follow, those rules and regulations must be aligned with state policies. On the state level, each state has the constitutional right to create educational policies that govern their K-12 public school systems. The Constitution of the State of Florida states that "the paramount duty" is "to make adequate provision for the education of all children residing within its borders" and that in order to do so "adequate provision shall be made by law for a uniform, efficient, safe, secure, and high quality system of free public schools that allows students to obtain a high quality education" (Constitution of the State of Florida, 2015). Finally, most education policy is decided at the state and local levels, and the federal role in education is limited as stipulated in the Tenth Amendment. However, federal public education policy can and often does influence state level policies by providing funding mechanisms that incentivize certain policies over others.

Regardless of whether K-12 public education policy is developed and enacted at the local, state, or federal levels, the policy-making process and the resultant policies themselves will indubitably be influenced by the politicking and navigation by individuals and agencies who seek reform outcomes that align with their various perceptions and beliefs about public schooling (Mead, 2013). Whether these community leaders have influence due to their formal or informal positions, their efforts to influence K-12 public education policy and policy reform are manifested through leadership behaviors and practices. These leadership practices are expressed in many different ways: sometimes through collaboration and the formation of coalitions (Kramer & Crespy, 2011; Stevenson, Pearce, & Porter, 1985), sometimes through the exertion of individual leadership practices or extension of personal charisma (Bass & Bass, 2008; Bono &

Judge, 2004; Judge & Piccolo, 2004), and sometimes through hybrid approaches that do not fall neatly into either paradigms of individual or collective leadership.

The process of developing education policy and reform is complex and nuanced. From the initial stage of issue definition, to policy agenda for state legislation, to policy formulation, to actual policy implementation, each step requires delicate political maneuvers that occur through leadership practices and behaviors (Fowler, 2103). Even in the initial policy stage, issues in education can be controversial. For example, the education issue of accountability for educators and students is still contentious among education experts and educators alike across the nation, disputing exactly what accountability is, what it looks like, and how it can be applied fairly and equitably. At the national level, there are ongoing attempts to influence public education policy by proponents of a certain perspective of accountability as expressed by national education foundations funded by wealthy influentials like Bill and Melinda Gates and others who believe that accountability helps to create uniformity of evaluation in instruction and learning which will then bring about equity and equality education for all students in public schools from K-12 (Cross, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 2006, 2007; McDonnell, 2009; Ravitch, 2005, 2010). Conversely, leaders representing organizations like teacher advocacy groups or unions oppose the notions of accountability proposed and supported by philanthropists like the Gates and instead view accountability as serving to narrow curricular content and limiting teachers' autonomy while losing the local context (Cross, 2010; Fuhrman, 2001; Ravitch, 2005, 2010).

Policy development is complex not only at the federal level but also at the state and local levels. This complexity provides opportunities for individuals and groups to

influence the K-12 education policy process from the beginning to implementation steps. The influence that community leaders exert on the public policy process is characterized by an "exchange of favors that exists within a system of mutual obligation" (Fowler, 2013, p. 84). Specific to K-12 public education policy, community leaders exert their influence through their leadership behaviors and practices that they apply toward other community leaders or influentials, their representative communities or organizations, other pertinent institutions, and policymakers (Fowler, 2013). This current study explored how some community leaders from one specific community use their leadership behaviors and practices to influence public education K-12 at the local, state, and/or national levels. Given the sizeable influence these community leaders seem to have regarding K-12 education policy, it is important to develop a clearer and deeper understanding of how those community leaders perceive they are exerting their influence.

Acquiring a clearer and deeper understanding of how these community leaders perceive they are exerting their influence through their leadership behaviors and practices is important for a number of reasons. First, the research findings might help the public better understand how these community leaders behave and lead to influence public education policy. This understanding can then be useful in order to influence the influentials themselves in order to marshal their behaviors and practices to endorse and advocate for reforms that work best for students, especially the disadvantaged groups (Datnow, Borman, Stringfield, Overman, & Castellano, 2003; Hong & Youngs, 2008; McDonnell, 2009). Secondly, findings about the leadership behaviors and practices used by these community leaders may provide emergent community leaders with additional leadership and advocacy tools through which they can become more effective in their

own efforts to change the education landscape at the local, state, or national level (Fanelli, 1956; Hunter, 1953, 1968, 1980). Thirdly, through the leadership behaviors and practices used by community leaders and identified, described, and analyzed in this study, current or aspiring leaders may be able to better recognize their "potential allies or adversaries for the foreseeable future" and begin to interact with them more effectively toward their own aims for K-12 public education through "compromise, dampening of conflict and trading off of resources" (Stevenson et al., 1985, p. 263).

Definition of Terms

Prior to defining who these community leaders are, it is helpful to examine the place and the dynamics of the community that might have informed their leadership behaviors and practices used to influence K-12 public education. *Community* is defined as a social system that is composed of different organizations and groups of people whose actions and functions are dependent on each other to operate (Nix & Seerley, 1972). Bonjean (1971) identified community with the geographical characteristics of a territory where populated members organize, live, and depend on one another to carry out functions. Biddle (1979) not only assigned a community to location and people but also emphasized the communal activities with regulatory laws relating to home and neighborhood to enforce voting rights and taxation. In a similar context, community can be defined as "the smallest societal, geographical area in which all institutional belief systems are functionally operative as associations and organizations" (Hunter, 1980, p. xvii). The participants in this current study live in a community of around 900,000 people on the southern east coast of the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2015). As an

additional context, this diverse community covers a land area that is very large relative to other communities with similar sized populations within the United States.

Communities, particularly communities like the one in this study, are complex places that are composed of layers of cultures with different members and groups. This complexity demands community leadership from many different individuals and groups in order to create safe, stable, and relational environments (Whatley, Popa, & Kliewer, 2012). These community leaders emerge and establish themselves from many different places and in many different ways. For example, according to Johns and Kimbrough (1968), community leaders are the top executives from major organizations, institutions, civic groups, government, and businesses. As an original leading scholar in the field of community leadership, Hunter (1953, 1968) identified community leaders as "men of power" who are the decision makers of important community concerns such as social issues, economics, and politics (Hunter, 1953, 1968; Nix, Dressel, & Bates, 1977; Preston, 1967). Similarly, Biddle (1979) described community leaders as the politicians, members of powerful families in the community, and heads of large organizations and businesses. They are considered effectors of influence in society and are responsible for establishing regulations, activities, and other communal issues. Conversely, there are other community leaders who do not influence from the top down as a result of their elite socioeconomic status or positions but rather influence at a grassroots level through influence within their neighborhoods, cultural groups, or other more localized associations (McKnight & Block, 2012). Regardless of the type of community leader or the source of that leader's influence, community leaders are perceived as managers of a

community's welfare, problem solvers of community conflict, and builders of a community's infrastructures to advance the community (Nix et al., 1977).

For the purpose of this study, the term *community leaders* was used interchangeably with *leaders, influentials,* or *community influentials.* In this study, community leaders represented themselves and/or different organizations to champion causes for K-12 public education. These community leaders held positions of influence in politics, businesses, institutions, and/or cultural groups within this large urban city. They were perceived as the representative voices for their own respective organizations and/or communities within the larger community concerning K-12 public education. Some community leaders were considered grassroots leaders because they were not typical of mainstream or institutional leaders. Community grassroots leaders were not governed by financial or positional needs and tended to serve their community based on their collective sense for social change and common good (Bass & Bass, 2008). As community leaders, they dedicated their time, expertise, advocacy, and sometimes financial resources to public education causes; they also used their leadership behaviors and practices to influence public education legislative outcomes based on their own belief systems about children in K-12 public education**.**

In this capacity as community leaders, there is an implication that these individuals engage in leadership behaviors and practices in order to exercise their influence over others to accomplish tasks. In this section, various perspectives, models, and theories of leadership are described and explored, with particular attention to a broad categorization that leadership can be either engaged in individually or collectively. The span of how leadership is defined is vast, and the particular definitions depend on who

authors the term (Bass & Bass, 2008; Whatley et al., 2012). For example, Heifetz,

Linsky, and Grashow (2009) viewed leadership as an experimental art and an adaptive

process that mobilizes people to rise to the challenge, be willing to take risks, be certain

of the purpose, and face up to challenges at the individual and collective level.

Elsewhere, leadership is defined as an interactive process where a person has influence

over the others toward a collective interest (Northouse, 2010). Bass and Bass (2008)

synthesized many definitions of leadership and specified that leadership was the exercise

of social influence of a leader's behaviors or activities over others, the effects of the

leader, and the interrelationship of the leader and the followers.

For the purpose of this study, leadership was conceptualized as a combination of

relational and adaptive processes where leaders not only lead and influence others by

using their own leadership behaviors and practices but also are led and influenced by

others, depending on the situations needed to advance education causes that are important

to them. Even though the research topic was to examine the leadership behaviors and

practices, the researcher defined the general traits of leadership behaviors, whereas

practices were the manifestations and actions as a result of those behaviors. The

development of these behaviors such as supporting, recognizing, developing, consulting,

delegating, clarifying, planning, networking, advocating change, monitoring, modeling,

empowering, representing, and envisioning by leaders is learned and practiced over time

in order to improve the performance of the followers (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002;

Yukl, O'Donnell, & Taber, 2008). The leadership behaviors are often categorized into a

hierarchical taxonomy with three main objectives focusing on task behavior in

maximizing resources and human capacity, relation behavior in building trust and

cooperating with others, and change behavior in innovation and adaption (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002). On the other hand, Bottomley, Burgess, and Fox (2014) categorized leadership behaviors in four tiers: vision-builder (vision casting, values, and building trust), standard-bearer (establishing ethics, execution, and culture/climate), integrator (inspiring change, orchestrating activity, and evaluating success), and developer (teaching, training, and coaching) that could contribute to the transformation of effective leaders. The essential component to identifying leadership behavior categories is that a behavior must be observable, measurable, and uniquely relevant to the research context (Yukl, 2012; Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002). As an additional clarification for terms, the term *K-12 public education* was used in lieu of *education policy* depending on the context of the content discussion. Within the context, for K-12 public education to change as education reform, education policies would have to be changed through policy making process where those policies were formulated, approved, and implemented in schools.

Statement of Problem

In the past three decades, community leaders generally appeared to belong to two extremes. The dichotomy of community leaders, formal and informal, refers to the difference between the most influential leaders, who are mainstream traditional leaders, and the least known community leaders, who are more like grassroots or cultural/ethnic leaders. The influential group of community leaders, who are often identified as the political and economic leaders, seems to either intimidate the social scientists or deliberately avoid giving access to researchers in the field of education policy. On the other end of the dichotomy, social scientists seem to ignore the grassroots and cultural/ethnic leaders. These leaders are not represented as true leaders of the

community. They may be perceived as people who lack influence or a formal role of leadership; therefore, their leadership is not sought in education research studies despite the fact that there has been an upward trend in research to include the voices of the underrepresented population. In either of the cases, the social scientists seem to have attempted no access to them and have no interest in hearing directly from them when doing research studies based on community leaders.

The literature on community leaders who represented various interest groups and work in the community to influence K-12 public education was relatively scant. In fact, the public knew very little about these interest groups (McDonnell, 2009) and their leaders. Scott (2008) stated that the lack of research on the elites was due to the acceptance of the criticism against these community influentials in the last three decades. The assumption was that the community leaders were already elitists; hence, there was no need for social scientists to study about them. Currently, the research trend is to focus on the underprivileged and disenfranchised population as a means of elevating and projecting their voice (McKay, 2010). Naturally, contemporary social scientists avoided relinquishing power or influence to the top community influencers of education issues. However, this mentality prevented the public from understanding how and by whom K-12 public education was influenced. The lack of knowing and understanding how these leaders used their leadership behaviors and practices to influence education reforms could hinder future efforts of emergent leaders with similar desire and advocacy to change education policies in the community, state, or, country. Without the knowledge of the past community influencers of K-12 public education, there are no identifiable leadership or advocacy tools for future community leaders to maximize their communal efforts for

education reforms. These aspiring leaders need additional informed tools to effectively transform their community. They need to know how coalitions of activities by individual or collective leaders and organizations can maximize the impact of their influence on public education. Since the research about community leaders and their influence in public education has been insufficient, the current study's purpose was to fill that gap by seeking more understanding directly from these community influentials to identify, describe, and analyze the subjective, shared perspectives of their perceptions regarding how they influence K-12 public education.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was twofold. One was to bridge the literature gap in learning about the impact of community leaders on public education. Another was to collect the operant subjective perspectives held by diverse community leaders concerning their perceptions of the leadership behaviors and practices they use to influence K-12 public education. This study focused on the perceptions of community leaders and was designed to identify, describe, analyze, and compare subjective perceptions shared by community leaders. Perceptions are generally complex and influenced by many different elements, such as experiences, relationships, and knowledge. Just as most perceptions are complex, how community leaders perceive their leadership behaviors and practices in influencing K-12 public education is equally multifaceted. For instance, the perceptions of community leaders are likely formed by many different elements, including the process of their interrelations with state lawmakers, with other community leaders, and with leaders from various ethnic backgrounds, and knowledge of the impacts of previous attempts to advocate or endorse particular education issues or policies.

Understanding these community influentials is important for these reasons. First, research findings might help the public understand how these community leaders behave, interact, and lead to affect public education reform. In a way, this understanding could potentially help to influence the influential community leaders themselves to effectively prepare their behaviors and practices to endorse and advocate for reforms that work best for students, especially the disadvantaged groups (Datnow et al., 2003; Hong & Youngs, 2008; McDonnell, 2009). Secondly, the findings about the leadership behaviors and practices used by these community leaders may provide emergent community leaders with additional leadership and advocacy tools through which they can become more effective in their own efforts to change the education landscape at the local, state, or national level (Fanelli, 1956; Hunter, 1953, 1968, 1980). Thirdly, through the leadership behaviors and practices used by community leaders and identified, described, and analyzed in this study, current or aspiring leaders may be able to better recognize their "potential allies or adversaries for the foreseeable future" and begin to interact with them more effectively toward their aims for K-12 public education through "compromise, dampening of conflict and trading off of resources "(Stevenson et al., 1985, p. 263).

Research Question

This study explored the following research question: How do community leaders perceive that their leadership behaviors and practices are used to influence K-12 public education?

Theoretical Framework

Given the complexity of this research topic examining external influencers of the K-12 public education system, distilling the analytic frame to just one definitive

theoretical perspective to make meaning from the leadership behaviors and practices of the current study's participants would not be useful. Therefore, this researcher chose to explore and design a theoretical framework based on multiple leadership theories to explain leader influence from varying perspectives and disciplines. For this study, leadership was approached from two perspectives, individual and collective. In the individual approach, transformational and charismatic theories were applied to understand the community leaders themselves and their behaviors and practices (Bass, 1999; Bass & Bass, 2008; Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). From the collective perspective, distributed and collaborative leadership theories were employed to provide foundation and explanations as to how some leaders work with other individuals or groups to influence K-12 public education for the good of the entire community (Kramer & Crespy, 2011; Raelin, 2006).

In addition, coalition theory was also incorporated within the theoretical framework for this study in order to better understand how leaders behave and interact with others to build a coalition of individuals or organizations that have similar vision, mission, beliefs, and values about public education to provide quality education to all students (Kegler & Swan, 2012). In this process, community leaders align their partnership with similar purpose to affect education change or policy reform. Coalition theory can provide explanation in the findings as to how particular community leaders' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and practices used may be shared with perspectives of other community leaders depending on their individual or organizational beliefs and values of K-12 public education. In Chapter 2, these theories that comprised the theoretical framework were examined in depth, so that they could later inform the

development of the study's research instrument as well as the analysis of the findings in order to understand the shared perspectives held by community influentials regarding the leadership behaviors and practices they use to influence K-12 public education.

Significance of Study

Besides filling the gap in the literature concerning influential community leaders, this study provided an insight into the shared perspectives of subjective perceptions of these community leaders' leadership behaviors and practices used to influence K-12 public education. With this understanding, researchers would be able to provide valuable information to the public. First, research findings might help the public better understand how community leaders behave and lead to influence public education policy. At the same time, this knowledge might influence them as influential leaders to use their leadership behaviors and practices in order to affect education change. Secondly, the findings about the leadership behaviors and practices used by these community leaders serve as additional means through which they could improve themselves to push for education reforms at local, state, and national levels. Thirdly, through the leadership behaviors and practices facilitated by these community leaders and identified, described, and analyzed in the current study, contemporary and aspiring leaders can recognize their current allies and potential adversaries and compromise with those leaders to reduce potential conflicts and to exchange resources, maximizing impact of their influence (McDonnell, 2009; Stevenson et al., 1985).

As indicated by research, the literature on the community leaders had significantly been minimized to almost nothing. One of the main reasons for this lack of research was due to the misconception that the leaders' voices and statuses needed no

further empowering from social scientists. The assumption here was that the community

leaders had already gained influence and/or power by the virtue of their being the top

executives of businesses, organizations, institutions, and other cultural positions.

Therefore, their voices needed not to be elevated to acquire even more influence and

power in the community. However, if they had been perceived as or even called the

"insiders of [community] knowledge" (Yamokoski & Dubrow, 2008, p. 320) from

politics to education and from communal health to wealth, researchers should have

recognized the greater need to learn from these insiders of community knowledge and

their relationships with one another as they used their leadership behaviors and practices

to influence public education landscape.

According to Yamokoski and Dubrow (2008), the paucity of research regarding

these community leaders, especially those who advocate for education, is alarming

because social scientists have neglected to directly ask the community influentials

themselves about their sources of social power and, specifically for this study, how they

perceive their influence on K-12 public education at the local, state, and federal levels

(Jeffres, Jian, Lee, Connally, & Seikali, 2011). These perceptions of the community

leaders based on their backgrounds, beliefs, lived knowledge, and ideologies about their

influence on public education policy are unique and subjective by nature. The

methodology that was most effectively suited for this study was Q methodology.

Introduction of Q Methodology

The current study used Q methodology to explore the described research question.

Q methodology is a research method that offers a different "attitude" in the process of

seeking answers through discoveries rather than experimental tests (Brown, 1980, 1993,

2002, 2006; Stephenson, 1953, 1967, 1977; Watts & Stenner, 2005, 2012). According to

Stephenson (1967), Q methodology uses participants as variables and allows these

persons to assign their attitudes, feelings, and beliefs about a particular research topic as

they rank the statements during the Q sort process. Therefore, subjectivity is the main

focus of Q methodology. The Q methodology in this study was designed to identify,

describe, analyze, and compare this human subjectivity shared by community leaders'

perceptions of their leadership behaviors and practices to individually or collectively

influence K-12 public education. Q methodology was discussed more thoroughly in

Chapter 3.

Summary and Organization of the Study

This chapter began with an introduction describing the process of how

educational policies are created and how community leaders who represent various

interest groups can be influencers of policy development and outcomes and of K-12

public education reform. The next section shared definitions of important terms, such as

community, community leaders, and leadership, in the study and was followed by a

statement detailing the problem of limited research on the actual influencers of K-12

public education and the impact they have. Next, this chapter included a statement of

purpose for answering the research question. The theoretical framework followed with an

overview of different leadership theories and coalition theory to help support the analyses

of the findings. The significance of the study was then revealed to indicate how the study

findings will inform the public as to who the influential community leaders are, how to

work with them, and why they have had an influence on K-12 public education. Also

included in this chapter was the rationale for using the Q methodology in order to explore

the perceptions that community leaders have of their leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing educational policies. Lastly, Chapter 1 concluded with a summary and organization of the study. The future chapters will include a review of relevant literature (Chapter 2), an overview of Q methodology and the research design (Chapter 3), an analysis of the data and interpretation of the study's results (Chapter 4), and implications of the results for future studies (Chapter 5).

Chapter 2: Literature Review

As indicated in Chapter 1, the purpose of this research was to explore the shared subjective perceptions of the community leaders concerning their leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing K-12 public education. With a focus on the perceptions of community leaders, this study, through the use of Q methodology, was designed to identify, describe, analyze, and compare subjective perceptions shared by community leaders regarding how they influence public education policy. Understanding and knowing about these community leaders would allow the researcher to inform the public of several factors. First, research findings might help the public understand how these community leaders behave, interact, and lead to affect public education reform. This understanding can potentially help to influence the influential community leaders themselves to effectively prepare their behaviors and practices to endorse and advocate for reforms that work best for students, especially the disadvantaged groups (Datnow et al., 2003; Hong & Youngs, 2008; McDonnell, 2009). Secondly, the findings about the leadership behaviors and practices used by these community leaders may provide emergent community leaders with additional leadership and advocacy tools through which they can become more effective in their own efforts to change the education landscape at the local, state, or national level. Thirdly, through the leadership behaviors and practices used by community leaders and identified, described, and analyzed in this study, current or aspiring leaders may be able to better recognize their potential allies or adversaries in coalitions and learn to negotiate and resolve conflict in order to interact with them more effectively and to maximize resources toward their aims for K-12 public

education (Stevenson et al., 1985). In order to seek these answers, the research question in this study was developed: "How do community leaders perceive that their leadership behaviors and practices are used to influence K-12 public education?" In essence, the question sought to examine how community leaders' shared perspectives were grouped together according to their perceived leadership behaviors and practices in influencing K-12 public education.

Literature Review

The literature review was divided into three main sections concerning the community leaders and the perceptions of their leadership behaviors and practices in influencing K-12 public education. The first section began with the aims of K-12 school reforms with the current state of reform and goals of reform. Under the goals of reform, accountability and free-market principles of privatization and school choice with its subsets of magnet schools and voucher system were explained.

The second section of the literature review examined the community leaders themselves with a brief discussion of the absence of literature about these community leaders in recent empirical studies. An inclusion of subtopics, such as definition of leaders and who the community leaders are, followed. Then, community leaders were presented according to their political, economic, and cultural positions. Because there were very few studies based on political leaders who consider themselves education advocates, the researcher relied on the literature based on city mayors as educational chiefs who impacted educational reforms as a case study for political positions. In terms of the economic positions of community leaders, the educational literature was sparse. However, mega business leaders, such as Bill Gates, the Waltons, and Eli Broad, have

been known to finance their own education initiatives such as small high schools and charter schools like Knowledge Is Power Program (KIPP) (Ravitch, 2010). They were rarely directly interviewed about such initiatives, which were seldom studied. These mega national business leaders were widely known more for their dedication to education through their own established education and policy foundations. For the cultural community leaders who acted and served on behalf of children's education, the literature about them was almost nonexistent. However, the literature based on the cultural or external organizations which served as education advocacy groups for education reforms was abundant. The researcher provided a few case studies as examples for their impact on education policy in the community.

In the third section, the theoretical framework of leadership behaviors and practices was divided into two approaches, individual and collective. In the individual approach, transformational and charismatic leadership theories were reviewed. Through the collective leadership perspective, distributed and collaborative leadership theories were examined with the inclusion of coalition theory. Finally, the conclusion provided a comprehensive summary of the literature review.

Aims of K-12 School Reforms

Despite many court cases and educational policies over the years, American public schools still serve as grounds for national debates about what reforms should be implemented and what directions should be taken to transform schools. Education advocates, policymakers, and educators agree that public schools should serve as places where effective teachers can teach all children in American schools to learn and to become competitive with children from other equivalent industrialized countries, where

there is no achievement gap among all the children in the public education landscape, and where American children can gain equal access to higher education or other career opportunities upon graduating from high school (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Tate & Ladson-Billings, 2006). However, even though these leaders all agree that changes are needed to improve the nation's schools, no one is certain which approach or method will bring about sustainable and enduring education reforms. The debate has been ongoing for many years: Even as early as the 1870s, there were calls for school reforms by establishing national schools (Cross, 2010).

Since the 1880s, American education has constantly undergone changes to accommodate population demographic shift and social advancements such as the expansion of economy in trade and business, urbanization development, intercontinental innovations in transportation and communication, and immigration (Boyd, 1978; Dewey, 1916/2012; Kliebard, 2004). Today, American society still retains these characteristics of growth; however, each now exists on a more complex scale because the global relationships among countries have extended far beyond a few industrial nations. With greater participation of international partners in the global economy, technology, communication, and transportation, the world's borders are increasingly open. The United States has a history of welcoming many past immigrants from other countries, especially those that faced religious, political, and economic hardships in their own homeland. In recent decades, the U.S. population demographics have evolved quickly, with the white majority inevitably becoming more of a minority (Cooper, 2009). As social and economic growth continues its rate of global expansion, society naturally demands a change in the American school system in how it educates its multiethnic

children and efficiently prepares them for other purposes beyond compulsory schools.

According to a recent education report by the U.S. Department of Education, the 2014

school year indicates for the first time that the minority student population is at 50.3%

while the traditional majority student body is at 49.7% (Hussar & Bailey (2013). This

dramatic shift in student population will further complicate school operation, leadership,

teaching and learning pedagogy, curriculum, and policy outcomes.

No matter how life changes and how society evolves, the principle of education

stands firm as a necessary foundation of democracy and a binding force for the

continuation of community, society, and nation growth. Education is a necessity for the

maturity of that growth. Dewey (1916/2012) argued that education is a social process that

helps develop individuals into functional members of a society for the future with the

lessons of the past. Therefore, the aim of education in a democracy is to enable

"individuals a personal interest in social relationships and control, and the habits of mind

which secure social changes without introducing disorder" (Dewey, 1916/2012, p. 115).

The goal of quality education is to provide school experiences so that students will attain

"a level of potency that will allow [children] to eradicate miseducative environments and

construct learning environments, experiences, and programs that support and encourage

the full development of human potential" (Schoeny & Decker, 1983, p. 43).

Some scholars even attribute to education the role as a tool for social justice and

democracy. Freire (2005) contended that society needs to be transformed in a quest to

gain justice in a democracy and that education with inclusive, equitable, and democratic

concepts and curriculum is the ultimate aspiration for such social transformation.

However, the American aspiration and quest for justice and democratic ideals may be

hindered by its own complicated access to or attainment of quality education. As part of the civil rights movement, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 was created by the federal government to provide educational equity and success for all students (Cross, 2010; Fuhrman, 2001; Ravitch, 2005, 2010). Since then, the federal government has extended its influence and authority into states' education systems by enacting different policies including the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001and Race To the Top (RttT) in 2009 (Cross, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 2006, 2007,2011, 2012; Scott, 2011; Ravitch, 2010). These education reforms are meant to enforce the conditions of educational equity and equality, but they have had unintended consequences due to political, economic, and social demands.

Current state of reform. The American school system has experimented with different means in attempting to educate its diverse children population more adequately and effectively. The calls for school reform often came from external forces outside the schools such as federal, state, and local governments, think tanks, education-related institutions, interest groups, grassroots movements, businesses, and community organizations. In the late 1990s to 2001, a systemic reform continued with more additive features such as school choice, professional development, and preservice teacher training requirements as part of the standard-based reform movement (Fuhrman, 2001).

However, the most dominant and impactful educational policy is certainly the federal law No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001. Its overarching goal is to attain quality education by raising achievement for all children from all backgrounds and economic situations, particularly between the white students and other racial groups and between the socioeconomically advantaged and disadvantaged students. The implication

here is that the NCLB is supposed to be the sweeping school reform that cures all the ills in our public schools in America. However, the persistence of achievement inequity and inequality among students leaves many educational leaders and advocates grappling for different solutions. Under the requirements of the NCLB and the reenactment of Title I, schools and districts must report the disaggregate results of the Title I students, special education students, ESL (English as a second language) learners or ELL (English language learners), racial and ethnic minorities, and others to closely monitor the progress of each group (Cross, 2010; Hong &Youngs, 2008).

Proponents of the NCLB claimed that this reform would help put the focus on the most needed groups, especially the socioeconomic status (SES) students and the racial and ethnic minority students. Christopher Cross (2010), a Washington political insider, stated that George W. Bush's intention for the NCLB was to eliminate the "soft bigotry of low expectation" (p. 126). Because the NCLB is meant to improve student achievement for all students, but especially for these historically low performing students, its requirement to have all highly qualified teachers is instrumental to help students successfully graduate and be ready for either college or a career beyond high school. Highly qualified teachers would have higher expectations, so students would achieve high proficiency in reading, writing, and math from third to eighth grades and in high school.

On the other hand, opponents of the NCLB argued that the impossible goal of 100% proficiency of the Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) by 2014 and the use of high-stakes testing as the measureable outcome resulted in slower progress of students than prior to the NCLB (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010). The debate focused on

exactly what that proficiency level should look like for each progressive year for each student. Another key point to the continued debate was standardized assessment accountability, which states must decide based on their own standards, level of proficiency, types of assessments, curricular deliverance of standards, and how teachers are evaluated based on the test results. On the policy level, the NCLB Act was also intended to be vague to give flexibility on the curricula content to states and districts to appease the restructuring reformers at the policy agenda and formulation stages while tightening the assessment accountability of learning experiences for all students to avoid conflicts with the excellence reform group (Fuhrman, 2001).

Meanwhile, the leading person in charge of the NLCB was Education Secretary Rod Paige, who was closely monitored by EdTrust and Citizens' Committee on Civil Rights from the left, Business Roundtable from the center, and Heritage Foundation from the right (Cross, 2010). At the same time, they were all managed by Margret Spellings, a leader of the White House team and a Bush appointee. This process suggests the political nature of any school reforms, especially education reform at the federal level, such as the NCLB policy. Sometimes, the success of any reform becoming law requires collaborative compromise and delicate political negotiation. The essential point of the argument is that many educators, advocates, and policy makers from all sides of the aisle want to create sound education reforms in an effort to help all students, especially those who had been historically disenfranchised. However, the current approach, where proponents have their own motivations and views regarding education reform, creates conflicting ideologies and practices.

The current state of education reforms outlined above, which originated from people who collectively had good intentions but who individually had distinct motivations and approaches, resulted in confusing and mixed results and inconclusive data. However, positive effects on the instructional culture of school environment have resulted because of school reforms. First, the attention to reforms altered teachers' perceptions about the ability of students to achieve, especially students of color. Second, the emphasis on intensive professional development to provide educators the instructional tools to meet the standards with aligned curriculum strengthened educators' knowledge and skills. Third, state curriculum created a coherent and unified system in an effort to reduce variant content from very little content learned to superfluous and irrelevant content taught to students in any particular course (Fuhrman, 2001). Because education reform like the NCLB attempted to push for quality instruction, the attention also focused on student engagement, encouraging active and engaging learning of real-world applications instead of the traditional passivity (Fuhrman, 2001; Ravitch, 2005).

These reforms also produced unintended consequences in terms of progress or lack thereof. NCLB remedies are ineffectual and vague in the definition of proficiency levels among all states, which created huge discrepancies between the National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) results and the states' high-stakes test. According to a condition of NCLB, states' standardized test scores should be measured against the NAEP scores as a learning comparison for NCLB student progress (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010). In 2007, the national NCLB's reading at below basic level was 33%; basic level, 34%; proficient level, 25 %; and advanced level, 8% (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Between 2007 and 2008, it was reported that only 35.6% of

public schools in the United States made the benchmarks for the Adequate Yearly

Progress (AYP) (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2010). In addition, the Hispanic

student population had more than 40% drop-out rates (Cross, 2010). NAEP showed very

modest or nonexistent gain after the enactment of the NCLB. Certainly, there was little

evidence to show that the neediest children had made improvement as the policy had

originally intended. Various reports seemed to suggest that the curriculum standards are

vague or are provided in large quantity, causing educators to rely on the actual

assessment itself by directly focusing on the tested content to meet the high-stakes

standards (Fuhrman, 2001). Basically, teaching to the test is the focus, thus severely

restricting the curriculum content (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fuhrman, 2001; Ravitch,

2005, 2010; Scott, 2011). Because of the intense pressure on improving the AYP

benchmarks, some school districts, such as Atlanta, even resorted to cheating by

correcting students' tests to increase the scores (Ravitch, 2010).

Some data indicated that no rich content was being taught in class to make time

for the daily drill of test taking skills (Ravitch, 2010; Scott, 2011). Other researchers also

reported that schools had become even more segregated after the NCLB Act, creating

more inequity and inequality in schools. Segregated schools were caused by *de facto* and

de jure segregated neighborhoods that were exacerbated by the lack of federal funding to

fulfill the requirements of the NCLB (Darling-Hammond, 2006, 2007, 2010; Hall, 2005;

Holme, Frankenberg, Diem, & Welton, 2013; Hunter, 2009; Kozol, 2005; Orfield,

Frankenberg, & Garces, 2008; Reardon, Yun, & Kurlaender, 2006; Walker, 2009; Wells

& Frankenberg, 2007). The middle class families affected by mandated underfunding of

NCLB will seek other neighborhoods where schools are adequately funded.

Consequently, those left behind are the socioeconomically disadvantaged that do not have financial resources to relocate.

Goals of reform. John Dewey (1916/2012), a foremost influential educational philosopher, indicated that educational reformers should change the "conventionality and artificiality of the scholastic methods" of the nature of the law (p. 131). Therefore, they must focus on changing the aims of such a law that enforces its "wrong drivers" and deficiencies (Fullan, 2011). Ravitch (2010) described a reformer in the current education agenda as someone who embraces the spirit of the free-market model found in corporate America with competition among schools, charter schools a part of school choice, standardized-testing accountability for students and teachers, merit pay incentive, and the conditions of NCLB. While these reforms are well-intentioned, they may hinder progress and potentially harm the targeted outcome in preparation for students to enter the workforce or higher education. Whether it is George H. W. Bush's America 2000, Bill Clinton's Goals 2000, George W. Bush's NCLB Act of 2001, or Barack Obama's Race to the Top of 2009, these education reforms created by the U.S. presidents are federal instruments used to fulfill the promises of American ideals for its youth and the American future (Cross, 2010).

Unquestionably, the most profound educational policy is the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001. Its overarching goal is to attain quality education by raising achievement for all children from all backgrounds and economic situations, and, in particular, by balancing achievement levels between the white students and other racial groups and between the socioeconomic advantaged and disadvantaged students (Cross, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fuhrman, 2001; Ravitch, 2005, 2010; Tate & Ladson-

Billings, 2006). The implication here is that the NCLB is supposed to be the sweeping

school reform that elevates American public schools from lagging achievement. With the

persistence of achievement inequity and inequality among students, especially the

socioeconomically and ethnically disadvantaged students, many educational leaders,

advocates, and policymakers capitalize on the rising tide of the standards-based reform

from the 1990s. The focus here is to have students learn and know a specific set of

curriculum content in the form of standards and to monitor learning and instruction

progress of achievement in the form of accountability in order to reward or sanction

students, educators, and even schools based on results of the standardized test scores.

Accountability. After the publication of the educational report *A Nation at Risk* in

1983, President Reagan called attention to the need for school reform with emphases on

discipline, drug and alcohol abuse, raising all states' academic standards, greater high

school graduate requirement, and good teaching with salary incentives based on

competence and merit (Cross, 2010; Fuhrman, 2001). Starting in the 1990s, the school

reform movement as a result of George H. W. Bush's America 2000 and Bill Clinton's

Goals 2000 took a definitive direction towards standards and accountability. As the

nation's schools struggled to improve student achievement, especially among the

economically and racially disadvantaged children, and the image of failure arose when

compared to other international competitors in industrial and developed countries such as

Finland, Germany, Japan, Korea, and Singapore, the standards and accountability

movement remained decidedly the staple topic in education reforms (Brown, 2006;

Cross, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fuhrman, 2001; Ravitch, 2005, 2010; Scott,

2011; Theoharis, 2007). The intent of this movement was to ultimately improve student

performance by aligning the standards with the curriculum to be learned by students,

creating aligned assessment to measure their learning, and rewarding or sanctioning

educators and students based on the results. The goal for standards-based accountability

(SBA) as school reform, which is a highly structured policy that is supported by mega

business officers, political officials, and other education policy and foundation centers,

was to achieve quality education in all student groups and to better provide the future

workplace with capable and technologically competent employees in a global market

(Cross, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Fuhrman, 2001; Ladson-Billings, 2006, 2011;

McDonnell, 2009; Ravitch, 2005, 2010; Scott, 2011; Wong, 2006).

Even though the local, state, and federal governments share the responsibility

over school operations and structure, as set out in the U.S. Constitution, state

governments have the ultimate authority over education concerns (Alexander &

Alexander, 2012; Ravitch, 2005, 2010). In a way, the accountability rests with the state,

making it responsible for local students' learning skills and contextual knowledge and

superseding the local authority that oversees the agents—the teachers. However, conflict

and tension arise when the local boards in the form of school principals hire the teachers

who directly impact students' achievement, creating a difficult situation on direct

accountability control where teachers may not want to be accountable to the demands of

outsiders (Fuhrman, 2001). The issue is that there is a great distance between the

principals (the state officials) who are issuing the directives on how accountability should

be implemented and the agents (the teachers) who should deliver the accountability

instruments in terms of standards and assessments to the intended target (the students).

The bureaucratic layers between the state principals and agents are vast, causing an unreliable and complicated process of accountability.

In a response to the mandates from federal education reforms, the state as the principal authority is forced to comply with the requirements of the SBA reform initiatives in order to receive federal funding, which has been set at 7% of total funding on K-12 education, and rely on mega education foundations to subsidize the state's education budget (Cross, 2010). The state must create the standardized assessment based on the specific set of curriculum standards to be learned, and teachers are directed to ensure that all students learn and know these standards by meeting the requirement of adequate annual growth and passing the assessment exam. To further complicate the monitoring of the accountability process, the national SBA movement imposed by the federal government and supported by financial, political, and think-tank elites have pushed in the last two decades even farther the distance between the federal bureaucracy and school site educating staff (Cross, 2010; McDonnell, 2009; Ravitch, 2010).

For the purpose of this section, the criteria under the NCLB Act of 2001are used here to discuss accountability (Cross, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2005, 2010). The following are some of the mandates under the NCLB. The teachers are required to meet the specific rating of highly qualified by 2014. If students in third to eighth grades, and in high school, meet the assessment requirements in reading and math, students are promoted; their scores must be disaggregated by race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, disability, and ELL status to monitor their AYP progress. Teachers will be rewarded with merits for maintaining qualified rating and with monetary bonuses. In addition, schools and districts are required to meet the AYP 100% proficiency for all

of the above subgroups by 2014 according to the states' timelines. If students do not meet

the required benchmarks, they are placed in remediation classes to ensure future success.

With all these federal mandates for states to implement, the states are left to find funding

for financial support and resources to meet the yearly benchmarks and to achieve total

compliance by 2014.

As part of the transparency condition in the NCLB, parents of public school

students must receive accurate and timely information regarding their child's academic

progress and must be informed of approaches to assist the child to succeed. Their

teachers will be penalized for not being qualified professionals based on the results and

will be forced to take more professional development training while being monitored by

their immediate supervisor at school sites. Meanwhile, schools that fail to meet the AYP

in math, reading, and writing for all their identified subgroups will be placed on probation

with support services within the system to improve student performance. As a result,

these schools would be labeled *school in need of improvement* (SINI) (Cross, 2010;

Ravitch, 2005). Students are provided with after-school academic activities by internal

and/or external support services. If schools earn two consecutive Fs, then their students

are allowed to transfer to higher achieving schools of their choice with free transportation

service to and from those schools. If schools continue failing for the third year, free

tutoring services are offered to the low socioeconomic students. With the fourth

consecutive F, schools are subjected to corrective features in changes of staff, leadership,

curriculum, and school year structure either by making the day or year longer. In the fifth

failing year, schools face complete take-over by private education sectors, with the

schools restructured into charter schools, the entire staff replaced, and state control of

operation or the restructuring of school's governance. Parents will be given educational choice with a category of public school choices. In this category, parents have options of controlled open enrollment, single-gender programs, virtual instruction programs, advanced placement (AP), dual enrollment, International Baccalaureate (IB), Advanced International Certificate of Education (AICE), and other similar state scholarship programs (André-Bechely, 2007; Ravitch, 2010).

Ravitch (2005) stated that "ideology plays a significant role in the politics of accountability" (p. 14). The wave of standards and accountability is influenced by the public need for a quick response to the lagging achievement among students of color and the pressure on policymakers by business leaders to produce a reliable and advanced workforce for their factories and businesses (Henig, 2009; McDonnell, 2009; Ravitch, 2010; Wong & Shen, 2002). If larger public funding is to be used to provide quality education and improve schools, then a tight accountability method is needed to maintain the schools for the public good. The difficulty in measuring an effective accountability system lies in deciding what the acceptable outcome for that assessment is, who should decide a reliable assessment of accountability, and the curriculum content to be learned. The NCLB states that by 2014, all children in every state will be 100% proficient in reading and math. However, the states are left with vague mandates of what that proficiency should look like and must provide the financial support to carry out the mandates. Thus, the states are forced to determine for themselves the variant assessment tool to measure the curriculum standards learned and are left at the mercy of powerful foundations and federal government grants.

The pressure of forcing states' schools to perform at 100% proficiency in reading and math outweighs the common sense approach of measuring children's learning growth, which, in turn, encourages states to produce data by their "hired guns" with a different acceptable formula that would lower scoring average (Boyd, 1999, p. 242). In essence, the results can be adjusted by the state to make the state's data look more acceptable to the public. For example, Ravitch (2010) indicated that more than 70,000 students in third through eighth grades in New York City were retained due to their abysmal performance at level 1 on the state's math test in 2006. However, the number of students was reduced to just about 14,000 students in 2009. It was later found that New York officials had lowered the proficiency level in order to push those level 1 students to level 2, affecting the unintended outcome of the NCLB by lowering the expectation instead of raising it. Such systematic strategy basically renders the test useless if not invalidating it altogether. With these concerns, students were unfairly sanctioned and punished for a flawed test, as highlighted in the 1999 case in New York City where more than 9000 students were ordered to attend summer school (Ravitch, 2005). The fault was discovered in the actual test itself. Another adverse effect of accountability is in the monitoring of public schools as a public good by different watchdog groups. By labeling schools as a public good, schooling, then, has not only become accessible to all children and families but also become free of competition for state's education funding, which is already limited due to the lack of financial support from the federal government to fulfill the mandates of the NCLB to be achieved by 2014.

While public schools are supposed to be a public good, it is ironic that parents and students are provided a choice to have the children educated at another school outside of

their traditional public school zone—presented as equality and equity—and to use their

voucher as subsidy toward the cost of their education of choice (Heilig, Brown, &

Brown, 2012; Ladson-Billings, 2006; Ravitch, 2010). This process increases, if not

downright encourages, privatized options where most of the schools are operated for

profits through the use of vouchers and scholarships. If money making is part of

schooling of a child, then parents become the consumers of education goods. Education

has practically become a private good. This is in contrast to the American democratic

ideals of making education accessible to all because its schools are governed as a public

good on behalf of the public will (Alexander & Alexander, 2012; Beal & Hendry, 2012).

Free-market solutions. It is worth repeating the idea of Diane Ravitch that to be a

politically correct reformer of public education today, one needs to embrace the private

enterprise ideals of competition. In a capitalist society like the United States, free-market

principles should allow its participants the ability to increase profits however they see fit

as long as there is no government interference in the way of regulations, choices, and

competition. In current education reforms, the movement of standards and accountability

creates the possibility for parents to choose where they want their children to be educated

with vouchers and scholarships. The narrative of freedom to choose the school and offer

an opportunity to bring the children out of persistent failing schools has an irresistible

appeal to parents and the public in general, especially to those who do not even have

children in schools and who know very little about the community's schools. In addition,

schools of choice appeal to all parties who want equity education for all: to business

leaders who want to see schools operate under the business model of competition for best

services and competent and qualified providers; to voters who want their tax dollars to be

wisely spent on as many qualified and quality schools as possible. Under the auspices of

accountability offered by free-market ideas, parents feel empowered that they have

control over their children's education when the schools fail to educate their children in a

traditional setting, leading to the concept of privatization of education.

As a result of other policy reforms in the 1990s and the NCLB of 2001, public

school influencers at the national level were the megabusiness leaders and foundations

such as the Walton Family Foundation, Broad Foundation, and Gates Foundation, all

operated and owned by business billionaires. Through these foundations, financial grants

were dispersed to many powerful education organizations and think tanks (McDonnell,

2009; Ravitch, 2010). Ravitch (2010) agreed with Chester E. Finn Jr.'s sentiment that all

large foundations like the ones listed attempted to influence the thinking of elected and

government members. She also stated that most "education policy experts steer clear of

criticizing the mega-rich foundations; to date, not a single book has been published that

has questioned their education strategies" (Ravitch, 2010, p. 201). As corporate leaders,

these business people intended to reform schools by reestablishing and operating schools

in more innovative ways as they would have done in their business world. In other words,

schools should operate in the same way as private enterprises, where choices,

competition, and free regulations are the cornerstone of their ideals. The premise was that

the traditional model had not worked to close the achievement gap between the white

middle class and the socioeconomically disadvantaged groups, ethnic minorities, and

other low-achieving groups. Therefore, it was time to try out something new.

If the traditional schools did not deliver quality education to all students, then

other entities should be allowed to compete for services, that is, to provide better

education and support service than the traditional ones. The narrative is that, if students and parents of the low-performing schools are trapped in failure, they should be given the choice to exit such an environment and a new chance at success by using school vouchers or scholarships somewhere else (André-Bechely, 2007; Ladson-Billings, 2006; Ravitch, 2005, 2010; Wong & Shen, 2002). Parents and communities around these low-performing schools are empowered with the freedom to transfer their children to a high performing school of their choice and to a preferred curriculum designed for their child's interest at no cost. With such competition for services with private sectors, the general assumption is that public schools and educators would, then, be forced to work harder to educate children and to properly address their educational and individual needs, thus improving their school performance.

Milton Friedman published an essay, "The Role of Government in Education," in 1955, in which he argued that government should allow funding for the process of educating the children but should not regulate the education process and operation (as cited in Ravitch, 2010). The intention here was to use federal and state funding that has traditionally been assigned to public schools to educate children and to turn that allocated money into vouchers. If parents wanted to use such vouchers to transfer their children out of their failing school to another school of their choice, then they should easily do so without the interference of the government in the actual schooling of their children. Borrowing from Friedman's idea of using vouchers for private school choice, public schools in the American South began public school choice in response to the call for desegregation.

In the 1960s, the civil rights movement empowered Blacks and encouraged women, Asians, and Hispanics to demand the basic rights to live and enjoy life and the pursuit of happiness as equal to Whites. Leading the way to achieve the basic civil rights, if not basic human rights, were the African Americans. The climax of social and racial unrest that spurred hope in the lives of many people of color came from the court case *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* 347 U.S. 483, 74 S. Ct. 686 (1954).

Unquestionably and ironically, the decision concerning education had become a beacon of hope for societal change towards equal treatment of the Blacks and other people of color. The small group of educated Blacks pursued social changes throughout regions of the United States ameliorating racial injustice and racial discrimination through the Equal Protection Clause under the Fourteenth Amendment by way of judicial process (Britt, 2008; Carter, 2007). Under the direction of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), legal teams from Kansas, South Carolina, Virginia, and Delaware simultaneously filed motions to be heard in front of the Supreme Court "to end school segregation and the application of the 'separate but equal doctrine' in the secondary and primary grades" (Carter, 2007, p. 244). Even though *Briggs v. Elliott (1950), Davis v. County School Board of Prince Edward County (1951)*, and *Gebhart v. Belton (1952)* were brought forth to the Supreme Court with *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka (1954), Brown* was used as the main legal basis for the argument that these "segregated facilities and resources . . . were demonstrably unequal" (Carter, 2007, p. 244). Thus, if the facilities were not made to be equal, they effectively "deprived [students] of the equal protection of the laws" (Alexander & Alexander, 2012, p. 1007).

Unanimously, the Court rejected the doctrine of "separate but equal" from *Plessy v. Ferguson,* 163 U.S. 537, 16 S. Ct. 1138, 1896. The Court had no other precedents, standards of *stare decisis,* nor legislative history to guide the judiciary proceeding in determining the outcomes of these cases in front of the Court (Britt, 2008; Carter, 2007). The high court's succinct rejection of *de jure* segregation in *Brown* not only brought relief to schools but also started a social justice movement under the auspices of the Civil Rights Movement for all Blacks, women, Hispanics, Asians, and others. *Brown* might not have overturned the separate-but-equal doctrine handed down by *Plessy,* but "the Court . . . resolve[d] the cultural problem of finding a way to square much-needed social change with both American legal tradition and the tradition of individual liberty" (Britt, 2008, p. 143). Somehow, the Court anticipated the social and political reluctance to accept the *Brown* decision in the aftermaths. The Justices forestalled the Court's directives for schools to follow the desegregation guidelines until the following year. They even enlisted input from the U.S. Attorney General and other states' attorney generals to be considered. In 1955, the Court in *Brown II* ordered its set of recommendations for desegregation implementation. Many of the lower courts had already demonstrated their unwillingness to force and enforce school desegregation if parents and school districts resisted putting their children in integrated schools.

However, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 was created to increase substantial federal funding for education to speed up integration and to improve education equality across the United States. (Cross, 2010; Ravitch, 2005). In a way, the Education Act made the desegregation process more achievable, strengthening the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Goldring, Crowson, Laired, & Berk, 2003). In the 1960s

and early 1970s, Court decisions such as *Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education,* 1971, made it imperative for school districts to eradicate past vestiges of discrimination by eliminating neighborhood school concepts, enforcing faculty and student assignment, redrawing attendance zones, busing, and clustering schools for a more inclusive busing model (Goldring, Cohen-Vogel, Smrekar, & Taylor, 2006; Goldring et al., 2003; Hunter, 2009).

In the early 1980s, school districts under Courts' monitor, especially in the South, expanded busing based on the concept of magnet schools, and expanded voluntary transfers and urban and suburban integration school plans to actively pursue racial balance within schools (Goldring et al., 2003). The ultimate goal for school desegregation was for the school districts to attain unitary status by achieving the six Green Factor mandates (Alexander & Alexander, 2012). According to Blanchett, Mumford and Beachum (2005), during the early 1980s, the number of minority students integrating into majority white schools peaked. The magnet school was the tool that school systems used to entice white parents into placing their children into specialized schools with programs in the arts, academics, leadership, and career academies that would be situated in the urban setting where nonwhite students would typically attend (Ladson-Billings, 2006, 2011; Ravitch, 2010; Vopat, 2011). Magnet schools as voluntary integration tools provided parents an alternative from their home school while fulfilling the court mandate for school desegregation throughout school districts. Often, magnet school programs focused on specific talents or academic abilities and were federally funded with financial support for the specialized programs to students.

In the 1980s, the magnet school as a public school choice gained wide momentum and quickly became the popular choice for many parents and students (André-Bechely, 2007; Beal & Hendry, 2012; Holme et al., 2013; Vopat, 2011). As a matter of fact, many academically gifted and arts magnet schools now have long waiting lists where students sometimes must meet academic requirements, perform arts audition, or have their names drawn in a lottery as conditions for admission. From the 1980s through 1990s, many school districts even competed by expanding the public school choice beyond the specialized magnet schools to allow controlled open enrollment, single-gender programs, virtual instruction programs, advanced placement (AP), dual enrollment, International Baccalaureate (IB), Advanced International Certificate of Education (AICE), and other similar state scholarship programs (Ravitch, 2010).

In essence, democracy encourages and resides in the freedom of choice by its citizens in all aspects of life including education. Thus, the use of vouchers is defended by some for schooling a child based on his or her individual needs. Proponents of vouchers believe that it not only helps in the expansion of nontraditional schools but encourages school choices where both public and other privatized schools compete, with everyone benefiting (André-Bechely, 2007; Ravitch, 2005, 2010; Wong & Shen, 2002). They also believe that school choice through the use of public vouchers is the only way to lift mediocre public schools out of their misery.

While public schools offer magnet school program in an urban setting as an alternative choice for white parents who were willing to bus their children away from their home school, other school advocates look to charter schools as a venue for open enrollment outside of the normal school district (André-Bechely, 2007). The charter

school concept gained public and private support. Through the features of NCLB, charter schools were considered options for students from low-performing schools to be transferred to while using vouchers to subsidize the cost.

Charter schools are considered public schools, yet they are being managed and operated by external management organizations under contract with school districts. One is a for-profit group called Education Management Organizations (EMOs) which manages both public and private charter schools such as Edison Schools founded in 1992. The other is a nonprofit corporation called Charter Management Organizations (CMOs) founded in 2000, which manages schools such as the Knowledge Is Power Program (KIPP). KIPP schools were originally founded in 1994. Within the charter schools, there are two kinds. One type is the start-up charters which are often located and built within the community neighborhood. The other is the conversion charter schools in which EMOs' staff helps entrepreneurs take the existing public school building or section of its campus and turn it into a charter school with an approval of the school district officers (André-Bechely, 2007; Ravitch, 2005, 2010).

By laws, these charter schools are part of the public school system; students attend these schools using vouchers that would have otherwise gone to the traditional public schools where students attend. As with traditional public schools, charter schools cannot impose tuition, infuse curriculum with hidden doctrine relating to faith, or show prejudice against students with disability. However, they are not required to follow other stringent state rules and regulations, so they have more leeway in the way the school is structured, how the curriculum based on the state's standards is taught, the leadership of school, and the daily operation of the school (André-Bechely, 2007; Ravitch, 2005). As

with the magnet public schools, these charter schools often maintain a specialized program based on the needs of a specifically targeted student population in an urban or neighborhood section of the district in order to compete for similar services. For example, KIPP schools focus on both academics and self-concept, and are based on discipline, good conduct, and no-excuse attitude. KIPP enrolls poor student populations through a lottery system, just as do the public magnet schools, and prepares them for higher education. Parents, students, and teachers must sign an annual contract committing to KIPP's strict guidelines and obligations. In contrast to the public schools, KIPP operates not just longer hours per school day but holds classes for part of Saturdays. KIPP schools are considered the most successful charter schools in helping disadvantaged students from poor urban neighborhoods and closing achievement gap, especially if students remain at KIPP for more than four years (Ravitch, 2005), yet they still have some of the highest attrition rates because parents and students cannot sustain the commitment under KIPP's strict contract (Ravitch, 2005, 2010). KIPP also has a high teacher turnover rate compared to public schools. By design, KIPP, like other charter schools, attracts the best students from the low-performing neighborhood schools, leaving behind the neediest children such as ELL students. A charter school can actually serve one specific ethnic or cultural group if that is an intention of particular individuals or organizations that are operating that charter school. Basically, to start a charter school, one only needs to convince the state or state-governed agency to grant the organization or individual a charter license (Ravitch, 2005, 2010).

As suggested above, the current national movement of standards-based accountability (SBA) with an embedded school choice is strongly supported and financed

by education foundations that are governed and operated by mega business billionaires such as Bill Gates, Eli Broad, the Walton family members, and others. Unquestionably, as global business leaders, they intercede on behalf of many disadvantaged and poor children, and their influence attracts the attention of the policymakers, presidents, governors, and mayors alike (Henig, 2009; Shen, 2012; Wong, 2006; Wong & Shen, 2003a, 2003b; 2007). Through their foundations, grants given to education research and to other education policy and advocacy agencies have influenced "public officials" (Ravitch, 2010, p. 211). For example, Ravitch (2010) explained that the Gates Foundation invested $100 million in CMOs for the charter schools movement in 2000 in preparation for charter schools as mandated for school choice in the upcoming NCLB of 2001. The funds were dispersed throughout the nation's cities in San Francisco, Dallas, New York City, Seattle, Chicago, and others. In 2004, the foundation increased funding to $2 billion toward the small high schools movement, which was thought to put the focus on individual students in a more intimate environment, thus having a more powerful impact on student performance.

Even though this movement was not successful in raising student achievement in preparations for college, Gates Foundation grants created ripple effects in large American urban schools. With such never-heard-of investment in education causes and policies, no opponents dared to raise an objection over the "vast power and unchecked influence" (Ravitch, 2010, p. 211). Clearly, Bill and Melinda Gates through their foundations had used their status as powerful business and global leaders to influence K-12 public education by channeling substantial amount of financial and intellectual resources to change schools using standards and accountability, charter schools, small high schools,

common core standards movement, and other major reforms. Like the Gates, other business leaders rely on their advocacy and philanthropy to search for ways to improve schools, efforts which illustrate their persistence and dedication to providing quality education; however, their methods and ideologies to achieve quality education to bring about equity and equality in education were unique and produced mixed feelings.

On the local level and relevant to the current study, community leaders are believed to have yielded similar influence on K-12 public education but on a much smaller scale. The level of influence may depend on the community leaders. Some community leaders in the current study are well-known philanthropic business individuals who have public education interest at heart and may support reform movements similar to those mentioned above. The participant community leaders are not exclusively composed of businessmen, and their leadership and involvement in many initiatives concerning local public education demonstrate their advocacy and activism on behalf of all children, especially those who struggle to succeed in schools.

Community Leaders

The absence of community leaders for education in academic studies. In academic research, there were abundant studies examining the impact that external agencies, such as education-advocacy, foundations, grassroots, and cultural organizations, had on education reforms in communities. Understandably, these groups were in the business of changing and affecting K-12 public education. However, their leaders were seldom studied, and their perceptions of their own influence were not surveyed in order to gain a deeper understanding of their leadership behaviors and practices in the process of influencing education. This deeper understanding can serve as

a mechanism for future emergent community leaders to use to impact education change. Bass and Bass (2008) briefly mentioned that community leaders who have financial means are perceived as powerful constituents because of their direct connection with, and access to, the lawmakers. Because of their public position and status, their activities are public records. Their behaviors can then be identified, described, and analyzed to a certain extent. Education experts, like Ravitch, chronicled, identified, described, and wrote about the actions taken by the megarich business elites such the Gates, Broad, Fordham, and the Waltons to impact national education reforms through their well-financed foundations. However, their own perceptions of their own influence based on leadership behaviors and practices were another matter and unexamined.

Likewise, the local community leaders' perceptions of their influence were rarely studied—which resulted from either their lack of access or neglect by researchers—in order to learn about the impact of these individuals and their perspectives concerning their own leadership behaviors and actions or interactions used to influence K-12 public education. The financial, social, political, and cultural connections that these community leaders had in their relationships with other influentials working in coalitions to capitalize on their resources to impact greater collective results did not exist in social science research. The lack of serious academic studies focusing on these leaders, their leadership behaviors and practices used to influence policies, and/or their interaction and interrelationships with each other serves as a disservice to the field of educational research (Jeffres et al., 2011; Savage & Williams, 2008; Scott, 2008). Researchers had studied traits and attributes of influentials, but they had seldom conducted interviews or focused on community leaders themselves who perhaps constitute a stratified society in

which the leaders themselves had set an acceptable set of norms and pattern of behaviors for all to follow (Fanelli, 1956).

Scott (2008) noted this absence of empirical studies of the community influentials by stating that the paucity of elite research over the last three decades resulted from an assumption made about these influential members who perhaps had too much influence and needed no more studies about them. The idea that some community leaders were already in a position of fame, notoriety, and power, and did not need extra status elevation because of a study focusing on them, was not beneficial to the public in the long run. The approach based on this assumption does not bode well for a better understanding of the subjective perspectives shared by diverse community leaders in regard to the perceptions of their leadership behaviors and practices they use to influence K-12 public education.

Who are community leaders? In the current study, the focus was to explore the community leaders' shared subjective perceptions of their leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing K-12 public education. According to Johns and Kimbrough (1968), the term *community influentials* somehow implied "knowledgeable persons representative of major institutional-interest sectors of the community" (p. 102). Miller (1970) observed that "the ability of a leader to command influence is commonly conditioned by the prestige of his position, income, and general social status" (p. 25). In other words, the greater prestige in the strength of the leader's community and professional ranks, the greater the chance for income to rise, resulting in even better name recognition in the community; hence, the influence of this leader in the community is magnified. Gilbert (1972) indicated that these influential members of the community who

"help [the lawmakers, elected or appointed,] achieve their office-holding status enjoy an 'access' to such officeholders which makes these participants in the exercise of power" (p. 17). This suggests that there is a real interrelationship between the elected officials and community leaders. Some community leaders, who are perceived to be the insiders of knowledge and are closely associated with elected officials, can influence the thinking of the elected and government members, as suggested by Ravitch (2010). In addition, Fanelli (1956) stated that the top community influentials, by virtue of their actions and positions, are interwoven and interrelated with the actions and positions of public officials in the community at different community events and functions.

Unquestionably, the leadership behaviors and practices exhibited by the community influentials in an attempt to shape K-12 public education are essential, if not vital, to school reform. Education, particularly public education, has been one of the major concerns in any community life. Because education is considered the source of a community's past, current, and future workforce, community leaders, supporters, and general public citizenries do care about how the children of community perform in school.

In this current study, the community leaders were defined as those who put education as a priority in their service to the community and as those who represented diverse demographics in the community. These diverse participants shared a common interest in improving public education and were known to execute actions from a pluralistic perspective to advance the community socially, politically, and economically. They devoted and dedicated their time and energy to forward the issues of education in their work and life as a public calling to enhance or maintain education as a quality

commodity for their community. Even though their activism and advocacy for education were not perceived as altruistic or positive to schools, these dedicated members of the community definitely served as assets to school reforms or changes. These leaders acted on education initiatives such as calls for ending of school grades, quality education for all (QEA), common core standards, and the increase in graduation rates among the disadvantaged by funding money, time, and intellectual resources and interacting with other leaders and institutions, government agencies, and others to influence education change. They made a difference in the direction of education by actively collaborating with others in coalitions within the community, seeking a wide network of education supporters beyond their community boundaries, and using their skills, monetary resources, and/or connections to influence the outcomes of K-12 educational policies.

Because the purpose of this study was to be inclusive of the diverse population of community leaders as participants, the data from both the U. S. Census Bureau State & County QuickFacts and the county was used for the demographic statistics. The demographic statistics were deliberately used to quantify the appropriate sample of the participants, who sometimes had overlapping positions as political, economic, and cultural leaders. U. S. Census Bureau State & County QuickFacts data indicated that the participants' county population consisted of 55.6% White and 44.4 % minorities with 30% African American, 8.3% Hispanics, 4.5% Asian plus 0.1% Pacific Islanders, 0.4% Native Americans, and 2.6% mixed races. Therefore, the researcher applied a similar composition of the local population to the approximate 50 participants to be used in the study. According to the 2010 census, the demographics of the minority population are on the rise, especially noting that the Hispanic group is the largest minority and the Asian

American group as the fastest growing minority. The participants were specifically chosen to mirror such diversity, thus representing, as closely as possible, these diverse demographics and voices of the cultural communities concerning public education. In honor of those minority participants who were often left out of the decision-making processes, the researcher deliberately used a reverse ratio with slightly more minority community leaders than Caucasian leaders. These community leaders were influential in their own organizations and/or ethnic minority group to impact public education reforms and decisions in the community. As stated previously, some of these leaders had overlapping positions, by virtue of their profession, in organizations or government and the cultural groups to which they belonged.

Community leaders by positions. In the current pluralistic demographics, a community needs a diversity of perspectives in its leadership structure and practices in order to maintain a quality of life for everyone regardless of their origins and preferences. The composition of community leadership should reflect pluralistic and inclusive membership. Community members are leaders because they are elected or appointed as political leaders for particular governmental agencies, because they are the leading voices in the community by virtue of their own prominent activism in key community issues, and because they are the representative voices of the varied subgroups that do not have representations in mainstream or political forums. However, their positions can be formal as in leading governmental agencies, educational institutions, and for-profit or nonprofit organizations; their positions can also be informal without any specific social title or rank like leaders of grassroots movements or cultural/ethnic groups.

For the purpose of this study, these formal and informal community leaders were divided into three main categories of positions—political, economic, and cultural—in order to help the researcher identify in the findings how certain leaders with these positions influenced public education differently and how their positions exhibited types of behaviors and practices that informed their perceptions in influencing K-12 public education. At times, their positions might even overlap where a few leaders fell into two or all categories. Some could consider themselves as educational leaders that were not reflected in the three main categories; however, they could identify themselves as community activists because of their active involvement in their own ethnic communities. One commonality that these leaders shared was their own position, formal or informal, as a leader for some communal causes and concerns. Some formally led because of their elected or appointed political position; some formally led because of their status as an influence on economic development; and, lastly, some informally led because they and others like them needed to unite into coalitions to impact community changes.

*Political positions. A*s indicated previously, the literature focusing exclusively on community leaders and their impact on educational policies was very rare. However, the individual and governmental leader that had been studied extensively in the recent years was the mayor (Henig, 2009; Portz, 2000; Shen, 2012; Wong, 2006; Wong & Shen, 2003). The mayor exercised the office's political power and authority to influence school reform. There were ample studies on community leaders and community issues based on power and social structure as a whole, dealing with city or specific group concerns, but not with regard to their individual impact on education in particular (Gilbert, 1972; Hunter, 1953, 1968, 1980; Miller, 1970). In this section, the current research focuses on

mayoral leadership with the mayor as the governmental leader and also as the community leader for education.

Due to the political and institutional shifts of school governance, many cities and their communities have even adopted laws to allow the mayors to be the educational leaders or chiefs of the school system as a means for school reforms (Grady, Rothman, Smith, & Balch-Gonzalez, 2007; McGlynn, 2010; Portz, 2000; Shen, 2011; Wong, 2006; Wong & Shen, 2003). With the support of the public, including major community leaders, the citywide referenda, charter or reform legislation were approved by the voters to permit the mayors to be the authority to govern the local schools (Portz, 2000; Shen, 2012; Wong, 2006; Wong & Shen, 2003). The mayors of cities such as Chicago, Boston, Cleveland, Detroit, Denver, Akron, Long Beach, Nashville, and New York used their positional and political authorities to enlist the support from the communities in influencing policies to

- Place public education high on the city's list of priorities;

- Work toward ensuring adequate funding and resources;

- Forge partnerships that enrich and sustain schools;

- Build public will and support to improve outcomes for the city's children and youth (Grady et al., 2007; Henig, 2009; McGlynn, 2010; Shen, 2011; Wong & Shen, 2003).

In this community leadership model with the mayor as both the education chief and a leader of the community, the basic concept is to engage public conversation on public education so that school officials can expand their political influence beyond schools to integrate intellectual, social, and financial capacities (Henig, 2009; Portz,

2000; McGlynn, 2010; Wong, 2006; Wong & Shen, 2003). The mayor's unique leadership and authority can influence education issues. As reported by Grady, Rothman, Smith, and Balch-Gonzalez (2007), the success rate for education reforms in their highlighted cities is well documented by examples such as improving Latino achievement in Denver and expanding the support base from the public and corporate sectors and bridging the political gap between school board members and city entities in Akron (Grady et al., 2007; Henig, 2009; Wong & Shen, 2007).

Relevant to this current study, other elected or appointed officials in governmental positions can expand coalitions and interrelationships between groups and schools and encourage groups to be allies and partners with schools (McDonnell, 2009; Wong, 2006; Wong & Shen, 2003). The governmental officials are appointed or elected by the people to lead their community and to be the public trust in all aspects of community life, including education. Among the participant community leaders, there are elected and appointed municipal and state leaders. Just as with other professions, these political leaders have chosen certain communal topics such as education, health, environment, and others to be their specialized interest and commitment to serve.

The participant political leaders selected education as one of their top priorities to improve the quality of life for the citizens in the community and hence the well-being of the community as a whole. As suggested in the study by Grady and colleagues (2007), these municipal and state officials sometimes serve as the mobilizers and other times as the mobilized individuals who bring about changes to key public education issues like increased funding to schools and raising achievement in particular disadvantaged groups. Some of the study's municipal leaders may ally themselves with other state political

leaders from other Congressional districts and act on behalf of all children in the community to draw attention to a host of issues, such as increasing graduation rate for young Black men, reducing crimes, improving juvenile justice, and increasing access to higher education for poor children.

To accomplish these initiatives, the current study's political leaders partnered and built coalitions with local school district officials and the university system to raise awareness about the benefits of having a high school diploma as a necessary start for higher education and to provide the experience of life on a college campus. In addition, these officials allied with local foundations, universities, businesses, and corporations to successfully finance the initiatives if state grants were not available. The common goal for these political officials was to use their authority to influence and tackle school challenges, especially the disparity of academic achievement of Black and Latino students. In essence, these political leaders may vary in ideology and motives, but it is almost certain that they want to partner with the constituents who put them in power and to urgently improve student performance in schools. The political officials' leadership behaviors and practices in their actions and interactions with others in public sphere can be observed and measured; thus, the knowledge gained from studying them can lead to greater understanding of how each individually or collectively behaves and practices to impact and influence public education.

Economic positions. Traditionally, in a homogenous society, community leaders are often viewed as influential individuals whose reputation and professional positions naturally afford them the power (Nix et al., 1977). Because of their positions as top executives, these leaders are the "men of power" and authority with prestige, dominance,

and influence (Hunter, 1953, 1968, p.10, 1980). In the past, these powerful men were often the main community leaders who belonged to a selective and elite group of top decision-makers in the community. Miller (1970) suggested that "of all the mysteries in community power structure none is more hidden than the nature and operation of clique or friendship ties among top influentials" (p. 66). As an original leading scholar in the field of community leadership, Hunter studied the community leaders in various prominent cities under the guise of *Regional City* in 1953 and 1968, and Atlanta subsequently in 1980. Hunter (1953, 1968) identified these prominent community members as the decision makers of all important community concerns such as social issues, economics, and politics (Nix et al., 1977; Preston, 1967).

Those community leaders described in the literature of traditional community influentials are those of "economic, political, and specialist types" (Johns & Kimbrough, 1968, pp. 125-6). Similarly, Miller (1970) indicated that the participation patterns by the top community leaders continued to be from "business, social, civic, and professional organizations" (p. 19). These leaders are considered to have not only positions acquired from their business or organizations but also the reputations gained from their involvement in voluntary and civic organizations. The economic or business leaders who tend to be viewed as positional leaders also "exert the most power in the community affairs because of their characteristic bases of power" (Miller, 1970, p. 9). The economic leaders with prominent positions are the most dominant with community power because of their financial ability, professional aptitude, and formal roles across all spectrum of society. Johns and Kimbrough (1968) stated that the economic influentials tend to own or

control wealth and exert their influence and decision making in the community through "wealth, economic status, or leadership role" (p. 126).

The community influentials may also rely on the reputation that they have within the community because of their active involvement in community activity or their perceived trust from other leaders over duration of time. Because of their long-time activism and/or position in the community, they tend to have "influence greater than most leaders" (Miller, 1970, p. 9). Undoubtedly, the economic and reputed leaders, especially those who may advocate for public education, are important in influencing educational policies. If they can influence local politics and community, they can certainly work with the policymakers to alter the education landscape toward reforms.

Thus, the economic leaders, serving as the community's leading advocates for education, "can alter the political character of a community by their control over political leaders and parties" (Miller, 1970, p. 9). In the current national landscape of education, megabusiness billionaire executives and their foundations, such as Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, Thomas Fordham Foundation, Eli Broad Foundation, and the Walton Family Foundations, exert their powerful voices and preferences for education reform outcomes through their highly financed foundations, sometimes individually and at other times collectively with others in national coalitions. These megabusiness leaders have been known to use their economic power and position to push for education reforms such as standard-based accountability, free-market solution school concept, and small high school initiative. Their collaborative effort has pushed their education agenda to the forefront as the topics of national debate.

In the current study, some of the participant community leaders were philanthropists and executives of the local businesses, foundations, and organizations. By virtue of their positions as heads of these agencies or members of boards of trustees, they had already acquired a reputation as influential leaders on behalf of their own organizations that strongly advocated and acted on initiatives for public education in the community. Some of these economic leaders often pooled financial and intellectual resources to take a lead in impacting public education changes through initiatives such as Quality Education for All (QEA) with its focus on quality preservice teacher training, leadership academy, and highly qualified teachers; PowerUp to provide monetary grants toward teacher's class project, leadership for girls, graduation of black males, and many others. Some philanthropists even contributed monetary support to other education nonprofit organizations to provide afterschool activities such as tutoring, arts, and enrichment in science, math, and reading.

These leaders, in partnership with prominent religious figures, established alliances and local foundations to advance key education issues that they deemed important such as raising the district's graduation rates, decreasing suspension rates of Black students, improving failing schools, implementing common core standards, increasing teacher quality, and supporting whole child education. Because of their financial stability, they might not have chosen to collaborate with others individually or collectively to assist education issues. Meanwhile, they interacted in partnership, and not in competition, with the district staff and board members to maximize the collective efforts in influencing public education reforms at the local and state level. In some instances, the foundation and business entities financed the research study on teachers'

perceptions about school environment and other topics and then provided the findings to the district and the public in order to create civil discourse on what needs to improve and what needs to be celebrated as successes. These leaders and their foundations attempted to advocate quality education through equality and teachers' quality instruction and training. Their financial support subsidized university programs and local districts to train teachers for the urban schools that the economic leaders believed need the greatest attention and care. In a way, they behaved similarly to the national megabusiness elites cited previously. They cared about their community and believe that education was the key equalizer in reducing the achievement gap among children in urban schools. They acted on their beliefs about quality and privatization of education which includes standard-based accountability and school choice in charter schools. By studying the local economic leader's perceptions of behaviors and practices, the public can gain a deeper understanding about how differently they interact with others to carry out plans and how their strategic practices help influence others' behaviors in a coalition or collaboration (Whatley et al., 2012).

Cultural positions. In the current diverse demographics, society no longer remains static in its population, thus diversifying its representations of many subgroups. That said, community is also represented by leaders of various institutions, ethnic and cultural groups, employment agencies, and government, all working with one another on cross-cultural community issues that they deem important (Easterling & Millesen, 2012). Scott (2008) stated that it is a natural progression when community groups who share the same concerns yet have been excluded from the decision-making process tend to unite and establish coalitions to seek change and balance of influence. Particularly when

important policy outcomes seemed to favor and punish different intended targets, these reactions from the constituents could lead to a massive response in an attempt to equalize the balance of influence (McDonnell, 2009). As multiple ethnic groups resettled and built their own communities under the larger context of the dominant and homogenous American community, they faced challenges with structural racism and institutional norms as they created a life in America or maintained an equitable life, in the case of African Americans (Banks, 2006; Nieto, 2005; Nieto & Bode, 2008).

Therefore, their advocacy and activism in education are geared more towards preserving the rights to practice their cultural heritage and language as a means of passing on cultural knowledge and traditions to their youth. Many of the ethnic groups, especially the Asian American communities, tend to emphasize cultural norms based on family and cooperation of community instead of individualism (Ngo & Lee, 2007). From the pluralistic perspective, this interplay between governmental and elected officials and coalitions encourages members to come together and compromise on issues that are important and acceptable to all parties involved for the good of their community or beyond.

Many community leaders may not have the positional power to give control of important decisions and resources, but they may have the personal power to "grant affection, consideration, sympathy, and recognition" (Bass & Bass, 2008, p. 266). These leaders have informal power to influence changes in the community. With that said, this type of informal leadership is closely related to the community pluralism of leadership in current diverse demographics. In community pluralism, informal or influential community leaders are more inclusive of various members "who may be interested in the

policy decision but who are so effectively excluded" because of the lack of positional power (Armstrong, 2008; Gilbert, 1972; Hunter, 1968, p. 235). As Easterling and Millesen (2012) indicated, pluralistic community leadership invites the participation and engagement of an "expanded and diverse group of leaders" (p. 20), making the decision-making process more accessible to all social actors in a social system.

Research on community cultural leaders using their activism and concerns for their community to influence school reforms was extremely limited. However, there was some research that focused on the educational initiatives brought together by community groups—sometimes called intermediary or external support organizations. These intermediary organizations were impactful and composed of concerned parents, church, and civic organizations (Arriaza, 2004; Honig, 2004, 2008; Honig & Hatch, 2004). The literature rarely explored the impact of these community initiatives and how these groups really behaved or interacted with one another to influence school reforms benefiting their children's performance and experience in school. The following sample cases of cultural groups provided some insight into how their leaders exhibited leadership behaviors and practices in order to seek education changes for their community.

Mercado (2012) examined the Puerto Rican parents, students, and educators from within the communities in the Bronx, Manhattan, and Brooklyn who banded together with the Black communities to demand quality teaching focusing on "relatedness" where their students would feel more engaged in learning if bilingual education and teachers were incorporated into their daily curriculum. He indicated that these communities sought local control to recruit and prepare teachers who are bilingual in order for students to have a better connection with the teachers, thus improving school experience and

graduation. Between the 1960s and 2008, K-12 Puerto Rican teachers rose from zero to 1,619; elementary teachers from 200 to 8,922; secondary teachers from 399 to 3,690. Not only did they encourage the local school boards to properly educate their students with the tools and practices needed to matriculate into the local university, they also influenced the federal government to allocate funding for the nation's first bilingual/dual language schools in 1968. In the process of fighting for political and social justice, these grassroots leaders consisting of ordinary parents, students, and educators also demanded and were granted "a new admission policy that guaranteed admission to all New York City high school graduates" (Mercado, 2012, p. 123).

Like the Puerto Rican communities, the Mexican American community in San José, California, had to abandon their constructivist involvement using community collaborative actions with the Salinas Union High School District and instead had to implement an adversarial method using legal means to successfully sue the district to force a policy shift in favor of their children's unique linguistic and cultural needs in small and autonomous schools (Arriaza, 2004). The lawsuit in 1975 began as a last resort after a year of failed efforts to have the school board address their expressed concerns and suggestions to increase academic performance and reduce the high percentage of their children classified as mentally retarded. According to Arriaza (2004), a formal consent agreement was reached in 1979 and updated in 1986 but was found not fully compliant in 1989. Finally, the community persisted until 2003 when all of their conditions were met, changing policies beyond school grounds, and bringing their hope and resilience onto the political landscape.

In both these cases, these ethnic communities had to endure contentious struggles and dedicated hours to continue an onward battle for their rights for years to have an equal and quality education for the children (Arriaza, 2004; Mercado, 2012). Their grassroots and multicultural movements of shared community power still struggled against the centralized power group that endorsed the policies and practices of the old approach "based on strong verbal ability in English, subject matter knowledge that equates with a major in English literature, history and STEM; and scores on teaching tests" (Mercado, 2012, p. 131). In addition, Brown and Beckett (2007) highlighted a group of Black Baptist ministers who partnered with the Cincinnati Public Schools' Discipline Advisory Board (DBA) and the teachers' union to revise Cincinnati's District-Wide Code of Behavior in order to reduce the high rates of suspension and expulsion of African American students. They successfully lobbied the school board to listen to the parents' concerns while facilitating critical dialog between the Black and White communities to alter changes to the student discipline policies. As a result, the non-mandatory suspension dropped about 17% and the expulsion 11.5% in the two years following the implementation of the new policy. Like other ethnic or minority groups, these community leaders recognized the inequality and imbalance of power and influence in educational policies; such "power and influence [should not rest mainly in] the domination of White, middle-class men" (López, 2003). No matter the current struggle among all minority groups with the imbalance of power and influence, their grassroots actions forged stronger collaborations with other minority groups in a conjunctive relationship (Nix et al., 1977), building a greater understanding within their own communities.

Community leaders from various ethnic and cultural communities become involved in their community activism to affect change in bringing social equality and equity to their groups because they experience the daily struggle in this supposedly democratic society. Their activism in the community may be religious, educational, and social in order to gain economic opportunities and political influence that may not naturally be afforded to them as to other traditional top leaders. To them, education is the key gateway to access mainstream America. Clearly, many ethnic community leaders want their children, students, families, and communities to be well and successful in the context of the greater community.

For many Asian American ethnic cultures such as Vietnamese, Lao, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean, community represents a large family, which means relationships in general (Bankston, 1996, p. 125). Thus, the community cultural leaders banded together to create a communal extended family and to maintain the cultural heritage that they brought with them from their homeland to a new home in the United States (Bankston, 1996). In essence, their community involvement provided the physical and psychological means of stability in a new country for their youth to excel in schools and eventually find upward mobility.

For the Zuni community and other Native American communities, the community leaders' activism intended to achieve "educational reform [which] needs to be examined in the context of the 500-year history of education as a battleground between European settlers and Native people" (Rivera & Tharp, 2006, p. 437). Their struggle aimed to have the opportunities to "educate their children within the context of the history, values, goals, and culture of the local tribal" and to speak their Native tongue in schools (Rivera

& Tharp, 2006, p. 437). Obviously, their community activism was not to maintain top positions on the commissions, boards, and organizations or to reinforce the possession of wealth and family status within the community. Their involvement focused on a sense of survival to retain the natural rights to educate and practice aspects of their cultural heritage.

Similarly, the participant cultural leaders in the current study approached their activism from a more pluralistic perspective in an attempt to make a difference in their respective communities. Their involvement in community issues was varied, dealing with health, social topics, discriminations, poverty, crimes, disparities, and education. In this study, the participant cultural leaders, like other community leaders, were passionate about quality education for all students; however, they wanted to be the advocates for the reduction of disparities in student achievement in their ethnic communities. Most of these cultural leaders had no formal authority except from their long-time community volunteerism or their profession. They interacted with others in mass numbers and in multiple low-key memberships. Their intent was to be seen and to speak on behalf of the voices of their disadvantaged community members. Another purpose was to expand their communicative network and join others who shared the same values in order to work collectively in seeking ways to influence K-12 public education (Whatley et al., 2012).

Because of the historical lack of venues for dialogical discourse within the at-large community to voice their concerns, these ethnic leaders often created their own grassroots movements to seek influence through coalitions. Sometimes, they learned the ropes of community activism by volunteering in many community events and deliberately and directly interacting with political officials, making their presence known

and building trust within their community and the mainstream society. There appeared to

be a belief that by "getting involved in the political process, the community leaders are

ensuring the educational policies and practices [are] consistent with the beliefs and values

of those who are most affected by [the forming of the legislation]" (Mercado, 2012, p.

113).

In summary, the above literature review in community leadership described the

different types of community leaders based on their political, economic, and cultural

positions and briefly highlighted cultural groups in their activism for education. The

literature review revealed distinct structural composition, approaches, behaviors, and

practices among the types of cultural/ethnic communities and traditional leaders in civic

responsibilities. Traditional community leaders were mainly wealthy businessmen who

had extensive connections with lawmakers and close relationships with other leaders

similar to them. Their powerful economic status and prominent positions in the

community allowed them to be the decision makers for the community in many aspects

of communal life, including education. As a community became more pluralistic, the

community leaders seemed more inclusive and open to other members in mainstream

society.

For the purposes of this study, the community leaders were defined as those who

put education as a priority in their service to the community and as those who represented

diverse demographics in the community. They shared a common interest in improving

public education and were known to carry out actions from a pluralistic perspective to

advance the community socially, politically, and economically. The participants for this

study were specifically chosen to mirror and represent as closely as possible the

population diversity shown in the U. S. Census Bureau State & County QuickFacts for the county and state. However, the researcher deliberately chose the slightly more minority participants because these community leaders were not often included in the decision-making processes. The three main categories of positions of community leaders were used in the hope that the literature could provide some clarifications in explaining the findings on the way different community leaders perceived their leadership behaviors and practices used to influence K-12 public education. Their positions as political, economic, and cultural leaders may indicate distinct or no difference in how each individually and/or collectively exercises leadership behaviors and actions or interactions with others to build coalitions to maximize their impact on K-12 education issues. But it is important to find out. In addition, some cultural groups were highlighted in the literature review to showcase some behavioral values that the cultural leaders possessed in order to propel them into actions on behalf of their community youth and preservation of their cultural identities or cultures in general. Even though these political, economic, and cultural community leaders, acting on behalf of their communities as indicated in the literature review, all shared the same advocacy in public education, they exercised their leadership differently depending on their life situations, lived experiences, and cultural backgrounds.

Theoretical Framework

Given the complexity of this research topic examining external influencers on K-12 public education system, distilling the analytical frame to just one definitive theoretical perspective to make meaning from the leadership behaviors and practices of the current study's participants would not be useful. Therefore, this researcher chose to

explore and design a theoretical framework based on multiple leadership theories to explain leader influence from varying perspectives and disciplines. For this study, leadership was approached from two perspectives, individual and collective. In the individual approach, transformational and charismatic theories were applied to understand the community leaders themselves and their behaviors and practices. From the collective perspective, distributed and collaborative leadership theories were employed to provide foundation and explanations as to how some leaders interacted with other individuals or groups to influence K-12 public education for the good of the entire community.

In addition, coalition theory was also incorporated within the theoretical framework for this study in order to better understand how leaders behaved and interacted with others to build a coalition of individuals or organizations that had similar visions, missions, beliefs, and values about public education to provide quality education to all students. In this process, community leaders aligned their partnership with similar purpose to affect education change or policy reform. Coalition theory provided an explanation of the findings as to how particular community leaders' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and practices used were grouped together with the perspectives of other community leaders, depending on their individual or organizational beliefs and values about K-12 public education.

Leadership behaviors and practices. Leadership is defined, interpreted, and applied in many different ways. As leaders, they are expected to have certain responsibilities, values, behaviors, skills, traits, personalities, and characteristics in personal, professional, or public situations that they personally use to influence others in

order to achieve a common goal. Because behaviors are the person's characteristics in context depending on the situation, a particular leader would likely exhibit a specific set of behaviors that is expected of the individual in a certain environment, task, or group (Biddle, 1979). Leadership behaviors are categorized into a *hierarchical taxonomy* based on task, relation, and change (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002). According to Yukl, Gordon, and Taber (2002) and Yukl, O'Donnell, and Taber (2008), leadership behaviors are comprised of supporting, recognizing, developing, consulting, delegating, clarifying, planning, networking, advocating change, monitoring, modeling, empowering, representing, and envisioning in order to improve the performance of the followers. Similarly, Bottomley et al. (2014) categorized leadership behaviors in four tiers: vision-builder (vision casting, values, and building trust), standard-bearer (establishing ethics, execution, and culture/climate), integrator (inspiring change, orchestrating activity, and evaluating success), and developer (teaching, training, and coaching) that could contribute in transforming effective leaders.

Because leadership behavior categories are observable, measureable, and yet distinct (Yukl, 2012; Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002), they are useful units of leadership models to identify, describe, and quantify in the analysis of the findings. With a diverse group of participant community leaders, their leadership behaviors can be generically observed and clustered into different categories in order to compare and contrast. Similarly, actions and practices are the results of the leaders' behaviors, which can then be grouped and analyzed in the findings using factor analysis for Q methodology. In addition, behaviors exhibited by a leader and his or her manifestations of those behaviors in practice can effectively or ineffectively influence followers individually or partners or

collaborators in a coalition. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, different leadership models were largely focused on the leaders' behaviors and practices and how they individually or collectively approached leadership to impact change in K-12 public education.

   Individual leadership. In the individual perspective, the theoretical framework was based on transformational and charismatic leadership theories. To be a successful community leader, one could not just lead as a manager of a few events and expect others to follow or to collaborate repeatedly in the following months and years in the community. Someone would be required to lead with highly ethical values, vision, and purpose and inspire others with shared views to do the same as seen in the transformational and charismatic leaders.

   Transformational leadership theory. Transformational leadership theory is an overarching model to explain the "articulation and representation of a vision" exhibited by the study's participants, the community leaders (Rowold, 2005). Transformational leadership refers to the process when an individual inspires another's aspirations and consciences to fulfill his or her greatest potential as he or she practices those same values and beliefs used by the individual leader (Northouse, 2010). During this process of influence, the demeanor, practice, and action of a leader may express a sense of shared values and beliefs with the followers, thus encouraging the followers to emulate the behaviors and affecting them into actions as well (Biddle, 1979). Bass (1999) defined transformational leaders as individuals who ensure the followers with the possibility of accomplishing far beyond their own interests by being concerned for others. In essence,

the leaders use their leadership behaviors to consider the followers' personal development and help stimulate them with opportunities to become more empowered.

To expand the domains of leadership, Quatro, Waldman, and Galvin (2007) concurred with Burns' (Northouse, 2010) perspective that transformational leadership is similar to moral leadership, where leaders not only move to Kohlberg's (Eggen, 2011) moral development stage, but inspire others to act with morality and ethics. In this respect, moral and ethical values are the expected characteristics of the behaviors of transformational leaders. Because of these highly-held values, transformational leaders independently conduct themselves with honor and justice in moving society forward. Their goal is to help others aspire to achieve beyond ordinary tasks. Similarly, Bass (1999) stated that transformational leaders tend to "uplift the morale, motivation, and morals of their followers" (p. 9).

According to Bass and Bass (2008), transformational leadership emphasizes the leaders' ability to motivate others to aim high and beyond ordinary expectations. Under this model, transformational leadership has five indicative factors. These factors are inspirational motivation, idealized influence by attribution, idealized influence by behavior, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation attributed to community leaders as transformational leaders (Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; McCleskey, 2014; Rowold, 2005). Barbuto and Burbach (2006) described transformational leadership in similar terms, except that they did not separate the types of influences into attribute or behavior. Bass (1999) and Northouse (2010) expressed those same four leadership factors but equated idealized influence with charisma.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher focused on the *influence* indicator with the indicated two characteristics, attribute and behavior, of transformational leadership. First, the idealized influence by attribution was associated with the charismatic characteristics that allow the community leaders with formal or nonformal social position to affect change in K-12 public education landscape. Second, the idealized influence by behavior was identified with how community leaders exercise their behaviors and practices in order to collectively influence others towards common values and the will of the community. Interestingly and importantly, Bono and Judge (2004) identified studies that concluded that transformational leadership behaviors are trainable or learnable. The implication was relevant to the current study in that emerging community leaders could also learn from the current study's participant leadership behaviors and practices to influence education reform or other worthwhile initiatives in their community.

Charismatic leadership theory. Another approach to leadership theory in this study was the perspective of charismatic leadership. In recent years, charismatic leadership has been closely aligned with the definition of transformational leadership (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Northouse, 2010). Bass (1999) identified the idealized influence attribute of transformational leadership as the same as charisma. Quatro et al. (2007) also stated that charismatic leadership is the main component of transformational leadership since both share similar characteristics of ethics and morality. However, both of these are not necessarily present in all charismatic leaders, as seen in Adolf Hitler and Saddam Hussein. Charismatic leaders may be able to influence or inspire other to expand beyond their ordinary ability; however, their lack of a specific set of behaviors in ethical and

moral values can transform their actions and practices into something more for their own selfish needs instead of for developing collective leadership. Due to this potential dichotomy, Quatro et al. (2007) separate charismatic leadership into two branches. One is socialized charismatic leadership, which identifies individuals who emphasize communal goals in order to benefit the greater good for society while encouraging others to fulfill their own spiritual needs. They have a sense that it is their moral and ethical obligation to help and empower the followers to achieve their own potential.

On the other hand, personalized charismatic leadership focuses on the leaders' personal goals. While personalized charismatic leaders may have socially-oriented interests for society, they tend to pursue these communal interests for personal recognition and benefit rather than for the greater good of the community. According to Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993), charismatic leaders have the ability to inspire the followers to alter their values and self-identity so that the followers can recognize and adopt those values in order to act on them. The point is for the followers to change their behaviors from the interest of the self to the interest of others, shifting from the individual to the collective perspective. Another aspect of charismatic leadership is that these leaders emphasize a positive message to their followers with encouragement and high expectation, exuding confidence in the followers' ability to achieve the collective goals (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). In other words, the charismatic leaders find good values in the followers and focus on those aspects in building a sense of confidence in the followers to accomplish the collective tasks, not just for themselves, but for the good of the organization.

Charismatic leadership refers to charismatic behaviors and effects that a leader has on others based on the leader's personality characteristics, such as dominance, desire to influence, self-confidence, high expectation, and moral values (Bass & Bass, 2008; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Northouse, 2010). In essence, charismatic leadership implies that leaders have a specific set of behaviors enabling them to exude self-confidence to others, which not only heightens their own trustworthiness and competence but also appeals to a sense of affection and loyalty in others (Northouse, 2010). Bass and Bass (2008) identified charismatic leadership as the ability of leaders to envision the possibilities and challenges of their organizations or causes and to articulate those in alignment and harmony with the vision of the organization as they plan for actions to implement the vision.

In sum, the definition of transformational and charismatic leadership emphasizes the characteristics of these leaders, which, in turn, attribute to the leaders a specific set of behaviors that they exhibit. Both types of leadership models illustrate how leaders individually enable and inspire others to overcome obstacles and accomplish the desired goal for themselves and for the community. These theories provided helpful guidance in the findings by identifying various leadership quality behaviors that belonged to community leader participants, and the way the leaders used their leadership behaviors and transformed them into practices to impact community education. By the same token, as community leaders interacted with other leaders from diverse backgrounds and cultures, the public could gain insight into how their individual experiences collectively influenced K-12 public education.

Collective leadership. As stated earlier, community leaders exercise their

leadership behaviors and practices in a way that fulfills a common goal for the greater

good. Their collective leadership tendency is to transform not only themselves but rather

work to help transform others. The collective leaders prefer a distributed leadership or

collaborative leadership approach as they build a coalition or tap into wider sources of

leadership to maximize their social capacity and sometimes the social capital of their

organizations. Collective leadership tends to focus on building capacities from a variety

of other leading members within the organization or coalitions that do not necessarily

have formal positions (Leithwood & Mascall, 2008). Collective leadership suggests

groups of people working together for some common activities to benefit their

organization, society, or community as a whole, building a democracy of principles based

on shared tasks. In effect, this leadership perspective is viewed as an organization

phenomenon because of its lack of hierarchical structure that flattens out the leadership at

the top and spreads it horizontally. The horizontal structure of collective leadership

emphasizes sharing of decisions, ideas, tasks, and reflections. By nature, community

leaders tend to operate in groups. For the purpose of the current study, the theories of

distributed leadership and collaborative leadership are used to help explain the findings

about the way community leaders share leadership to achieve the communal goals for the

good of everyone.

Distributed leadership theory. Specifically, distributed leadership theory

emphasizes the leaders' practices that are being distributed to other formal and nonformal

leaders throughout an organization (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001). In essence,

distributed leadership offers leadership opportunities to informal or potential leaders that

may easily be overlooked, hence increasing the capacity of the organization by

capitalizing on the resources of an organization. In similar fashion, Leithwood and

Mascall (2008) explained that distributed leadership values strengths and leadership

potentials among informal leading members of the organization, which encourages these

members to feel motivated to achieve the mission of the organization and to help

decrease the formal leader's workload while increasing the participation of informal

leaders. Spillane (2005) suggested that leadership practice encompasses the actions of the

individuals; therefore, distributed leadership requires leaders to interact with other leaders

and followers in the context of environment or situation. This distributed perspective of

leadership was helpful in analyzing the current study's findings concerning the behaviors

and practices of leaders used as they interacted with other informal and formal

community leaders. The level of interactions between leaders with other formal leaders

and leaders with followers depended on the situations in terms of shared education

concerns.

   Collaborative leadership theory. The term *leadership* is defined as a continuous

process in which an individual influences not only the self but also others into achieving

a common goal (Gialamas, Pelonis, & Medeiros, 2014). This definition and others that

were discussed previously tend to suggest that leadership requires leaders to lead and

interact with others to accomplish a mission. As individuals use their influence to

persuade, to enforce, and/or to share tasks to move toward a defined goal agreed by

various parties within a group or groups, the relationships among these members become

a partnership or collaboration (Gialamas et al., 2014). This collaborative leadership

model encourages team members to partake in the decision making and responsibility of

a shared task. The implication is that collaborative leaders act interdependently yet still retain their own status and role separately as they come together to accomplish a common goal. Their leadership structure tends to be informal, horizontal, and temporal based on a mutual project (Kramer & Crespy, 2011; Raelin, 2006). However, sometimes groups can remain collaborative members with one another after the mutual goal is achieved.

Raelin (2006) stated that collaborative leadership is a venture where all members have a chance to be involved in the decision making, implementation of the decisions, and sharing of successes. Because collaborative leadership is both concurrent and collective, the task can have more than one leader leading, thus sharing their own situational expertise and talent which can yield more influence or power to provide greater benefits to the organization, partnership, or coalition (Kramer & Crespy, 2011; Mendenhall & Marsh, 2010; Raelin, 2006). Even though collaborative leadership allows individual leaders to share their own interests or ideas for a specific organization, the structural leadership is mutual, especially when leaders are joined together in coalitions to maximize resources or results. Genuine collaborative leaders may act assertively at times, but they are cognizant of others' feelings and perspectives as they all engage in accordance with a belief that everyone counts. Because the collaborative effort is intended to be specific and short-term, their goal is to focus on solution, listen to each other's perspective in the decision making process, and compensate each other in a give-and-take partnership (Grover & Lynn, 2012; Kramer & Crespy, 2011; Northouse, 2010).

Collaborative leadership, then, requires everyone's contribution to the success of a collaborative environment. In essence, collaborative members share the same rank in the group in decision making, setting of a goal, action planning, and other functions of

the team; therefore, the collaborative leadership is more democratic and also similar to

that of distributed leadership where there is no hierarchy in the structure (Raelin, 2006;

Whatley et al., 2012). These scholars identified collaborative leadership as leaders having

a tendency to cross boundaries and ensure partnerships with other entities in a way that is

mutually beneficial, informative, respectful, and productive for all. Collaborative leaders

are not just interacting with other leaders for themselves, but they are making connections

for their own group, expanding the group's social capital (Easterling & Millesen, 2012;

Whatley et al., 2012).

Relevant to the current study, collaborative leadership theory served as a guide in

understanding how different or similar community leaders exercise this type of leadership

to achieve the maximum effort in impacting change in K-12 public education. This theory

of collaborative leadership implied that, in order for collaborative leaders to successfully

work or interact with one another, they were bound together in a deep belief of collective,

mutual, and concurrent commitment and individual respect for everyone. Through this

leadership lens, the leaders' perceptions of the type of collaboration or partnership used

were grouped in the findings to reveal how their belief of collective, mutual, and

concurrent commitment affected how they worked and whom they chose to collaborate

with to maximize their influence in K-12 public education. Specifically, collaborative

leadership was particularly important in the perspective of shared power and influence in

order to analyze how leaders work or interact with others to collectively impact changes

in public education.

Coalition theory. Besides the distributed and collaborative leadership theories

under the auspice of the collective leadership approach, coalition theory also provided a

valuable basis in explaining how leaders differently or similarly perceived their

leadership practices, such as pooling their resources or allying with one another to

advance a specific agenda on education concerns in the community. In the early history

of coalition in research, the concept was used to explain conflicts within an organization

as members worked with one another in various like-minded or skilled groups to achieve

the identifiable goals of the organization (Stevenson et al., 1985). Kegler and Swan

(2012) explained that community coalitions were created to provide opportunities for

community members to achieve a common goal. Similarly, many researchers identified

coalitions as persons or groups of different entities, coming together to maximize their

influence and transform their efforts into a greater and more collective movement

(Stevenson et al., 1985). Specifically, Stevenson, Pearce, and Porter (1985) defined

coalition to be

> An interacting group of individuals, deliberately constructed, independent of the
>
> formal structure, lacking its own internal formal structure, consisting of mutually
>
> perceived membership, issue oriented, focused on a goal or goals external to the
>
> coalition, and requiring concerted member action. (p. 261)

According to these researchers, the coalition was meant to be temporal because its

members all belonged to other subgroups within an organization but were bound together

with a focused task at the time. Kegler and Swan (2012) suggested that coalitions came

together and established advocacy for a particular concern, thus providing a public sphere

for civil discourse on the needs of the community, especially those who had been

historically disenfranchised. These accesses provided by coalitions invited diverse

members of a community to share not only their challenges but also their unique

perspectives, knowledge, and ideas on communal issues. Sometimes, coalitions even set short-term objectives, according to the function and action of governmental officials. For example, local education coalitions may decide that the next steps of their agenda should be dealing with their advocacy for common core standards, depending on the decision made by state officials on the type of standardized test to be required of all students in the state.

In the current study, the coalition theory was applied with the external organizational structure outside of schools. Conceptually, the individuals of different organizations who shared similar ideologies or values about public education were independently formed to focus on a particular and current issue. Their purpose was to raise awareness about that issue, interact, and then act towards the goals. For example, a coalition of community leaders who partnered to abolish the school grade policy interacted and coordinated their efforts and resources to influence policy makers. The structure was not permanent but required a temporary leader to take charge on behalf of the coalition concerned with the abolishment of school grades; however, the decision making in this effort was not necessarily hierarchical as long as the actions were aligned with the goal of the coalition to abolish school grades. Coalition theory was helpful in understanding how community leaders differently or similarly collaborated with other leaders and used their leadership practices and activities to impart their influence on a collective level. In the development of coalitions, these individuals learned to compromise, which in turn affected policy dynamics; thus, policy reform content was subject to change. Educational policy reforms had often been in a state of constant change or flux. Therefore, coalition leaders in a collaborative effort often transformed

themselves and traversed their leadership behaviors and practices within the coalition structure to get things done. One might be a powerful leader in a particular education agenda or concern in which the individual was specialized; however, that person could be a follower-leader in another that was led by someone else so that the coalition dynamics prospered for the good of the coalition.

Summary

In conclusion, education reformers want to find innovative ways of educating children so that students are engaged and successful in learning regardless of their backgrounds, ethnicity, race, socioeconomic status, and abilities. Even though everyone agrees that education needs to be changed to improve student performance, the national debate about the best approaches to education reforms has been contentious, sometimes emotionally or politically. Ideology with strong financial and political backing tends to have a greater chance of pushing the education agenda to the forefront. In the last three decades, the standards and accountability movement as education reform has definitely become the cornerstone for public debate on education.

The accountability movement had strong support from national education foundations such as the Eli Broad Foundation, Thomas Fordham Foundation, Walton Family Foundation, and Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation that are founded and governed by megabusiness billionaires (Ravitch, 2010). The accountability concept was based on the free-market enterprise and competition that echoed throughout the corporate business world. The idea of competition was to ensure that parents had the options of where and how they wanted their children to be educated and to encourage traditional schools to work harder for the children; if not, other private entities could compete for the

same service of educating students. School choice with vouchers was believed to be the best option to combat eroding schools in America. In the end, it would be a win for all, parents, educators, and especially students who will successfully graduate from high performing schools.

Standards and accountability are embedded in almost all of the major federal and state education reform laws such as the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. Students and parents of low-performing schools are given public vouchers to subsidize their schooling elsewhere in a school of choice at a private or public charter school like KIPP. The charter schools are typically considered public schools, licensed by the state and monitored by the district; however, they are managed by EMOs or CMOs.

The idea of choice seems to empower the parents, as tax payers, with the option to use public vouchers for their chosen charter school. With the exception of KIPP, a nonprofit charter school managed by CMOs, many charter schools were created to compete with public schools by offering a competitive choice to the traditional schools and served as a remedy for traditional public schools. However, the anticipated results that charter schools will prove more successful than public schools are inconclusive (Heilig et al., 2012; Ladson-Billings, 2006; Ravitch, 2010). For example, the Boston's charter schools were reported as having impressive success based on their eighth-grade math scores, outperforming many other public schools in Massachusetts. However, upon closer look at the data, *Boston Globe* in 2009 found that, when compared to traditional public schools, these same charter schools had a significantly smaller population in percentage of special education and ELL students. Another example is from the Stanford study in 2009, sponsored by the Walton Family Foundation and Dell Foundation, the

proponents of charter schools, in which it was found that more than 80% of charter schools perform about the same as or worse than public schools (Ravitch, 2010). Another concern with charter schools is that, because they receive limited public finance to operate and administer, they heavily partner with other national businesses and corporations for grants. In this partnership, their curriculum content and leadership structure often reflect a similar ideology to that of their financiers (Ladson-Billings, 2006).

The literature review on community leadership indicated some distinct features and characteristics of political and economic leaders and cultural organizations. Unique to their position, the economic community leaders were more prominent as a result of their financial status, which made them the most influential of the three, according to some researchers. Next, the political leaders were influential because they were appointed or elected to be the public trust for communal concerns and well-being, such as the education of children. These political leaders followed different ideologies and motives, but they certainly wanted to partner with the constituents who put them into power in order to increase student performance in schools. The cultural leaders were the representatives of the underserved subgroups within the community at large. In addition, they did not have the positional power to exert control over important decisions and resources, but they had informal power to influence changes in the community. The participant community leaders in the current study dedicated personal time and energy to forward the issues of education in their work and life. They considered this activism for public education as a public calling to enhance or maintain education as a quality commodity for their community.

Even though the research topic examined community leaders as external influencers of K-12 public education system, this researcher was not successful in identifying one definitive theoretical perspective to address the behaviors and practices of the current study's participants. Therefore, a theoretical framework based on multiple leadership theories was employed to explain leader influence from varying perspectives and disciplines. Leadership was approached from two perspectives, individual and collective. Under individual approach, transformational and charismatic leadership theories were applied to, perhaps, provide guidance in the analysis of the findings, relating how leaders perceived their ability to enable and inspire others to affect change in K-12 public education. From the collective perspective, distributed and collaborative leadership was used to help in the analysis of the way community leaders interacted and shared leadership actions to achieve the communal goals for the good of education progress in the community. Through collective leadership, leading community members within an organization or coalition do not have a formal or hierarchical structure; therefore, they tend to emphasize sharing of decisions, ideas, tasks, and reflections of their collaborative efforts. Lastly, community leaders inherently need to partner with others, to connect themselves with others, and to serve the community needs in greater capacity. Coalition theory was appropriate to examine different or similar tendencies community leaders used to ally with one another in their daily interactions in order to maximize their influence for greater impact in K-12 public education. To identify the community leaders' different or similar perspectives of their own leadership behaviors and practices used to influence education concerns, the researcher used Q methodology, which would be explained in the following Chapter 3.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The purpose of this study was to explore community leaders' perceptions about their leadership behaviors and practices in influencing K-12 public education. Through the use of Q methodology, the study was designed to identify, describe, analyze, and compare subjective perceptions shared by community leaders regarding how they influenced public education policy. This understanding of community leaders' perceptions could help educators and education advocacy groups to work with these influentials to endorse and advocate for reforms that work best for all students, especially the disadvantaged groups. In addition, such understanding can provide aspiring community leaders with additional tools and approaches that may be useful to their efforts to influence K-12 public education. Some of these additional tools and approaches may include those that assist them to work with other leaders to maximize their collaborative efforts to influence public education reforms at the local, state, and national levels. Q methodology was identified as a research method, well-suited for the examination of human subjectivity (Kerlinger, 1972) and, thus, was used for this study to explore the research question: How do community leaders perceive that their leadership behaviors and practices are influencing K-12 public education? Through this question and accompanying methodological approach, the researcher sought to collect the operant subjective perspectives held by diverse community leaders regarding their perceptions of the leadership behaviors and practices they use to influence public education policy in order to identify, describe, and make meaning from the various collective perceptions shared by participants.

In this chapter, the content will be presented in the following order beginning with the research question and the appropriate selection and use of Q methodology in order to investigate that question. Next, the researcher provides an overview of Q methodology and its usefulness in exploring human subjectivity, particularly for this study. Following the description of Q methodology and its application with this study, study participants are described along with how they were identified and recruited, and the ethical considerations regarding their participation are explained. In the next section, the researcher describes the research design, including the construction of the research instrument, or Q sample, method of data collection and the procedures used to do so, the treatment of data, and the data analysis processes. The chapter progresses to a discussion of study delimitations and limitations and a statement from the researcher. Finally, a summary of Chapter 3 is included as well as a preview of Chapters 4 and 5.

Methodology

Research question and the *fit*. Howe and Eisenhart (1990) suggested five general criteria for high-quality educational research; these include the *fit,* effective application of data collection and analysis technique, overall warrant, alertness to and coherence of background assumptions, and value constraints. The criterion highlighted in this section is fit methodology, which means that the "research questions [should] drive data collection techniques and analysis" (Eisner, 1998; Howe & Eisenhart, 1990, p.6). The implication is that once the research questions are sound and "have potential to be useful" in a specific discipline, a best fit methodology must be chosen carefully to align with the research questions in regard to data collection and analysis techniques (Howe & Eisenhart, 1990; Marshall & Rossman, 2011, p. 10). This standard criterion was applied

to this study by revisiting the research question first discussed in Chapter 1. The research question, *How do community leaders perceive that their leadership behaviors and practices are used in influencing K-12 public education*?, articulates an intention to identify, describe, and understand the subjective perspectives of the participants. Since the research question was exploratory in nature to discover the perspectives of the participants, it required a research methodology that was primarily exploratory and was designed to measure human subjectivity.

As a result of the focus on the perceptions of community leaders, the researcher sought a methodological approach that was designed to maintain the closest possible proximity to the subjective perceptions of the participants. Perceptions are also generally complex and influenced by many different elements, such as lived experiences, backgrounds, relationships, and knowledge. Just as most perceptions are complex, for this study, community leaders' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and practices in influencing K-12 public education are indeed multifaceted. For instance, the perceptions of these community leaders are likely formed by many different elements: their own perspective of leadership, their own purpose and action in public education, their interrelations with the state lawmakers, collaborative relationships with other community leaders from various ethnic backgrounds, and knowledge of the impact of previous attempts to advocate or endorse particular education reforms. Thus, the research question for this study required a methodology that was designed to capture and represent the complexity of individual perceptions regarding how they influence public education policy. After a careful exploration of various methodological approaches, the researcher chose Q methodology because it was an exploratory research technique, maintained close

proximity to the participants' perspectives at various stages of the research process, and was designed to provide participants with the opportunity and structure to represent the complexity of their viewpoints (Brown, 2006; Kerlinger, 1972).

Overview of Q methodology. William R. Stephenson independently wrote in a letter to *Nature* dated June 30 and published August 24, 1935, that person correlations are an alternative means to conventional factor analysis by inversion process from an N population being measured by tests to N tests being ranked by persons (as cited in Brown, 1980). In other words, Q methodology represents correlation of persons as opposed to conventional correlation, R methodology, in terms of Pearson's *r* values. Specifically, Q factor analysis uses a transposed data matrix in which persons are factored across the sorted variables. The *person* factors, or clusters, that result from Q analysis represent prototypic ways of thinking about the variables being interpreted by the participants in the study. Because Q methodology has similar characteristics to both qualitative and quantitative research designs, it is referred to as *qualiquantology* (Watts & Stenner, 2005). Since 1986, Q methodology had become an alternative research design based on its theoretical basis that offered a different "attitude" in the process of seeking answers through discoveries rather than experimental tests. According to Stephenson (1967), Q methodology uses participants as variables and allows these persons to assign their attitudes, feelings, and beliefs about a particular research topic as they rank statements during the Q sort process. Therefore, the subjectivity in the measurement of the person's Q sort is the main focus of Q methodology. Befitting this current study, Q methodology is used to cluster, or group, the community leaders' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing K-12 public education.

While the traditional R methodology is detached from the "self" who performs the test to gain objectivity, Q methodology highlights the subjectivity in the measurement as the person Q sorts the statements. Subjectivity centers on an opinion, attitude, and belief of the person. Stephenson (1967) identified opinions as the "self- referent statements" (p.14) in the form of Q statements. During the Q sort, the participants use *self-reference* of the statements in order to rank them from most to least significant (Brown, 2002; Stephenson, 1967; Watts & Stenner, 2012). In other words, the researcher collects rankings of a series of self-referent statements from the persons about a specific area of interest. These statements are comprehensive and refer to the sample individuals' perspectives or viewpoints about their world in relation to themselves; therefore, these perspectives do not necessarily reflect objective facts. The important consideration is how the participants place these self-relating viewpoints on a rating scale that they see most relevant to themselves. The participants project their feelings, beliefs, and values as they clarify their relationship to these preferential statements by indicating their level of importance from greatest to least (Brown, 2006). Therefore, participants impose a certain level of subjectivity into the process.

In any field of Q study, a collection of self-referent statements gathered from participants can indicate cross-knowledge that people may have "shared knowledge and meaning from which it is possible to extract an identifiable universe of statements" (Watts & Stenner, 2012, p. 33). This set of universally common statements is referred to as a concourse (Brown, S. R., 2006; Watts & Stenner, 2012). Watts and Stenner (2012) define a concourse as "the overall population of statements from which a final Q set is sampled" (p. 34). In a world of diverse viewpoints and perspectives relating to any field

of study, the concourse theory allows participants' cultural heritage and upbringing to be

a part of this shared knowledge, thus individualizing the context of the statements. A

concourse of any Q study is formed by a set of expressions made by the individuals

chosen for a specific purpose. In essence, the concourse's outcome depends greatly on

the purpose of the research question in Q studies set by the researcher.

As Q methodology focuses on the perspectives and viewpoints of the participants,

they are asked to perform a Q sort (Stephenson, 1977), requiring their subjectivity in the

process. This subjectivity reflects the participants' behavior and their surroundings

(Watts & Stenner, 2012). During the event of sorting, the participants' behavior is

evidenced in the order of importance that they assign the statements from the Q sample.

The Q factors represent commonalities among the attitudes, beliefs, and feelings

expressed by the participants; thus, these factors become "operants within the minds of

the [participants]" (Stephenson, 1977, p. 11). As a result, the factors act as attitudes

characterized by the way the participants subjectively categorized their viewpoints when

scaling their statements, indicating neither right nor wrong (Brown, 1993). In other

words, the expressions of the participants' subjective viewpoints are the means by which

the participants illustrate and describe their understanding and meaning as they sort the Q

sample items. According to Watts and Stenner (2012), "subjectivity, understood in

operant terms, is simply the sum of behavioral activity that constitutes a person's current

point of view" (p. 26).

Operating counter to R methodology, Stephenson (1953) had proposed that using

persons' responses or statements could invert Spearman's approach to the traditional

factor analysis as the measurement instead of test items. Brown (1972) asserted that "Q

matrix was not the inverse of R but rather . . . [a] transpose . . . [of] the two factor

systems [in reciprocity]" (p. 58). Furthermore, the reciprocity referred to the two different

sets of data matrices and not particularly factor solutions (Brown, 1972). Q methodology

uses persons as variables and tests from persons' statements as measurement units. This

is where the inversion is referred. Instead of the correlation matrix gained from test-by-

tests as variables taken by the participants, Stephenson's correlations are produced from

the responses of persons (Stephenson, 1953, 1967). In effect, Stephenson still used the

Pearson correlations in the data matrix. The only difference here is that self-referent

statements that the participants had ranked according to the importance of their

preferences measure the Q correlations. Stephenson argued that the Q technique when R

methodology is *inverted* can "capture the absolute characteristics or distinct perspectives

of different individuals in a rigorous fashion" (Watts & Stenner, 2007, p. 65). The

traditional R approach can provide statistics of the persons and make generalizations

about the population; however, it does not reveal much information about the persons

who actually perform the tests. The strength of Q is its ability to use complex factor

analysis within the data of the individuals to produce factor scores of one or a group for

an easy comparison in the final illustration (Kerlinger, 1972).

In Q methodology, the sample is not the participants themselves but the

statements, perspectives, or stimuli produced by the participants (Brown, 1980;

McKeown & Thomas, 1988). Basically, Q sample is a "research instrument" (Janson,

Militello, Guajardo, & Guarjardo, 2012, p. 3). These Q statements, sometimes called Q

sample or Q set, are typically subjective and unrehearsed in nature, not analytical or

factual in consideration (Brown, 1993). The sample is naturalistic in that it represents the

persons' perspectives while reflecting the persons' traits and their interactions with others

around them as the participants attribute meaning of significance to the ranking process

(McKeown & Thomas, 1988; Stephenson, 1967). A Q set may be obtained from

interviews, written and projective materials, or even from surveys. In other words, the Q

sample can be gathered from written, oral, visual, tangible, and descriptive stimuli which

lead to answering the research questions proposed for the study (Watts & Stenner, 2012).

In R methodology, the larger the sample, the more reliability and better chances

for statistical significance results. In Q methodology, it would be extraordinarily difficult

to sort through a massive number of statements from across a large parent population. By

applying "Fisher's (1960) experimental design innovations, alternatives to large numbers

became available . . . particularly the factorial variant . . . .[These alternatives] were

quickly integrated into Q technique; . . . they provided a reasonable way for selecting a Q

sample theoretically" (Brown, 1980, pp. 28-29). The strength of the sample is not in the

large number of the participants but in the larger responses that the small number of

participants make, which can later be reduced for the participants to rank.

Like other methods, the research question guides the process and the structure of

the Q sample to be performed by the participants. The Q set items should encourage

participants to respond to the question with ease while illustrating all possible

descriptions of that topic (Watts & Stenner, 2005). The task of creating the Q sample

needs to be rigorous to obtain the final Q set. The final Q set should be supported by

literature and/or theory and "must always be broadly representative of the opinion

domain" based on the subject matter (Watts & Stenner, 2005, p. 75). The size of the Q

sample is typically set around 40-80 statements, but Watts and Stenner (2005)

recommended starting out with a large generation of statements to be condensed at a later time. The most important aspect of the Q set is the way it engages the participants in order to gain the best overall responses.

In his foreword to Stephenson, Brown (1978) stated that "Q sort is like a photograph of subjectivity in action, held still for detailed factor analysis inspection" (p.27). Q sort refers to the process during which participants examine the Q set items, create meaning from them, and then place the statements into different divisions according to their perceived level of significance. The participants offer the descriptions of their self-reference based on an instructed condition set by the researcher. Stephenson (1967) indicated that the participants tend to project their preference and make decisions on the ranking during the Q sorts in unique ways, making the outcomes quite different from one another. Meanwhile, Q sorting conditions participants with instructions to rank their self-descriptions by scaling stimuli items along a continuum from "most like" to "least like," with a centered response option of "neutral" or "unsure." In the process of Q sorting, the participants will be asked to place their statements in three divisions: (+) most like, (-) least like, and (0) neutral/unsure. The piles of divisions of statements are then sorted into a predetermined or forced frequency distribution that resembles a quasi-normal distribution (Stephenson, 1967).

In traditional research methods, a phenomenon is studied through either deductive or inductive reasoning. In Q methodology, Stephenson (1953, 1993) recognized that observations are not absolute or concrete; they are more like "clues pointing towards some potential explanation" giving us insights into the observed phenomenon. Stephenson was adamant that the traditional inductive factor analysis founded by

Thurstone in Chicago and strongly defended by Cattell was not appropriate for his approach to factor analysis for "grounded hypothesis formation and theoretically relevant description" (Zangwill, Kohlberg, & Brenner, 1972, p. xiii). Originally, it was Charles Sanders Peirce who called Stephenson's factor analytical approach the "the logic of abduction" (Zangwill et al., 1972). After that, Stephenson (1953, 1967) called his methodology *abduction* because instances in the research strategy were defined as neither inductive nor deductive. Brown (1980) elaborated further that abduction "begins with effects and pursues potential causes (possibilities)" (p. 237).

As Watts and Stenner (2012) indicated, abductive reasoning is meant for the purpose of discovering new insights and generating theories about a phenomenon. Abduction is not meant for testing or verifying theories. In many cases, this empirical study approach can generate compelling results into deeper understanding of the phenomenon and provide insights for future probes of the study. Stephenson (1953) argued that because the subject's subjectivity is isolated from the researcher in traditional methodologies, the researcher passively observes the unfolding of the meaning of factor configurations. In application of the Q methodological process, Watts and Stenner (2012) explained:

> Abduction always begins with the detection of a surprising empirical fact. The manifest statistical associations between the gathered Q sorts, captured by the correlation matrix, are the first surprise in Q methodology. A series of factors are then derived to provide a plausible theoretical explanation of their appearance. The abductive or after-the-event nature of explanation is nonetheless only guaranteed in exploratory, and not confirmatory, factor analysis. (p. 40)

In short, abduction starts from the observations and data made during the Q sorting

process, into the judgmental or varimax rotation, and finally during the interpretation and

explanation of the study. This entire process of abductive logic requires the researcher to

be intimately involved and actively make notations of the reality being revealed by the

participants' points of view. Thus, the interpretation and explanation of the factor

analysis should reflect these surprise findings and discoveries. No matter how different Q

process is from that of the traditional qualitative and quantitative methodologies, Q

methodology still follows a rigorous set of analytical procedures with a theory or research

phenomenon.

      Participants. The participants in Q study are designated as P set (Watts &

Stenner, 2012). In Q methodology, it is not important to have a large sample of

participants but rather to gain a large number responses produced by the participants in

the concourse, which will be later reduced for the Q sample. The importance of the

participants' responses suggests that the selection of each participant should be made

with "care and consideration . . . to discover relevant viewpoints . . . [that] *matter* in

relation to the subject at hand" (Watts & Stenner, 2012, pp. 70-71). Data from the U.S.

Census Bureau State & County QuickFacts for the county demographic statistics were

deliberately used to quantify the appropriate sample of the participants who might even

have overlapping positions as political, economic, and cultural leaders. Census Bureau

State & County Quickfacts data indicated that the participants' county population

consists of 55.6% White and 44.4 % minorities with 30% African American, 8.3%

Hispanics, 4.5% Asian plus 0.1% Pacific Islanders, 0.4% Native Americans, and 2.6%

mixed races. Statistically, the ratio of 55 % of White to 45 % minorities of the total of

approximately 50 participants could be used in the study which translated to be about 27 White and 23 minority participants for this study.

However, in the years of community service, the researcher recognized that the minority populations were often underrepresented in the communal decision-making processes. Therefore, to increase the voices of the minorities in this study, the researcher used the approximate reverse ratio of 20 White participants and 30 minority participants. Warner and Galindo-Gonzalez (2014) indicated that the approaches to select a sample of key community leaders needed to be pluralistic in order to reduce the "risk of missing underrepresented audiences" (p. 2). Within the 30 minority participants of this study, the proposed composition would be 15 African Americans, 8 Latinos, 5 Asian Americans, and 2 others. The decision for this diverse and purposeful sample was to ensure that the traditionally underrepresented community members were deliberately sought out "because they are not likely to be mentioned by members of the majority groups in the community" (Warner & Galindo-Gonzalez, 2014, p. 2). The participants were specifically chosen to mirror such diversity, thus representing closely these diverse demographics and voices of their cultural communities concerning public education.

As mentioned, the intent of the current study was to include leaders from a pluralistic society, such as top company executives, top organization leaders, government representatives, influential individual professionals, and multiethnic and underserved groups in the community. The community leaders participating in the study would be leaders of companies, state government, local governmental agencies—specifically from the Mayor's office, higher education institutions, the school district, centers for teaching, local organizations, racial/ethnic communities (Asian American, Latino American,

African American, and Caucasian), and other influential individuals. More importantly, these community leaders were also known to consider public education of K-12 as important for their activism and advocacy in the community. The participants were asked in the first survey to list up to five other community leaders who were perceived as important decision makers in times of urgency and crises concerning public education in their community. Therefore, some of the participants for the P set were found through a snowball sampling method.

In Q methodology, Watts and Stenner (2012) recommended "a minimum ratio of two Q-set items to every participant" (p. 72). In other words, if a given study has a 50-item Q set/sample, then the number of participants should not be more than 25. Concurrent with Brown (1980) and Stephenson (1953), Watts and Stenner (2012) indicated that "good studies and analyses might easily be carried out with considerably less" (p. 73) than 40-60 participants as recommended by Q methodologists in the United Kingdom. For the purpose of this current study, the researcher employed up to 50 participants from the community leaders from various demographics to honor the multicultural and multiracial groups along with other leaders from the traditional power model.

The community leader participants selected were activists and advocates of public education as they served the community and were known to have made contributions to advance public education. Because some of the community leaders had worked in the community for a long time and some were well-known by the virtue of their prominence in education at the local and even state level, their identities could be easily recognized

even with codification. Steps were set in place to protect their confidentiality and rights as participants.

      Ethical considerations. As indicated above, Q methodology, like its counterparts of qualitative and quantitative research methodologies, provided means to protect the participants and data materials collected. After the participants categorized their own statements with consideration of significance during Q sort, the statements then were codified with numerical and alphabetical symbols to reduce the chance of others recognizing the identity of the participants prior to being correlated using factor analysis. However, the community leaders could be recognizable due to their unique positions in government or in high-profile organizations in the community. To address this aspect, the researcher alerted these top community leaders of the potential recognition of their identity by some members of the public audience. This was done with an embedded statement in both informed consent forms # 1 and # 2 to the participants, highlighting this potential issue (Appendices A and B). In addition, the researcher allowed the participants the opportunity to decline or discontinue their participation in the study. If they chose to participate, their positions, names, and other pertinent information would be codified in the analysis and interpretation to maintain confidentiality by obscuring recognition of their identities.

Research Design

      There were two basic phases of Q methodology study. First, was the development of the research instrument, called the Q sample or Q set. Second were the collection of individual participant perspectives through the Q-sort process and the subsequent data analysis of those individual participant Q sorts in order to identify, describe, and make

meaning from the statistically distinct factors or shared perspectives that were produced

from the analysis. This section includes the description of the research design of this Q

methodology study, including both of these two requisite phases.

Research instrument. The research instrument of Q methodology is also called

Q sample, which is a set of items created from a concourse. Basically, concourse is a

collection of identifiable and universal statements gathered from the survey administered

to the participants after the IRB proposal was approved. The researcher used UNF's

Qualtrics—a service of data warehousing, emailing survey invitations, and analysis of

research and surveys—to conduct the first survey for a concourse development.

Concourse. Concourse should be general but "representative of the opinion

domain" based on the how the community leaders perceive their roles in influencing the

educational policies (Watts & Stenner, 2005, p. 75). The responses, or self-referent

statements, elicited from the participants illustrate their shared knowledge based on their

individual perspectives and viewpoints on the topic. The final Q sample with a set of

items drawn from the concourse must retain the characteristics of a broad representation

of the opinion field. The following section describes how a concourse was developed

after the IRB proposal was approved.

After a purposeful and snowball sample of up to 50 participants was identified,

the researcher compiled a list of emails and names, with both last and first, and input

them into Qualtrics. The list was called *panel* as used in Qualtrics. For the purpose of this

study, the community leaders represented both the traditional power structure of top

executives of companies, governmental or nonprofit agencies, education-related

institutions, and civic organizations, and the pluralistic social structure from grassroots

movements, such as those representing racial or ethnic groups and subgroups, and all

genders. An initial email via Qualtrics was sent out to the participant panel formally

introducing them to the researcher with an inclusion of the approval by the University of

North Florida's IRB (Appendix C) and a brief statement with the purpose of the research

study and its processes. Next, an email via Qualtrics distributed survey feature was sent

out to the participant panel with a link to the Qualtrics page that contained the initial

survey (Appendix D). However, before the participants could really answer the survey,

the participants were presented with an informed consent #1 (Appendix A) and were

asked to read and check on the *yes* box prior to being allowed to transition into the next

screen for the actual survey. For the purpose of gathering self-referent statements directly

from the participants, the researcher employed the naturalistic approach in gathering Q

statements from the participants. In this first survey for concourse development, the

participants were asked the following questions:

A. How do you perceive your leadership behaviors and practices in influencing

K-12 public education? (Whether on the local, state, and/or national level)

1. Please list up to 5 distinct leadership behaviors that you used to influence

K-12 public education.

2. Please list up to 5 distinct leadership practices that you used to influence

K-12 public education.

B. If there were urgent decisions or crises relating to public education in your

community, who would you want to contact and talk to about your concerns?

Please provide up to 5 names from your community.

In addition to these questions, the participants were asked to include general demographic information as seen at the top of the survey form in Appendix D. For each listing of either five leadership behaviors or practices, the participants were able to write in the spaces provided on the Qualtrics survey essay format. Their statements or responses were compiled into a concourse from which a set of items was created into Q sample for the Q sorts as data for collection and analysis at a later time.

Even though the purposeful sample could have only 30 participants, this survey allowed other names of the community leaders to emerge through a snowball technique (Watts & Stenner, 2012). After the participants completed the survey, they were introduced to another section asking them to provide the names of other influential community leaders that the researcher might have missed or might not know about. The purpose for the research was to have a pool of 40 to 50 participants to participate in the Q sorts in order for enrich the data in the findings and analysis.

Because the researcher had been active in the community on various issues, including being heavily involved in the Asian American community and local education organizations, the researcher came into the study knowing and having worked directly with many different ethnic and racial minority leaders and other civic leaders. The ability to know and interact with these community leaders over the years helped the researcher to identify who these education advocates were and whose perspectives could contribute to the current study. This purposeful and snowball sample of potential participants was compiled in a list of community leaders whose characteristics were described above.

Because all the responses were submitted through UNF's Qualtrics service of data warehousing, the responses of the first survey were securely stored and were only

accessed by the researcher with individual password and permission from IRB, the dissertation chair, and IRB personnel. Qualtrics also allowed the researcher to create an automated reminder email once the first email was sent out. If there were enough responses to create a rich concourse of self-referent statements for Q sorts, then the research could start, reducing the statements to 42 statement items, which were appropriate for Q sorts and adequately addressed the research question. If there were not enough responses, the researcher could generate an automated reminder with the survey Qualtrics link to the participant panel to complete the survey. This concourse did not need to come from all participants as long as it represented the broad sentiment of opinions among the participants.

Q sample. After compiling all of the responses from Qualtrics, the researcher reviewed all of the statements, entered them in a Microsoft Word document file, and sorted them into similar categories of responses. From there, the researcher refined the concourse statements in order to ensure consistent language and format. Next, the researcher consolidated similar or saturated responses and rewrote them into fewer statements that still broadly represented the individual context of the opinion sentiment.

Eventually, the concourse responses were reduced to about 42 statements for the Q sample, to be discussed in the next section. Unlike its R counterpart, Q methodology did not require a large sample size to obtain reliable results and to ensure chances for statistically significance results. A Q sample, or Q set of items, of participants should be specifically chosen to fit the *prima facie* requirements or restrictions to answer the research question (Khare, 1972). The Q sample represents the broad responses made by the participants, not the participants themselves. Thus, the sample is not composed of the

persons as in R methodology but the statements, perspectives, or other stimuli made by participants (Brown, 1980; McKeown & Thomas, 1988). Essentially, the strength of the sample is not in the large number of the participants but in the larger responses that the small number of participants made which can later be reduced as explained above for the participants to rank during the Q sort. Q sample is typically subjective and unrehearsed in nature, not analytical or factual in consideration (Brown, 1993). The items of the Q sample are naturalistic (McKeown & Thomas, 1988) in that they represent the persons' viewpoints, reflecting the persons' traits and their interaction with others (Stephenson, 1967) around them while they attribute meaning of significance to the ranking process.

For the purpose of this study, the Q sample items were naturalistic because they were reflective of the participants themselves. Due to a lack of academic literature on the particular topic of this study, the perceptions of community leaders regarding their leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing educational policies were not available for the researcher to find from archived documents or literature. Therefore, the researcher had to rely on the naturalistic approach to obtain the concourse statements and build a Q sample for this study. In the process of creating a quality Q sample, the researcher exercised three controlling factors in the reduction of the concourse statements to Q sample items. Here were the rationales for the three controlling factors:

1. To encapsulate the essence of a Q study in reflecting participants' distinct perspectives and individual points of view, the researcher wanted to compose the Q sample that represents these unique preferences.

2. The Q sample items should be in a range of 35–50 so it was manageable and not overwhelming for the participants. The purpose was to allow the

participants to be most effectively engaged in the process in order to gain the

best overall responses during the Q sort.

3. The manageable number in the Q sample allowed the participants to complete

the Q sort in a reasonable time allotment of 30 to 45 minutes. Otherwise, the

quality of the responses from the participants would be affected due to a loss

of concentration and interest in the process of Q sorting which would be

discussed at length in another section.

Once the Q sample was determined to represent the broad perspective of the

opinion domain and to specifically address the content of the research question, the

researcher presented the Q sample items to the dissertation chair for approval. With

assistance from the committee chair, the Q sample was formatted into the FlashQ

program (Hackert & Braehler, 2007), an electronic version of Q sorting and an online

tool used to collect data from the Q sorts. The detailed Q sort process will be discussed in

depth in the next section on data collection and procedures.

Methods of Data Collection and Procedures

The data collection and procedures in Q methodology are operated through a

process called Q sort, in which participants rank the Q sample items in the order of

importance depending on their attitude, preference, opinion, and belief. The purpose of a

Q sort is "to provide quantitative data for its samples" (Stephenson, 1953, p. 72). Brown

(1978) indicated that Q sort is a snapshot of subjectivity in action, held in place to be

interpreted in the factor analysis at a later time. Q sorting describes a process during

which the participants examine the Q set items, create meaning from them intrapersonally

and interpersonally, and then rank the statements into different divisions according to the

level of significance to them. In actuality, the participants offer the descriptions of their

self-reference based on an instructed condition set by the researcher in terms of how

many statements are to be placed in the various score scales along the continuum of (+4)

"most like," (0) "neutral/unsure," and (-4) "least like" in an inverted quasinormal

distribution (Appendix E). The participants are instructed to place their statements in a

predetermined distribution, forced frequency distribution, which resembles that of an

inverted quasinormal distribution for each participant; therefore, the process is not simply

about rank ordering of the statements (Stephenson, 1967). Rather it is more like a holistic

ordering of perspectives and viewpoints expressed in the statements.

In the quasinormal, platykurtic distribution, the distribution curve of the

statements is flatter at the center and thicker at the tails, making the responses more

spread out and creating higher standard deviation (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 2003).

However, there is not a universally recommended set of standards for a forced

distribution in a specific shape. In any event, most Q researchers approach Q sorting with

a forced distribution that best allows their participants to sort the Q set items subjectively.

At any time during the Q sorting, the researcher has the responsibility to help participants

to understand the procedure and to provide clarification to the participants without

hindering the participants' freedom to make meaning and to sort their preferences.

For the purpose of the current study, the researcher employed an electronic

version of Q sorting called FlashQ program (Hackert & Baehler, 2007). The Q sample

items are input into the FlashQ program, an online tool used to collect data. However,

before allowing the participants to Q sort, the researcher sent out an email (Appendix F)

via Qualtrics asking the participants from the original panel list to participate in the Q

sort. In addition, an informed consent # 2 (Appendix B) was also provided for the

participation in Q sort. As with the informed consent # 1 (Appendix A), there was a short

statement, alerting the participants, especially the very well-known individuals, of the

potential recognition due to their unique position by readers. The Qualtrics format, then,

prompted readers to accept the research terms and agreement by checking the *yes* or *no*

box. To those participants that agreed to participate in the Q sort, the researcher sent them

an email with a thank-you note recognizing their commitment to help in the study, a brief

explanation in Q sort, and a link to FlashQ for them to begin the Q sorts.

At the beginning of the Q sort embedded in FlashQ, the participants were directed

to a website through the University of North Florida domain. Then, an introductory page

described the study, any risks and benefits of the study, and the continuance of the Q sort,

conducted only with the consent of the participants. Using FlashQ, the participants were

asked to respond to the command for each step and to eventually place each statement

into the predetermined distribution format (Appendix E) until all Q set items were

completed. FlashQ, an online Adobe Flash Player, was used to simulate the activity of

the traditional physical cards during a Q sort. The Q sort results were stored in the

secured server that was only accessible by the researcher and the chair. Another

important note was that the participants were able to access the electronic Q sort at any

time without first viewing the consent agreement.

During the first step in the Q sort, participants were given a Q sample with 42

statements and were advised to first review the statements to familiarize themselves with

the general contents of the entire Q sample. The purpose for this overview of the

statements in the Q sample was to prepare participants for the rank ordering of the Q

sample items (Brown, 1993). In the next step, the participants were conditioned and guided to rank the statements, one at a time, into three divisions according to the level of significance. The three divisions followed a continuum from "least influential of my leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing K-12 public education" (-4) to "most influential of my leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing K-12 public education" (+4) with a central response option of "unsure" at (0)

Once these initial steps were completed, the participants were prompted to transition to another web page with the Q sorting grid viewable on the computer screen. For each Q sort, the participants were then instructed to place the Q sample items of 42 statements for "most like my leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing K-12 public education" starting with the most extreme right end at +4 and "least influence on K-12 public education policy" in the extreme left of the continuum at -4. Then, the participants were advised to return to the right side to place statements with a +3 ranking. The sorting was followed with a return to the left side of the continuum for the placement of the -3 rated statements. The process repeated the same pattern until the participants had completely placed all (+) and (-) statements into the forced distribution, or quasinormal distribution, conditioned by the researcher. The unsure (0) statements were last in the ordering.

As stated previously, Hinkle, Wiersma, and Jurs (2003) indicated that the quasinormal or platykurtic distribution created a somewhat flatter center and thicker tails of the curve, making the responses more spread out and creating a higher standard deviation. Watts and Stenner (2012) suggested that such platykurtic distribution "offers greater opportunity to make fine-grained discriminations at the extremes . . . to maximize

the advantages of the . . . participants' excellent topic knowledge" (p. 80). Because there was no universal recommendation that a forced distribution should be in any specific shape, Q researchers should approach Q sorting with a forced distribution that best allows their participants to sort the Q set items subjectively. In the current study, the statements were arranged in a forced distribution (Appendix E) in the shape that was described here to encapsulate the participants' points of view.

At the end of the Q sort, the participants were prompted to consider whether there were any changes in the rank ordering of the statements. If the participants wished to alter any decisions, they could do so at this point. Otherwise, they were guided to the next section of post Q sort questionnaire (Appendix G). The post-sort questionnaire provided the researcher with additional information to aid in the interpretation of the factors that resulted from the data analysis. The post-sort questionnaire or interview process typically examines

> (a) how the participants have interpreted the items given especially high or low rankings in their Q sort, and what implications those items have in the context of their overall perspective; (b) if there are any additional items they might have included in their own Q set (what they are, why they are important, and so on); and (c) if there are any further items about which the participants would like to pass comment, which they have not understood, or which they simply found confusing. (Watts & Stenner, 2005, p. 78)

In addition, the participants were asked to write comments explaining their rationale for the placement of the two statements on the extreme far right and far left. At the end of the post Q sort questionnaire, the participants were prompted to provide demographic

information (Appendix G). The purpose for this last step was to enrich and/or clarify in the interpretation of the factors that emerge from the data analysis.

Treatment of the Data

Finally, the participants were asked to submit their data electronically. Their responses were sent directly to a database on a secure server located at the University of North Florida. The data were stored with the unique date and time at which the sorts were completed. The researcher was the only person beside the dissertation chair and IRB personnel with access code to the database. As a reminder of the monitoring of the Q sort using FlashQ program in the steps described above, there was an introductory page describing the study and any risks and benefits, which were followed by the consent agreement that the participant accepted before each transitioning screen while using the electronic Q sort.

Data Analysis

In Q methodology, the data analysis focuses mainly on the correlations, factor analysis, and computer computation of the factor scores. In general, the correlation and factor analysis procedures in Q method are mathematically statistical and objective based on computer computations. Brown (1972) asserted that "Q matrix was not the inverse of R but rather . . . [a] transpose . . . [of] the two factor systems [in reciprocity]" (p. 58). Reciprocity referred to the two different sets of data matrices, not particularly factor solutions (Brown, 1972). Q methodology uses persons as variables and tests from persons' statements as measurement units. This is where the inversion is evidenced. Instead of the correlation matrix gained from tests, Stephenson's correlations are produced from the responses of persons (Stephenson, 1953, 1967). With that said, in

effect, Stephenson still used the Pearson correlations in the data matrix. The only difference is that the Q correlations are measured by the Q sample statements that the participants have ranked in accordance with the importance of their preferences. Stephenson argued that the Q technique when R methodology is *inverted* can "capture the absolute characteristics or distinct perspectives of different individuals in a rigorous fashion" (Watts & Stenner, 2007, p. 65).

Since participants categorize their own statements with consideration of significance during the Q sort, the statements are codified and correlated using factor analysis. As a result, a correlation matrix among all Q sorts is produced with eigenvalues, illustrating "100% of the meaning and variability present in the study . . . known as study variance" (Brown, 1972; Watts & Stenner, 2012, p. 98). This variance can help explain the relationships among the Q sorts. The factor analysis is conducted to identify any distinctive pattern among the participants based on their Q sorts; this process is followed by the researcher's identification of the key viewpoints shared by the participants.

The individuals in each distinctive pattern, or cluster, create very similar configurations during the sorting process. Thereby, those individuals can be grouped together as representative of a unique perspective or viewpoint in the opinion domain. Additionally, the sorts associated with a particular factor that are not highly correlated with other factors are considered distinguished from others and must not be ignored. These sorts are highly regarded in Q methodology due to their theoretical significance in the data analysis. The inversion of factor analysis underscores Q methodology's reliance on the participants' rather than the researcher's frame of reference.

A centroid method with communality is usually used to extract factors (Brown, 1980). The centroid method that was used by Stephenson is simply a summation with "the sums of all factor columns divided by the square root of the grand total of these sums and the quotients give the factor loadings [saturations] for the first factor" (Burt, 1972, p. 50). According to Watts and Stenner (2012), the centroid factor analysis is a necessary step for many Q researchers. In most cases, principal components analysis is the preferred method of factor analysis. However, other methods are also acceptable as well.

The factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 are extracted and rotated by varimax in a simple structure. During factor analysis, a person's entire set of statements is then correlated with others' sets of perspectives to find commonalities, thus producing the *person factors,* or clusters. As a result, patterns or common configurations would emerge from the data for "each of the highly loaded persons for each of the factors" (Khare, 1972, p. 231). The formula ± 2.58 x standard of error (SE), which is $1/\sqrt{N}$ with N being the number of statements in the Q sample, is employed to determine if certain factor loadings are statistical significant ($p < .01$) (McKeown & Thomas, 1988; Watts & Stenner, 2012). Typically, the first factor would have the largest share of the study variance with each subsequent extracted factor's variance becoming smaller. There is a variety of methods for determining the number of factors to be extracted. Brown (1980) stated that the best way to decide on the number of factors for extraction is by examining a Kaiser–Guttman criterion in eigenvalues that are over 1.00. Another method is to take factors that have at least two very high saturations, which often indicates meaningful correlation between a Q sort and a factor (Stephenson, 1953, 1967). This rule, called

Humphrey's Rule, states that the cross-product of the two highest loadings, regardless of

negative or positive, in a factor must exceed 2 times the standard of error (SE). The

reason for using the two highest saturations is that they often indicate meaningful

correlation between a Q sort and a factor (Stephenson, 1953, 1967). The SE formula is

$1/\sqrt{N}$, where N is number of the Q sample items. However, Brown (1980) also said that

"the magic number 7" (p. 223) is a good guideline.

In the process of deciding which factors are significant to be extracted and

interpreted, the researcher needs to employ various criteria. Q researchers favor

judgmental rotation of factors to maintain the Q's theoretical focus over a purely

statistical focus (Brown, 1980). When researchers look for the factors with significance in

terms of the eigenvalues greater than 1.00, they must be cautious. At times, this

assumption may give "dubious statistical importance, and this is no less true for other

criteria for determining the number of factors" (Brown, 1980, p. 42). McKeown and

Thomas (1988) stated that some factors may have high eigenvalues but provide no

substantial meaning in the interpretation and explanation for the outcome of the study.

Other times, the high eigenvalues may even yield too many factors resulting from large

data sets (Watts & Stenner, 2012).

In some instances, factors with low eigenvalues may help highlight some crucial

explanation from within the weak factor's eigenvalues. It is important that the researcher

takes in various accounts when extracting the factor and not statistical criteria alone. The

researcher should examine "the social and political setting to which the factor organically

connected" (Brown, 1980, p. 42). Ultimately, the Q methodologist tends to focus more

heavily on the theoretical significance. As matter of practice, a researcher should use

common sense in selecting the factors in the context of the research questions, purpose, and study focus (McKeown & Thomas, 1988). For the current study, the researcher used the principal components analysis (PCA) for factor analysis and applied theoretical and statistical significance consideration when selecting factors for rotation.

The varimax method is considered an appropriate means of performing Q-factor rotation. Because varimax rotation is a simple structure, it can only ensure that each Q sort has high factor saturations on the first factor (Watts & Stenner, 2012). Most importantly, varimax rotation is programmed to create factor axis positioning such that "the solution maximizes the amount of study variance explained" (Watts & Stenner, 2012, p. 125). Varimax orthogonal rotation with a 90-degree angle holds a fixed position. In the current study, the varimax rotation method was utilized in performing Q-factor rotation.

After the factors are extracted for a final routine run of factor analysis, a table of factor scores is produced to show the z-scores that have been tabulated and converted into whole numbers ranging from -4 to +4 through 0 (McKeown & Thomas, 1988). This table is sometimes referred to as Q Factor Model which illustrates a factor array for each of the factors, defining the factor Q sort values for each of the statements. From the PQMethod (personal) or MQMethod (Mac) computer program, the z-scores are listed from the highest to lowest for each factor, typically ranking the order of importance that the participants have made for each Q sort as well (Watts & Stenner, 2012). Stephenson (1967) explained that "the factor-score estimates are made by adding the scores across statements of the Q-sample for the variables of a factor, weighting each in accordance with Spearman's expression" (p. 26). The task for using the model is "to examine any

hypothesis [a researcher may have], irrespective of the factors" (Stephenson, 1967, p. 28).

From the Q-factor model table, each statement should be seen as "a tested hypothesis; each can be compared with every other statement and its scores" (Stephenson, 1967, p.27). This table of factor score estimates allows the researcher to begin an analysis with interpretation of the data and explanation of the phenomenon observed. One additional note is that the focus of the interpretation should be on the most significant statements in either "most like" or "least like" points of view (Khare, 1972). However, the PQMethod or MQMethod program provides an extension of the factor score estimates by giving additional output for a single factor array, describing further the perspective of each factor.

A Q sort encapsulates the individuals' perspective as a whole, requiring the total configurations of all Q sample items within a forced distribution. This is precisely the point that Watts and Stenner (2012) attributed to the purpose of PQMethod or MQMethod. Moreover, factor estimates are intercorrelated and contain some error due to their estimated value (Watts & Stenner, 2012). The PQMethod or MQMethod yields an output of correlations among factor scores. Researchers should examine the factor score correlational values carefully. Excessive correlation may indicate that factors share too much commonality and may not necessarily shed light on distinct groupings, giving a clue that the number of factors may need to be reduced (Watts & Stenner, 2012). Correlation values can give rise to overall patterns of both similarities and differences. The actual factors consist of a grouping of participants to be interpreted as sharing common views in later stages. In the factor extraction decision process, examination of

factor eigenvalues and variance-explained values should be examined to determine if any factor has a value lower than the acceptable level. If so, then perhaps this factor does not need to be extracted. After considering such subjective researcher-driven inspections, factor interpretation, including factor rotation, can begin.

The current study employed PQMethod or MQMethod software for data analysis. PQ/MQMethod is a freeware statistical program designed specifically for use in Q methodology studies. The researcher entered Q sort data for each participant into PQ/MQMethod version and conducted factor analysis using the statistical packages available in the software. PQ/MQMethod produced factor correlations, factor rotations, factor arrays, and distinguishing and consensus statements as described above which were insightful and informative in the interpretation of factors. The data analysis processes and the results of those analyses are presented in Chapter 4.

Delimitations and Limitations

As noted both by Patton (2002) and Marshall and Rossman (2011), there is no such thing as a perfect research design. This researcher recognized that specific parameters can be set to narrow the scope of this study and to give this study rich data and robust results. These parameters, uniquely set by researchers, are the delimitations of a study. Relevant to this study, the researcher had two delimitations. Specifically, the researcher focused on participants older than 18 years of age, and also on a participant set with a composition that most closely reflected the demographics of the study's broader community population. The latter delimitation was particularly important as diversity in community influential participants was essential in order to have representations of voices of all different ethnic and social groups.

However, challenges and unforeseeable situations arise that are beyond the researcher's control during the data collection. These potential problems, such as the participants' level of understanding during the Q sorts, which are beyond the researcher's control, are called limitations (Patton, 2002; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Roberts, 2010). For instance, as participants perform their Q sort, they may have difficulty making meaning from some of the statements, or the process might generate anxiety about the procedure causing their sorts to be skewed away from a more pure representation of their perspectives. Additionally, for this study, some of the participants were prominent in the community for their particular form of advocacy for public education, and as such, they may have believed that their sort, and thus their perspective and identity, could be recognized even though steps were taken to protect them and their confidentiality.

Statement from the Researcher

In order to self-regulate potential bias in the current study, the researcher acknowledged that the researcher personally knew some of the participants in the study. Because the researcher had been active in community service since 1988 on various issues, including being heavily involved in the Asian American community, charities, governmental agencies, and local education organizations, the researcher had established relationships with many community and group leaders over the years. Therefore, the researcher came into the study knowing and having worked directly with some of these individuals from different ethnic and racial minorities and with other civic leaders. The ability to know and interact with these community leaders over the years helped the researcher identify who these education advocates were and their unique perspectives in order to contribute to the current study. As a note, Q methodology actually encourages

that the researcher maintain as close in proximity to the perceptions of participants, in this case community leaders, as possible. Because Q methodology is an exploratory research technique, close proximity to the participants' perspectives at various stages of the research process is preferable in order to provide participants with the opportunity and structure to express the complexity of their viewpoints (Brown, 2006; Kerlinger, 1972). At this same time, Q methodology provides researchers with a unique opportunity to identify and categorize their own subjective perceptions within the same context as participants' experience. Specifically, though also engaging in a Q sort, researchers can determine their own perspective and with which of the resultant factors their own perspective most aligns.

Summary

Because there was limited academic literature focusing on individual community leaders, the researcher had great difficulties in finding adequate sources to learn and write about the community leaders. Their leadership and the dynamics of their coalitions with a focus on impacting public education were rarely studied. Even less available were the perceptions of their leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing K-12 public education which were nonexistent in academic studies. Therefore, the current study was conducted to fill this gap in the literature. The limited literature focusing on community influentials only served as a disservice to the social sciences. Because the world knew very little about these interest groups and their leaders, the study would provide meaningful insight into how their shared subjective perceptions of the leadership behaviors and practices influenced education reform (McDonnell, 2009). There had been studies of traits and attributes of leaders, but few studies in the recent decades had

attempted to examine community leaders themselves and their individual or collective

leadership practices used in affecting educational changes or policies in the community in

which they reside. The implication here was that community leaders, especially those

with strong financial and political connections to lawmakers, were important in

influencing the direction of educational reforms.

     As stated in Chapters 1 and 2, the purpose of this research was to explore the

shared subjective perceptions regarding the way community leaders perceive that their

leadership behaviors and practices are potentially influencing the current K-12 public

education reforms. Through the use of Q methodology, this study was designed to

identify, describe, analyze, and compare these subjective perceptions shared by leaders.

Perceptions were generally complex and influenced by many different elements, such as

experiences, relationships, and knowledge. This understanding of community leaders'

perceptions could help influence the influential community leaders themselves to marshal

their own leadership behaviors and practices to advocate for education reform that was

most beneficial to students. In addition, with such understanding of their perceptions of

how they influence K-12 public education at the local, state, and federal levels, the

upcoming or aspiring influencers in the community could maximize their advocacy and

activism efforts for public education. In the meantime, the current community leaders

could recognize their potential allies and adversaries and learn to adjust the climate of

their coalition or collaborative efforts to maximize the influence and resources.

     Chapter 3 described the general rationalities for using Q methodology in order to

explore the shared subjective perceptions of community leaders to influence K-12 public

education. An overview of Q methodology was presented with descriptions of its origin,

research method features, usefulness to this study, and its unique use of logic of

abduction as an alternative to the traditional deductive and inductive reasoning. Then, the

researcher highlighted the purpose for selecting the participants and also provided

descriptions of who the participants are. The researcher also incorporated a section on

ethical considerations for the participants. Even though steps would be taken to ensure

the confidentiality and rights of the participants with codifications of the identities, the

researcher recognized that some of the participants are well-known community leaders

because of their prominent positions in the community by notifying them upfront and

offering them the option to withdraw from the study. Under the research design, details of

Q features were discussed beginning with the research instrument, Q sample. A section

on methods of data collection and procedures was followed with a thorough description

of how Q sorts were conducted through the use of an online program called FlashQ. The

researcher also explained how data are treated to preserve the rights and confidentiality of

the participants in the study. Then, the discussion focused on how data would be analyzed

using PQ/MMethod software to produce the person factors which group subjective,

shared perceptions of the community leaders' leadership behaviors and practices used to

influence educational policy. Next, a brief discussion on delimitations and limitations of

the study explained some of the challenges and possible problems that may arise in the

study beyond the researcher's control. Finally, the researcher acknowledged a potential

bias because the researcher happened to know many of the participants as a result from

years of community service in various social, religious, and cultural areas since 1988.

Q methodology was the appropriate research design for the current study to seek

understanding directly from traditional community leaders, who had been neglected by

the social scientists, of the perspectives of their potential influence in educational

policies. Meanwhile, Q methodology also allowed the neglected, nontraditional, and

underserved community leaders to project their voice and viewpoints of their leadership

behaviors and practices in influencing policy reforms. The resulting data were analyzed

through factor analysis and post-sort questionnaires. The results, analysis, and

interpretations of the study are discussed in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 will cover possible

implications and recommendations from the findings in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Results and Interpretations

Results

The purpose of this study was to explore diverse community leaders' perceptions of the leadership behaviors and practices they use to influence K-12 public education. Through the use of Q methodology, the study was designed to identify, describe, analyze, and compare operant subjective perceptions shared by community leaders regarding how they influence public education policy. In order for the researcher to delve into and explore these subjective perspectives, the following research question was used to guide the study: *How do community leaders perceive that their leadership behaviors and practices are used to influence K-12 public education*? Forty-five participants, representing a diverse spectrum of community leaders who self-identified as political, economic, cultural/ethnic, educational, or organizational (for/nonprofit) leaders, sorted the 42-item Q sample via the online FlashQ program (Hackert & Baehler, 2007). Purposely based on the general community population, the 45 participants included 17 Caucasians, 13 African Americans, 5 Hispanics, 9 Asian Americans, and 1 of mixed background. Chapter 4 presents the analysis of these Q data gathered from 45 Q sorts, including an overview of the Q data analysis, factor analysis with correlation, factor extraction and rotation, and then factor interpretation. More importantly, the data analysis focuses on the placement of items within each factor array, along with the participant background and demographical data, and responses to the post-sort questionnaire as described in factor interpretation.

Overview of Q Data Analysis

Analytically, Q methodology has similar characteristics to both quantitative and qualitative research designs. In Q methodology, Stephenson (1953, 1993) recognized that observations are not absolute or concrete; they are more like "clues pointing towards some potential explanation" (Watts & Stenner, 2012, p. 39), giving us insights to the observed phenomenon. Q methodology has since become a theoretical basis that offered a different attitude in the process of seeking answers through discoveries rather than experimental tests (Stephenson, 1953). From this perspective, Stephenson referred to the process of exploring and discovering a phenomenon in Q methodology as *abductive* reasoning in which the researcher must look for clues toward the entire factor configuration.

The fundamental mathematical procedures in Q methodology involve first determining the correlation among 45 Q sorts, performing factor analysis of these correlations, extracting and rotating the factors, and, finally, converting factor z-scores to factor arrays. First, a correlation matrix is generated from all Q sorts (Brown, 1972), illustrating "100% of the meaning and variability present in the study, known as study variance" (Watts & Stenner, 2012, p. 98). This variance can help explain the relationships among the Q sorts. Next, these correlations are factor analyzed, and the researcher makes decisions regarding factor extraction. This decision-making process for factor extraction involves both statistical and theoretical considerations. From a statistical standpoint, considerations and decisions are informed by the Kaiser–Guttman criterion in eigenvalues, the use of Humphrey's rule (Table 1), study variance explained, participant loadings on the factors, and correlations between factor scores using the significant factor

loading equation, $\pm 2.58 \times 1/\sqrt{42} = \pm .40$ (Watts & Stenner, 2012). While the statistical considerations are important, the conceptual and contextual significance of each factor is ultimately most important (Watts & Stenner, 2012) and is determined by examining the factor arrays.

Following factor analysis and extraction, a table of factor arrays is produced to show the z-scores (McKeown & Thomas, 1988) that have been tabulated and converted into whole numbers within the same forced distribution pattern containing the continuum of -4 to +4 that each participant used for their individual Q sorts, as indicated in this study. This table of factor arrays is sometimes referred to as the Q Factor Model, which illustrates a factor array for each of the factors. These Q Factor Models provide opportunities for both quantitative and qualitative comparisons (McKeown & Thomas, 1988).

Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is the statistical and mathematical basis to identify distinctive but common patterns among groups of participants based on key perspectives they shared (Brown, 1980, 1993; McKeown & Thomas, 1988; Stephenson, 1953; Watts & Stenner, 2007, 2012). The Q factors represent commonalities among the attitudes, beliefs, and feelings expressed by the participants; thus, these factors become "operants within the minds of the [participants]" (Stephenson, 1977, p. 11). For example, the Q sorts that are highly correlated with other sorts share similar perspectives reflected in the statements and are grouped together in the same factor instead of being grouped with other dissimilar factors. For this study, the factors illustrated distinct shared perceptions of community leaders in their leadership behaviors and practices used to influence K-12

public education. The following sections explain correlation matrix, factor extraction,

factor rotation, and factor interpretation.

Correlation matrix among the Q sorts. After participants completed the 45 Q

sorts via FlashQ program (Hackert & Braehler, 2007), each of the Q sorts was then

codified by the researcher and entered into PQMethod 2.35 (Schmolck, 2014) in order to

determine how each correlated with one another. As a result, a correlation matrix table

was mathematically computed and produced, as seen in Correlation Matrix Between

Sorts (Appendix H). The correlation matrixes contained all of the 45 sorts collected from

the participants in this study and "represent[ed] or encapsulate[ed] 100% of the meaning

and variability present in the study" (Watts & Stenner, 2012, p. 98). More importantly,

each of the person's Q sort was correlated with all other participants' sorts in this study,

providing the overall meaning and the relationships among all of the sorts.

As suggested in this correlation matrix, the *most influential* of a community

leader's leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing K-12 public education

correlation of one sort to another sort is represented in higher values closer to100, which

is a reflection or mirror image of one's own perspective, as opposed to the *least*

influential of a community's leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing K-12

public education correlation to another sort is a negative value. A value of 0 indicates an

absence of a correlation between any two sorts, meaning neither *most influential*

perspective nor *least influential*. For example, using the Correlation Matrix Between

Sorts (Appendix H), Q sort 1 (100 %) has the strongest relationship with Q sort 29 (53),

Q sort 39 (50), and Q sort 12 (49). These are the same sorts that prominently present in

Factor 4 of this study as seen in Table 2. On one hand, Q sorts 6 (0) and 10 (0) have no

relationship with one another, showing zero correlation. In addition, Q sorts 20 and 38 share a statically significant negative correlation (-48).

The correlation matrix is not just a mathematical expression but a visual synopsis of the interrelationship among all 45 individual Q sorts ranking 42 statements in this study. The values of the correlation matrix can be tabulated by hand using the equation ±2.58 x ($1\sqrt{N}$ – where N is the number of 42 Q sample items).The Correlation Matrix Between Sorts (Appendix H) illustrates a comparison of how each sort is correlated or not with others. Within the Q methodological process, the development of the correlation matrix is simply an intermediate statistical procedure providing the correlation data necessary for factor analysis to occur.

Factor extraction. In order to make an appropriate decision on how many factors should be extracted in the study, the researcher employed various methods to arrive at the 4-Factor solution. Other factor solutions were considered, specifically 3- and 5-Factor solutions. This factor extraction decision-making process included an examination of variance and factor loadings. The following section includes an in-depth discussion of the decision-making process for factor extraction. Finally, a brief description on correlations between factors and factor characteristics is presented to support the factor strengths as a result of factor rotation.

Variance and principal component analysis. A participant's sort is theoretically a complete mirror of his or her own perspective in comparison with all other sorts. However, the complete and perfect mirror perspective can statistically be represented as 100% to indicate the total representation of *meaning and variability* in this study. This 100% is called variance (Watts & Stenner, 2007, 2012). Therefore, factor analysis is used

to ensure the accountability of the variance appeared in commonality of a participant's sort with another sort and even the possible errors that may occur in the process (Watts & Stenner, 2012). The researcher used principal component analysis (PCA) as the computation methods for factor extractions for this study. The resultant factor structure varies very little regardless of whether PCA or centroid factor analysis is used, but this study utilized PCA because "PCA will resolve itself into a single, mathematically best solution, which is the one that should be accepted" (Watts & Stenner, 2012, p. 99).

Factor loadings. The researcher used principal component analysis through the PQMethod program to search for patterns or common configurations for a part of the common variance which would emerge from the data for "each of the highly loaded persons for each of the factors" (Khare, 1972, p. 231). According to McKeown and Thomas (1988), these highly loaded persons then become high factor loadings to be comprised in Factor 1. PQMethod, which defaults to an eight unrotated factors-matrix, helped identify the largest and most meaningful factor first, then next largest, and next largest as illustrated in the Unrotated Factor Matrix (Appendix I).

These factor loadings are sometimes called *factor saturations* or high eigenvalues and are mathematically referred to as correlation coefficients (McKeown & Thomas, 1988), defining as the degree of statistical association between a particular Q sort and each factor. Another important aspect of factor loading is that its value can be both negative and positive, as indicated in Unrotated Factor Matrix (Appendix I). The significant factor loading for this current study is $\pm 2.58 \times 1/\sqrt{42} = \pm .398$, or rounded up to $\pm .40$. In other words, to be considered statistically significant in the study, a correlation between two factors must be $\pm .40$ or greater. Because each Q sort can

differently load on factors, either negatively or positively, as suggested earlier, factor

loadings that are negative are just as statistically significant as the positive eigenvalues;

however, the negative loadings resemble statistical correlation in the opposite view or

perspective in a mirror image.

Determination of the factors for extraction. Relevant to this study, the

researcher employed PCA and approached the factor extraction with these considerations:

a Kaiser–Guttman criterion in eigenvalues, Humphrey's rule, explanation of study

variance, participant loadings on the factors, correlations between factors using the

significant factor loading equation indicated above, and examination of the factor arrays

for contextual significance. The contextual consideration for the factor arrays enhanced

the best factor solutions with the most informative determination of extracting factors. In

this study, the researcher chose a comparison method by running three different rotations

with 3-Factor, 4-Factor, and 5-Factor solutions.

At first glance, all three factor solutions met the first requirement of a Kaiser–

Guttman criterion, having eigenvalues greater than 1 (8.30, 4.46, 3.33, 3.08, and 2.63),

deriving from the Unrotated Factor Matrix (Appendix I). A Kaiser–Guttman criterion

ensures that a factor has statistical significance and strong rationale in the analysis. As a

matter of fact, Brown (1980) stated that the best way to decide on the number of factors

for extraction is by examining the eigenvalues that are over 1.00. Next, the three factor

solutions also exceeded Humphrey's Rule (Table 1), stating that the cross-product of the

two highest loadings in a factor, regardless of negative or positive, must exceed 2 times

the standard of error (SE). The reason for using the two highest saturations is that they

often indicate meaningful correlation between a Q sort and a factor (Stephenson, 1953,

1967). The SE formula is $1/\sqrt{N}$, where N is number of the Q sample items. Applicable to this study, SE = $1/\sqrt{42}$ which gives SE = .1543. Furthermore, 2 x SE = .31. Basically, the cross-product of those two highest loadings must exceed .31. These three factor solutions met Humphrey's Rule (.90, .88, .48, .56, and .48) in Table 1, using the two ± highest loadings from Factor 1 through Factor 5 from Unrotated Factor Matrix (Appendix I). The next step is to examine further how the researcher eliminated the 3-Factor solution, declined the 5-Factor solution, and accepted the 4-Factor rotation by comparing all three factor rotations.

Table 1

Humphrey's Rule

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Cross Product of Two Highest Loadings	0.45	0.44	0.24	0.28
Standard Error	0.31	0.31	0.31	0.31
Difference	0.14	0.13	-0.07	-0.03
Standard Error x 2	0.90	0.88	0.48	0.56

Note: Standard Error <.01

Immediately, 3-Factor solution was eliminated for the following reasons. First, it retains considerably less explained study variance at 35%, compared to 4- (42%) and 5- (49%) Factor solutions. Second, the 3-Factor solution has the lowest correlations among its own factors, ranging from .23, .24, to .30. The correlations do not meet the minimum requirement for statistically significant correlation between the factors of a factor solution in the study at ± .40, as stated above. One consideration for this 3-Factor rotation is that it has only two sorts that were not loaded, meaning that there were only two participants out of 45 not loading on any of the three factors.

One supporting consideration for the 5-Factor solution is found in its high explained variance at 49% which is greater than either 3- (35%) or 4- (42%) Factor solutions. Also, this factor solution has one correlation between factor scores that exceeded the study's (± .40) holding at .43. However, the 5-Factor rotation has a markedly high number of confounding participant loadings at 8, suggesting that there were only 37 out of 45 participants loaded on any of the five factors. This will result in about 18 % of the participants who would be left out of the interpretation of the data, reducing a significant level of the meaning among the Q sorts.

On the other hand, the 4-Factor solution has a relatively high explained study variance at 42%. (See Factor Loadings Table 2.) Its four confounding Q sorts are fairly reasonable, indicating that it has 41 out of 45 participants loading on at least one factor. In addition, the 4-Factor solution has one correlation (.42) between factors that met the study's significant factor loading criterion (± .40) and another correlation (.37) that almost met the established criterion; both of these characteristics are higher in value than either 3- or 5-Factor solutions.

Table 2

Factor Matrix With an X Indicating a Defining Sort

QSORT#	ID Form	Factor Loadings			
		1	2	3	4
1	B14BAC5E	0.204	0.0861	-0.1208	0.5677X
2	W12MSX5E	-0.0474	0.2844	-0.1833	0.3464X
3	B23DPR1N	0.5627X	-0.1111	0.1459	0.1153
4	H13DEN4N	0.5515X	0.3039	0.2507	0.3054
5	A13DEX5E	0.2747	0.5242X	0.3354	-0.1394
6	B13DRS4E	0.4185X	0.3734	-0.1595	0.0633
7	A14MAC3C	0.7669X	0.2881	0.062	-0.0832
8	A13DAC4C	-0.135	0.2087	0.3099X	0.0218
9	W24MCE5N	-0.0977	0.3036	0.2243	0.5117X
10	W14MAC5E	0.2632	0.0504	0.7630X	0.0507

11	W15DNX6N	0.2066	-0.0609	0.5915X	0.4656
12	W14DEX5E	0.1683	0.3351	-0.1029	0.5928X
13	B15DEX5E	-0.1884	0.2122	-0.0646	0.1004
14	B15MCU4C	0.5460X	-0.176	0.075	0.3548
15	B23BBX5N	0.2426	0.1918	0.2818	0.0834
16	A22HBX5C	0.2351	0.2415	0.3666X	-0.0039
17	W14MCE6N	-0.0111	0.6964X	0.2705	-0.0042
18	B12BPR3N	0.0555	-0.0896	0.4279X	0.0762
19	W13BAC5N	0.1012	0.0334	0.261	0.5933X
20	X11HST4C	0.6078X	-0.0747	-0.2187	0.4594
21	B12MPR3E	0.5508X	0.0065	0.2883	0.2842
22	B13MPR3E	0.3358X	-0.0297	0.2045	0.0819
23	A23MCU5N	0.0299	-0.5570X	0.1947	-0.0666
24	H13BPR5C	0.2614	0.3314	-0.344	0.1266
25	W25MCE5E	0.184	0.235	0.0729	0.5923X
26	H23DPR6E	0.0324	0.0749	0.6727X	0.202
27	H143MPR4N	0.0396	0.6929X	0.3066	-0.1013
28	H14AAC1C	0.5383X	0.1798	-0.0373	0.0542
29	A24DPR5N	0.1245	0.352	-0.2674	0.5252X
30	W15MPR4N	0.1286	-0.1882	0.0449	0.4177X
31	A24MPR5C	0.4957X	0.0575	-0.0103	0.3821
32	W13MPR56	0.5868X	-0.2863	0.1533	0.1676
33	W22MNX6N	-0.222	0.5988X	0.2461	0.3479
34	W25DCU4N	0.263	-0.1089	0.2896	0.4846X
35	A16DAC5N	0.1564	0.3257	0.6904X	-0.0337
36	W14MCE6N	0.2774	0.4247X	0.1318	0.0329
37	W15MAC6E	-0.0568	0.6880X	0.1651	0.2158
38	A25MCE6O	-0.3798	0.1035	0.6834X	-0.1789
39	B23DPR4E	0.4366	0.0058	-0.1009	0.5524X
40	B22MPR4E	0.6426X	-0.0681	-0.1696	0.0714
41	W15DCE5N	0.1894	0.5492X	-0.0297	0.0475
42	W15MNX5E	-0.063	-0.0068	0.0444	0.6215X
43	B12MEX5E	0.5797X	0.3772	0.0611	-0.229
44	W25MCE5N	0.0654	-0.0645	0.3704	0.6893X
45	B25MPR5N	0.3388	0.1773	0.1582	0.2776
% expl. Var.		12	10	9	11

The 3-Factor solution was fairly easy to reject as a choice for factor rotation based upon the considerations discussed above. The 4-Factor and 5-Factor solutions require a

far more involved process in decision making for factor extraction than the 3-Factor

solution. Using the rationales for both solutions, the researcher determined that the

extraction of four factors is a better decision than five factors. The 4-Factor solution met

more statistical criteria in terms of explained study variance, high factor loadings, and

more participants loading across factors even though differences among these

considerations were not as convincingly strong. The researcher then examined the factor

arrays for both 4- and 5- Factor rotations in search of theoretical and contextual

significance from either solution. In the 4-Factor factor arrays (Table 3), there are distinct

patterns of shared perspectives that resulted from the varimax rotation in that each

factor's three highest factor z-scores (+4 statements in the factor arrays) are distinct from

the others allowing for divergent major themes for each of the 4 factors. For complete

statements, Appendix J provided the complete and final set of statements.

Table 3

Factor Q-Sort Values for Each Statement

No.	Statement	No.	1	2	3	4
1	Be the voice of the voiceless	1	2	1	-1	1
2	Represent voice of my community	2	4	3	0	-1
3	Help community members celebrate education	3	0	-1	-2	-1
4	Ensure divers-thought leaders are in decision-ma	4	2	2	0	0
5	Hold positions of authority in local and/or state	5	-1	1	2	-3
6	Promote cultural events within my communities	6	2	-4	-4	-3
7	Build strategic relationships with media	7	-2	1	-1	-1
8	Be an active voter	8	2	1	3	0
9	Serve as a mentor to others	9	0	-4	0	1
10	I send my children to local public schools and/o	10	-1	-1	-4	0
11	Orchestrate others from behind the scenes and	11	-3	3	-2	1
12	Mobilize and support grassroots efforts for edu	12	3	4	1	-1
13	I help mobilize the ethnic-based communities	13	3	0	-3	-2
14	Serve (or seek to serve) as a board member of	14	-2	-1	4	-3
15	Use technology to manage and consolidate data	15	-2	-2	-2	-1

16	Share quality info to inform community percep	16	1	3	1	2
17	Educate community leaders on educational pol	17	0	3	3	0
18	Recruit and support a political candidate who	18	-1	2	3	-3
19	Advocate for K-12 educational issues and/or org	19	3	4	1	3
20	Share quality information with other people or	20	1	0	2	2
21	Provide and invest resources directly to the sch	21	-3	4	-3	1
22	Know the educational needs of my community	22	4	0	1	2
23	Provide executive coaching and advice to other	23	-4	-3	-1	-2
24	Stay informed with school and public ed issues	24	1	1	0	4
25	Lobby policy makers in order to impact local, st	25	-2	2	4	-2
26	Participate in various educational policy forums	26	1	-3	2	0
27	Maintain or build personal relationships with ke	27	-1	1	1	4
28	Build and maintain trusting and supportive relat	28	3	0	2	4
29	Collaborate with orgs and/or school district to pr	29	2	0	0	3
30	Write articles, op eds	30	-4	-1	-3	-4
31	Convene and coordinate mtgs, formal conver	31	-1	2	2	1
32	Seek to collaborate with key stakeholders or org	32	0	2	3	3
33	Prior to taking action, I first assess the situation	33	0	-2	-1	3
34	Use position or expertise to present or lecture on	34	-3	-3	-2	-1
35	Visit my local k-12 schools and encourage oth	35	-1	-2	-3	1
36	Develop my own leadership skills so I can lead	36	1	-3	1	2
37	Act as a broker or liaison connecting ed entities	37	0	-1	-1	0
38	Develop and lead staff training programs to educ	38	-2	-4	-2	-2
39	Learn about ed issues on my own and understa	39	-3	0	0	-4
40	Use my own personal story of how public educa	40	4	-2	-4	-4
41	Influence how the DOE develops and funds pro	41	-3	0	0	-4
42	Ask members of the school district to determine	42	-4	-1	-1	-2

Variance = 5.238 St. Dev. = 2.289

On the other hand, Factor 5 of the 5-Factor solution revealed more similarities among the five factor arrays, making it difficult to delineate discrete descriptions of each factor and thus to interpret and explain meaningful distinctions and differences between them. These statistical and theoretical/contextual considerations led the researcher to extract four factors. A visual illustration on the determination of the factor extraction is presented in Table 4 below.

Table 4

Information Used to Determine the Factor Extraction

Factor Rotation Solution	Eigenvalue Included (Kaiser-Guttman)	Explained Variance (bottom, Table 2)	Number of Participants Loaded (Table 2)	Correlation among Factors (± .40)	Reasoning
5 Factors	2.6-8.3	49%	37 out of 45	All below .43	Rejected because it does not include 8 of the 42 participants.
4 Factors	3.1-8.3	42%	41 out of 45	One significant at .42, all others	Not Rejected because it includes the most number of participants and has a fairly high correlation value among factors.
3 Factors	3.3-8.3	35%	42 out of 45	All below .30	Rejected because it has a lower explained variance and a lower correlation value among factors.

Correlation between factors. Correlation between factors refers to a level of

relationship of a factor with other factors within factor solution and is often represented

in terms of eigenvalue, which is sometimes called saturation or loading, ranging from -

1.0 to +1.0. In this study, Correlation Between Factors (Table 5) illustrated that all factor

arrays have positive correlations, ranging from .18 to .42. Specifically, Factor 1 and

Factor 4 are significantly correlated at .42, illustrating that the perspective of Factor 1 is

closer to Factor 4 than Factors 2 (.18) and 3 (.17). That correlation between Factors 1and

4 is statistical significant within the context of this study. However, there are substantial

conceptual differences between Factors 1 and 4 as illustrated by their divergent

placements of items within the +4 column of the factor arrays. Likewise, although not

statistically significant, the correlation between Factors 2 and 3 demonstrates some

degree of shared subjectivity (.37). However, the correlations between the remaining

factor combinations are very low. Importantly, regardless of the amount of correlation between any two factors in this study, each still retains its own distinct perspective from the other factors. In addition, a respectable proportion of the study variance remains in each of the factors as discussed earlier. Relevant to this study, these correlations between factors illustrated that the community leaders' perception of their leadership behaviors and practices that influence K-12 public education was clustered into distinct groups with some underpinning interaction, as indicated in the intercorrelations of factor arrays.

Table 5

Correlation Between Factors

Factors	1	2	3	4
1	1.0000	0.1815	0.1696	0.4164
2	1.1815	1.0000	0.3652	0.2572
3	0.1696	0.3652	1.0000	0.2473
4	0.4164	0.2572	0.2473	1.0000

Factor characteristics. As indicated in the data output Factor Characteristics Table 6, seen below, factor characteristics mainly describe the defining variables, the reliability coefficient, the composite reliability, and the standard error (SE) of the factor scores. The number defining variables is identified as the number of participants who have the most significant saturations or loadings on Factors 1, 2, 3, and 4 (13, 8, 8, and 12 respectively). In Q methodology, reliability (*r)* of factor is the estimate that study participants would perform the Q sort rankings with the same Q sample the same way at different times. Reliability also refers to the reduction of too many "specificities" and emphasis on "communalities" (Brown, 1980, p. 293; Watts & Stenner, 2012, p.131). Computation of reliability of factors can be accomplished by hand using the following formula:

$$r = \frac{0.80}{1 + (p - 1)\,0.80}, \text{ where } p \text{ is participants loading on a factor}$$

(McKeown & Thomas, 1988, p. 54). The average reliability coefficient is standardized at

.80 with the composite reliability ranging .98, .97, .97, and .98 for Factor 1, Factor 2,

Factor 3, and Factor 4, respectively. Next, standard error (SE) for each of the factor

scores is computed for Factor 1 (.14), Factor 2 (.17), Factor 3 (.17), and Factor 4 (.14).

Calculation for SE can be accomplished with the use of

$$\text{SE} = s\,\sqrt{(1\text{-}r)}, \text{ where s is the standard deviation of the Q sorts (McKeown}$$

& Thomas, 1988, p. 54).

As suggested in Table 6 and the SE formula, the factor reliability is inversely related to

the standard error. In other words, as the factor reliability increases, the standard error of

factor scores decreases. Relative to the study, the reliability based on Brown's (1980)

preference for communalities illustrates that the Q sorts cluster into groupings that are

communal, or have in common, with others.

Table 6

Factor Characteristics

	Factors			
	1	2	3	4
No. of Defining Variables	13	8	8	12
Average Reliability Coefficient	0.80	0.80	0.80	0.80
Composite Reliability	0.98	0.97	0.97	0.98
SE of Factor Scores	0.14	0.17	0.17	0.14

Factor rotation via varimax. There are two options for factor rotation following

the extraction of factors. Pure Q methodologists would prefer the by-hand or judgmental

rotation because it allows the researcher to follow hunches with a cluster of data that may

best provide insights and new perspectives in the interpretation and explanation (Brown, 1980). However, when the topic is not informed by preexisting literature or theory as was the case here, such judgmental rotation would be conducted in a largely intuitive manner and could lead to the appearance of arbitration in the results. Therefore, the researcher chose varimax rotation of factors instead of judgmental rotation. The varimax method is considered an appropriate means of performing Q factor rotation because varimax rotation seeks a simple structure that can best ensure that each Q sort has high factor saturations (Watts & Stenner, 2012). Relative to the issue of factor extraction, simple structure is generally considered an elegant outcome (Brown, 1980; McKeown & Thomas, 1988; Stephenson, 1953, 1967) through orthogonal rotation, and this is what occurs with a varimax rotation. Most importantly, varimax rotation is programmed to create factor axis positioning such that "the solution maximizes the amount of study variance explained" (Watts & Stenner, 2012, p. 125). As seen in Table 2 above, PQMethod via varimax rotation produces an output with the heading Factor Matrix With an X Indicating a Defining Sort. The factor loadings on each factor that are indicated with an *X* illustrate which Q sort has the highest saturation and on which factor. These factor saturations merely inform how a certain Q sort is oriented near the tip of a factor axis in the rotation, associating itself with the closest proximity to a factor's collective perspective (Watts & Stenner, 2012). For example, Q sort 7 is neither idealistic nor perfect at 100% loading; however, its factor saturation (.7669 = .77) describes that its position at the 77% mark illustrates closest proximity toward the tip of the positive pole of Factor 1.

Factor Interpretation

In Q methodology, factor interpretation requires an examination of factor arrays. However, factor arrays are based on the factor scores which are derived from the computation of factor weights to determine how specific Q sorts' high saturations can contribute significantly to the final factor scores in the factor arrays (Watts & Stenner, 2012). The factor scores are measured as z-scores that have been tabulated and converted into whole numbers ranging from -4 to +4 through 0 (McKeown & Thomas, 1988; Watts & Stenner, 2012), (Table 5).

According to Watts and Stenner (2012), factor interpretation needs to be thoughtfully vested in a holistic approach to Q factor arrays through the logic of abductive process (Brown, 1980; Stephenson, 1953, 1967, 1993; Watts & Stenner, 2012; Zangwill, Kohlberg, & Brenner, 1972). Stephenson (1953, 1993) recognized that observations are not absolute or concrete; they are more like "clues pointing towards some potential explanation" (Watts & Stenner, 2012, p. 39), giving us insights to the observed phenomenon. For the study, factor interpretations rely on the factor arrays with the Q sample statements and the qualitative written responses from the participants' post-sort questionnaire embedded in the end of the Q sort. The researcher identified, examined, described, and interpreted each of the four prominent perspectives emerging within the four factors in the study.

The examination and description of the four factors resulted in identifying the name representing each factor and included a description of their demographics and a narrative into the development of factor names. After examination and analysis of the data, the four factors concerning how community leaders perceived their leadership

behaviors and practices that they use to influence K-12 public education were named:
Factor 1—Voice the Story and the Needs of My Underserved Community, Factor 2—
Provide Resources, Advocacy, and Grassroots Mobility, Factor 3—Learn About
Educational Issues to Lobby and to Serve, and Factor 4—Build Supportive and Personal
Relationships with Key School Stakeholders to Stay Informed.

The discussion and descriptions of each factor begin with a description of the
statistical characteristics of each factor (eigenvalues and explained variance) and an
introduction of each factor's participants' demographics, including race/ethnicity, gender,
age, level of education, occupation, earned income, and type of community leadership
that they use to influence K-12 public education. Following factor participant
demographics is the factor description based on the factor scores and the statements for
each factor array. To enrich the description of each factor, the qualitative written
responses from the participants explaining the reason for their ± 4 statements gathered
from the postsort questionnaire are woven into the discussion. These responses provide
not only a relevant narrative context to further support the explanation for each of the
factors (Watts & Stenner, 2012) but also elevate the participants' voices. The responses
add more contextual meaning toward the discovery of how community leaders perceive
that their leadership behaviors and practices influence K-12 public education.

Factor 1: Voice the story and the needs of my underserved community.
Factor 1 has an eigenvalue of 8.26 and accounts for 12% of the study's explained
variance. Thirteen of 45 participants are significantly associated with this factor. As
illustrated in Table 7, Factor 1 Demographics, there are 10 females and 3 males. Except
for one who is White, all of these participants are minoritized individuals from ethnic

communities, including 2 Asians, 7 Blacks, 3 Hispanics, and 1 mixed race. The demographics indicate one participant is between the ages of 18 and 25 years, three participants between 26-35 years of age, five participants between 36-45 years of age, three participants between 46-55 years of age, and 1 participant between 56-65 years of age. Their educational backgrounds include one participant with a high school diploma, one participant with an associate's degree, eight participants with a master's degree, and three participants with a doctorate degree. Career-wise, 11 of the 13 participants are employed in a wide range of occupations such as professionals, educators, consultant, and executive. One participant is a college student, and one is a community activist. Their annual earned incomes are varied with two participants earning about $10,000; three participants earning between $10,001-25,000; five participants earning between $50,001-100,000; and three participants earning between $100,001-250,000. Six of 13 participants considered themselves cultural/ethnic leaders within their own community. This factor includes the most participants; they specifically identified themselves as cultural/ethnic community leaders. Five participants identified themselves as educational leaders, and 2 participants identified themselves as nonprofit organizational leaders.

Table 7

Demographic Information of Participants Loading on Factor1

Sort ID	Race	Gender	Age range	Edu Level	Career	Income Range	Types of leader
3	Black	Male	36-45	Doctorate	profess	$10K	Nonprofit
4	Hispanic	Female	36-45	Doctorate	Ed nonp	$50.1-100K	Nonprofit
6	Black	Female	36-45	Doctorate	Research	$50.1-100K	Educational
7	Asian	Female	46-55	Masters	Educator	$25.1-50K	Cultural/Ethnic

14	Black	Female	56-65	Masters	Consultant	$50.1-100K	Cultural/Ethnic
20	Mixed	Female	18-25	HighSchl	Student	$50.1-100K	Cultural/Ethnic
21	Black	Female	26-35	Masters	profess	$25.1-50K	Educational
22	Black	Female	36-45	Masters	Educator	$25.1-50K	Educational
28	Hispanic	Female	46-55	AA	Activist	$10K	Cultural/Ethnic
31	Asian	Male	46-55	Masters	profess	$100.1-250K	Cultural/Ethnic
32	White	Female	36-45	Masters	Museum	$100.1-250K	Cultural/Ethnic
40	Black	Male	26-35	Masters	profess	$50.1-100K	Educational
43	Black	Female	26-35	Masters	Executive	$100.1-250K	Educational

Participants who comprised Factor 1 placed importance on voicing their story and the needs of their own community to act on their leadership behaviors and practices in order to influence K-12 public education, as illustrated in Appendix K. They did not want to only raise awareness about the challenges in their communities that they knew well but also to share their own lived experiences as they represented their traditionally underserved communities, cultural or ethnic. The communal perspective that emerged from Factor 1 was based on the Factor 1 array, the post-sort questionnaire statements from the participants explaining their rationale in their own words for the ± 4 rankings, and the distinguishing statements within the Factor 1 in terms of higher or lower ranking than any other factors. Factor 1 described the perception that through voicing and sharing their stories and the community needs, participants would be able to use their leadership behaviors and practices to influence K-12 public education.

Overall, *community*, as referenced by the participants, mostly referred to a cultural or ethnic community revealed in the demographic information data; however, community might also refer to a particular population or group, such the arts and culture, whose leader might feel was being underserved by society or had developed a great value for culture and ethnicity. In general, the participants might have been active within their own

cultural/ethnic group, giving them the opportunities to learn about their own community or group. The participants in Factor 1 were community leaders themselves who wanted to improve public education in their community by using their leadership behaviors and practices to influence. The community leaders of Factor 1 had expressed concern over the lack of attention to the special needs of their community in educational issues. Therefore, their intent was to help the underserved community in all possible ways concerning education acquisition. These participants in Factor 1 felt that the most influential means was for them to represent the people and the concerns of their own ethnic and cultural community (s2 [statement 2]: +4 [position in the factor array]). Sometimes, these communities were not historically attended to or even asked about their education concerns for various reasons which led them to be active in advocacy for public education for their own community. Participant 6 commented that "often members of the community share similar sentiments but are afraid or intimidated to express their feelings." Also, Participant 7 explained, "Because I am part of the community that had traditionally been ignored by the general population, I want to represent my community whenever I can to serve as an advocate for my community members who may otherwise be lost in the conversation." These participants wanted to ensure that the voice of their traditionally underserved community was heard so that educational successes could emerge. Participant 40 stated that "silence is deadly. Silence is just as much a problem as negative forces [which] contribute to the failure of our underserved." The participants in Factor 1 collectively wanted to have opportunities where the voices from their communities could be shared with the traditional decision makers about the education of their underserved children in their own communities.

In addition, the community leaders that embodied Factor 1 strongly articulated the importance of knowing the educational needs of their community (s22: +4). In order to represent the voice of their underserved community, these leaders naturally wanted to be involved with and learn as much about their own community as possible. Participant 20 asked,

> How can one lead if [one is] clueless about the people [he or she is] leading? How can a parent truly know [her] child if [she doesn't] care enough to pay attention? The same principle applies in leadership. The shepherd must know his flock in order to truly be able to completely lead his flock.

According to another minority, Participant 28, "[T]o be able to get your opinion across, you need to be informed" about your own community. If these community leaders were asked by others for information about educational needs of their community, they would have to be well-versed and equipped with community knowledge to provide necessary answers to the questions asked. In other words, as Participant 31 stated, "As a minority community leader, I have more understanding about our problems and weaknesses." The suggestion among these perspectives indicated that these cultural/ethnic community leaders have community knowledge; therefore, if decisions were made concerning the children of their communities, then they should have already known about these decisions because they understand the needs of their communities more than others.

Besides these two highly ranked statements, the community leaders also expressed a preference for the use of their own personal stories showing how public education can transform lives (s40: +4) as one of the most influential methods to impact public education. The participants in Factor 1 considered themselves community leaders

who wanted to influence public education by sharing the stories of their own communities or even their lived stories, a method which was unique in itself as an inspiring lesson for others. Participant 40 indicated, "True leaders are artistic and generous. There is nothing more artistic and generous than giving others your life story. K-12 education is missing true leaders." Another community leader, Participant 43, explained,

> I have come to understand more and more that my personal story is the most important aspect of who I am as an educational leader. People come to understand truth through real stories like my own. It is important that no matter the audience, I speak my truth.

The sharing of the story of their education successes or communities beckoned education advocates to the challenges or the uniqueness of their cultures when making decisions about education on their behalf. Perhaps, the personal or community story served as a compelling testimony to incite moral responsibility on the social conscience to make moral decisions about education for all.

The community leaders as participants in Factor 1 truly believed that their cultural/ethnic communities lacked the influence in education policy arena (s13: +3) to help struggling students from their own communities for various reasons. As Participant 43 commented, "I specifically believe it is important for historically underserved /underrepresented communities to be united and empowered." Because of such belief, they placed high importance on mobilizing and supporting grassroots efforts for education (s12: +3) in order to advocate for K-12 educational issues and/or organizations that benefit the traditionally underserved community (s19: +3). Participant 7 added, "

I do believe that many ethnic groups are left out of the conversation concerning

education because traditional leaders tend to operate under false assumptions.

Therefore, it is my job, or people like me, to mobilize everyone to care and be

concerned about issues that negatively affect my community.

As Participant 21 observed, "Advocating for K-12 educational issues are important, it is

what I believe in. An example of this would be . . . moving to the common core

standards. I made sure that my voice was heard by raising awareness throughout the

state." Because most of these participants recognized that "it is most important for

communities and individuals to represent their own education stories . . . . We must first

seek to understand those stories and experiences. Then, we must empower communities

to improve education based on their truths" (Participant 43). In other words, these

community leaders believed in using their own stories—stories of truths—about their

own communities so that truths would be represented in a larger dialog among other

leaders who might help raise the voice of those most underserved and be heard by the

influencers of public education.

As far as the distinguishing statements were concerned, they provided any

additional high ranked and useful context that had not been identified in the above

categories (Watts & Stenner, 2012). The other statements in Factor 1 were ranked higher

than in other factor arrays (Watts & Stenner, 2012) because the community leaders felt

that their community's voice was missing in the larger conversation concerning education

when decisions were made (s1: +2). As they advocated for education for their

community, community leaders were mindful in ensuring that various leaders with

diverse perspectives be represented as well (s4: +2). In addition, cultural events in the

community were seen as a means to strengthen communities, making them more vibrant (s6: +2). Even though the community leaders did not necessarily feel that they should assist the community in celebration and show appreciation for schools and educators, their preference was still ranked higher than any other factor arrays (s3: 0). Although these participants considered themselves representatives of their community, they still did not want to be brokers or liaisons connecting their communities to other educational entities in the community or even state (s37: 0). Although this statement was ranked higher than any other factors, it was still considered an unsure means of influencing public education. By the same token, participants might have felt the importance of voicing and sharing their education stories, but they did not believe that developing and leading staff training programs to educate educators were helpful in allowing them the means to influence K-12 public education (s38: -2). As the data showed, this statement was ranked as high a mark as in Factors 3 and 4 and higher than in Factor 2.

On the far left continuum (-4) of the forced distribution of Factor 1 (Appendix K), the ranked statements in this section indicated the least influential leadership behaviors and practices that the community leaders used to influence public education in their community. The overall statements illustrated that leadership behaviors and practices which were not directly connected to or benefited their grassroots or cultural and ethnic communities would not be deemed important to loaded participants in Factor 1. First, they would rather share their own education stories or community narratives to impact education decisions. Therefore, the need to train and inform other executives and other leaders about serious concerns their own communities had about public education was

not important (s23: -4). Participant 3 commented that the act of influencing public

"education is built upon personal experiences" and not so much on training other leaders.

Second, participants felt that writing opinion editorials or letters to the editor

about their education concerns would be one of the least meaningful behaviors and

practices to use in order to influence public education for their cultural/ethnic community

(s30: -4). For example, Participant 20 remarked, "Writing letters seems futile to me on

the grand scheme of things." As with any other grassroots activities, their advocacy for

education was rooted in meaningful connection with their own communities through

foot-on-the-ground work and not something intangible or distant such as influencing how

the Department of Education (DOE) develops and funds programs (s15: -3).

Third, because they would rather work directly with other members within their

own community to learn about the needs of their community, they did not feel the need to

ask school leaders what they can do to and how they can support schools (s42: -4). One

participant stated that school leaders "may ask you to do things that are not in the interest

of the community or the students." Another participant, number 40, indicated that "I

would rather spend more energy and time asking students how I can support them." The

statements almost seemed to suggest distrust of school leaders and the resulting lack of

reliance on them to really know what is best for the historically underserved

communities. Because many of these participants were from the ethnic communities and

seemed to have the lowest earning income ability compared to other sorts in Factors 2, 3,

and 4, they might be limited in influencing public education with their financial resources

in order to directly support the school system and others (s21: -3) or to use their positions

to inform others about education (s34: -3).

The following statements were ranked lower in Factor 1 than in other factor arrays (Watts & Stenner, 2012), thus reflecting perceived less powerful ways of using their leadership behaviors and practices to influence K-12 public education. Even though participants recognized the importance of building and maintaining supportive relationships with the educational stakeholders such as students, parents, and school staff, they did not rely too heavily on building strategic relationships with the media (s7: -2) nor with key school leaders (s27: -1). For instance, Participant 22 felt that the "media sometimes have a negative outlook, even when the story is good. I would work hard to build a strategic relationship, but it is not at the top of the list." Also, participants placed less importance on lobbying policy makers as a means to influence local, state, or national educational policies (s25: -2). These far left preferences were evidenced in the participants' post-sort responses. However, the negative or lower ranked positions did not specifically reflect that the participants did not believe in the meaning or value. Sometimes, the far left responses just indicated that the participants rated the value as less important than some other perspectives.

One statement that stood out as distinguishing was the use of technology. Having advocated on educational issues and worked with the underserved and hard-to-reach population, participants did not place high importance on the use of technology to manage and consolidate data in order to more efficiently influence education (s15: -2). In addition, another statement concerning direct collaboration with other organizations and/or school district to promote educational issues to those that had not been attended to was ranked higher (s29: +2). No wonder that Participant 4 argued, "The diverse voices and needs of different communities need to be tak[en] into consideration." This sentiment

is suitably aligned with the overall view of Factor 1 with a focus on raising the voice of the underserved communities.

In summary of Factor 1, 12 of 13 participants are mainly identified as minoritized members including Asians, Blacks, Hispanics, and mixed. They strongly perceived and placed as the most influential method in using their leadership behaviors and practices to influence K-12 public education representing the voice of their community as it is traditionally underserved in education issues, knowing the educational needs of their own community, and using their personal or community education stories. Because the overall perspective was to voice the story and the needs of the underserved community and to advocate and act to bring greater educational support to their nontraditional and underserved communities, the participants in Factor 1 expressed distrust toward the media, key school leaders, and policy makers whom they saw as not knowing enough about the students from their community but making policy decisions as if they knew. In reality, some participants felt that those educational policies might not reflect the best interest of or benefit their underrepresented communities.

Factor 2: Provide resources, advocacy, and grassroots mobility. Factor 2 has an eigenvalue of 4.46 and accounts for 10% of the study's explained variance. Eight of 45 participants are significantly associated with this factor. As illustrated in Table 8, Factor 2 Demographics, there are six female and two male participants, of whom five are White, two are Asians, and one is Hispanic. The demographics indicate that one participant is between 26-35 years of age, three participants from 36-45 years of age, two participants from 46-55 years of age, and two participants from 56-65 years of age. Their educational backgrounds include six participants with a master's degree and two

participants with a doctorate degree. Three of the eight participants are CEOs of local

organizations; two participants hold executive positions; one participant is a consultant,

and another one is a community volunteer. Their annual earned incomes are mostly at the

top scale in the study, with one participant earning between $50,001-100,000; three

participants, earning between $100,001-250,000; and four participants, including the

community volunteer , earning $250,000 or higher. Two of eight participants identified

themselves as educational leaders, and six participants described themselves as nonprofit

organizational leaders.

Table 8

Demographic Information of Participants Loading on Factor 2

Sort ID	Race	Gender	Age range	Edu Level	Career	Income Range	Types of leader
5	Asian	Female	36-45	Doctorate	Executive	$100.1-250K	Educational
17	White	Female	46-55	Masters	CEO	$250.1K +	Nonprofit
23	Asian	Male	36-45	Masters	Consultant	$100.1-250K	Nonprofit
27	Hispanic	Female	36-45	Masters	profess	$50.1-100K	Nonprofit
33	White	Male	26-35	Masters	Executive	$250.1K+	Nonprofit
36	White	Female	46-55	Masters	CEO	$250.1K+	Nonprofit
37	White	Female	56-65	Masters	retired pro	$250.1K+	Educational
41	White	Female	56-65	Doctorate	CEO	$100.1-250K	Nonprofit

Participants who embodied in Factor 2 placed importance on providing resources,

advocacy, and grassroots mobility to act on their leadership behaviors and practices in

order to influence K-12 public education as seen in Appendix K. Specifically, they

valued mobilizing for and supporting grassroots efforts for education and providing

resources directly to schools where students are most affected in the traditionally

unrepresented community. The overall perspective that showcased within Factor 2 is

based on the Factor 2 array, the post-sort questionnaire statements from the participants

explaining their rationale in their own words for the ± 4 rankings and the distinguishing statements in Factor 2 in terms of ranking higher or lower than any other factors. Factor 2 described the perception that through providing resources, advocacy, and grassroots mobility, participants would be able to use their leadership behaviors and practices to influence K-12 public education.

Overall, this perspective of Factor 2 expressed a preference for assisting the special needs of students from a particular community that was not historically attended to; therefore, these community leaders wanted to help the underserved community in all possible ways concerning education acquisition —even at their own expense by investing their own financial and capacity resources to benefit their focused community (s21: +4). These community leaders were interested in providing acquired or donated resources directly to the schools. According to the demographic data, these participants are financially established. They actually invested their funds in the school system or other education service organizations to directly benefit the underserved students. Interestingly, this statement was ranked as one of the highest scores on the continuum, but none of the participants loaded in this Factor 2 were willing to provide explanation as to the reason why they preferred providing and investing resources directly to the school system to help students from the traditionally underserved community.

The next most influential method that loaded participants in Factor 2 perceived to be useful as leadership behaviors and practices in order to impact schools was to mobilize and support the grassroots efforts for K-12 public education (s12: +4). These community leader participants have a far higher income range than those they want to help. The process of getting access into communities where traditionally underserved students came

from could pose difficulty for these Factor 2 participants, and they may even be rejected out of economic class suspicion. Perhaps, then, the support for mobilization and grassroots efforts was a segue or entrée into those underserved communities or hard-to-reach pockets of the community. As Participant 5 commented, "It is influential to get others to utilize their power. This is a way to have greatest impact through one individual." Similarly, grassroots efforts sometimes could affect concerned citizens who were often equated as voters. Through these grassroots voters, the community leader participants saw the potential of influence. As Participant 17 observed, "Elected officials pay attention to voters."

The third most influential means of impacting public education for participants who loaded on Factor 2 was advocating for K-12 educational issues and/or organizations that benefit the traditionally underserved community (s19: +4). In Factor 2, underserved community may not be referencing the *ethnically* underserved community. Participant 17 felt that "advocacy keeps education in the forefront." The participants in this factor might broadly refer to any group of people such as children or at-risk girls who had not been attended to by the general public. Participant 41 articulated this point:

> This [s19] is a broader perspective of giving voice to children and includes standing up for individuals who often do not have access to decision makers or feel they cannot influence policy and processes. By using my position of leadership, I have access and can advocate for issues that directly impact the underserved communities where citizen voices are often discounted. I think this is an ethical responsibility of a leader.

The community participants also perceived that sharing quality information about education concerns (s16: +3) and educating other leaders on educational issues (s17: +3) were near the top of their leadership behaviors and practices used in order to influence K-12 public education. Significantly, they did not want to take the spotlight away from others and rather preferred to work behind the scenes to enact their influence on public education (s11: +3), thus the high value on the forced distribution curve (Appendix K).

The distinguishing statements provided additional, useful context that had not been identified in the above categories (Watts & Stenner, 2012). Interestingly, the statements s16, and s17: +3 might have resulted as one of the top two positions in Factor 2, but together they were also ranked higher in Factor 2 than any other factor arrays. Even though the majority of the loaded participants in Factor 2 has the highest average income range of any other factor array, participants wanted to use their leadership behaviors and practices to financially help the historically disadvantaged community; therefore, they also created opportunities in the community whereby people from various backgrounds could come and share their conversations and concerns about educational issues (s31: +2). The latter statement indicated the participants' willingness to have the community publicly talking about educational issues to benefit students and schools. As Participant 41 described the sentiment,

> The convening and conversations raise awareness and can spark creative solutions versus leaving the solutions to elected officials. This process involves bringing together the diverse voices and individuals with differing experiences to share commonalities and differences and to hold each other accountable. It creates space for building community and a collective response to the challenges.

Their high positions in their own organizations and personally possessed high earned

incomes placed higher value in building strategic relationships with the media (s7: +1)

than any other factor arrays. Their professional positions suggested an ease and

relationship with the media instead of mistrust or distrust in the media.

Another statement ranked higher in Factor 2 than any other factors was that

community leaders felt strongly toward the idea of including leaders who have diverse

perspectives about education at the decision making table (s4: +2). For example,

Participant 36 stated, "We must have people with differing perspectives working together

to come up with creative solutions for education. Myopic thinking has gotten us where

we are today." Perhaps, these community leaders who might have been on a higher

income scale still felt the need to reach out to be inclusive involving members of the

traditionally underserved demographic and others to collectively help solve the

educational concerns and inequality. Although writing opinion editorials or letters to the

editor might have been a statement (s30: -1) ranked as the least influential method to

impact public education, this statement was still ranked higher in Factor 2 than any other

factor arrays. Again, this sentiment was more aligned with the participants' ease and trust

in the media as a strategic partnership in their advocacy for public education and the

underserved community. Participants suggested that they would rather directly invest and

fund resources to the school system on their own terms instead of asking members of a

school district how the participants can support them (s42: -1). However, this particular

statement was still considered higher in value than any other factor arrays. That

preference in Factor 2 related to the participants' top professional positions, suggesting a

higher level of influence and closer working relationship with the district decision makers.

On the far left continuum (-4) of the forced distribution of Factor 2 (Appendix K), the ranked statements in this section indicated the least influential leadership behaviors and practices that the community leaders used to influence public education in their community. The overall statements of the participants' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and practices used to influence public education suggested their lowest preference for developing staff training to school personnel and others (s38: -4). Their goal was to help the underserved student populations from those traditionally neglected communities; therefore, it is understandable that the participants in Factor 2 felt that staff training and providing executive coaching to others about the pressing needs of education (s23: -3) would not be a highly important perspective.

The ranked preferences chosen by these participants who loaded on Factor 2 surprisingly showed that they did not strongly believe in the importance of promoting cultural events in the communities so that they would become stronger in their influence (s6: -4) even though some of the participants are from the minority. Interestingly, they had the desire to assist members of the underserved community, often minority, and their grassroots efforts to impact public education; however, they did not think that promotion of cultural events would serve as a vehicle to influence public education in the underserved communities. Minoritized Participant 27 shared that "cultural competence is nice, but it is not the driver for business decisions. The ability to bring growth to businesses and financial profit is the key driver." The lived experiences of some loaded participants, especially those who were from the minority, might have taught them to

conform in some way to survive in the business world of making profits. Another

perspective in reference to the lack of emphasis on promotion of cultural events among

these participants in Factor 2 was their backgrounds. Most of the community leaders

referenced here are White and might have seen themselves as having no unique culture.

For instance, Participant 33 stated, "My personal community isn't very culturally strong.

I think this can be influential in certain communities."

Serving as a mentor (s9: -4) also was ranked as one of the least influential tools as

well. The concept of influencing one person at a time did not seem as impactful or as

substantive enough. Participant 41 lamented,

I find this [serving as a mentor] to be ineffective because it assumes that I have

knowledge that others do not. I find one-to-one mentoring is not effective and

instead believe every individual brings a wealth of experiences, knowledge and

expertise that can be part of a greater conversation. The mentorship role suggests

a "power over" versus a "shared power" of knowledge and expertise from

different experiences.

By the same token, Participant 27 wrote that to serve as a mentor to others "is a great

community service but does not drive the decision makers." In other words, the

perception of influence on policy makers concerning K-12 public education in reference

to mentorship is low.

These participants perceived themselves already as advocates for educational

issues with intent to help the traditionally underserved community. In addition, this

perspective suggested that they had already vested their time learning for themselves

about the targeted community. Therefore, they did not place high importance on learning

about educational issues on their own (s39: -2) while remaining neutral on the need to know about educational concerns of their community (s22: 0). Similarly, participants placed neutral in sharing quality information in order to better inform perceptions in the community about public education (s20: 0), a contrast to one of their most influential means of influencing public education, mobilizing and supporting grassroots. These community leaders stayed neutral as well on building and maintaining trusting relationships with school stakeholders (s28: 0) and collaborating with organizations and/or school districts to promote educational issues, especially underserved community members (s29: 0). In addition, these positions of importance on the forced distribution curve seemed to conflict with one of their most influential methods at +4, advocating for K-12 educational issues and/or organizations that benefit the traditionally underserved community.

Another statement that was ranked lower in Factor 2 than in all other factor arrays concerned the use of technology to manage and consolidate data (s15: -2). Participant 5 suggested that technology is "an important skill/strength to have, but this act in itself does not have a greater sphere of influence unless connected to a broader communications strategy." Perhaps, the traditionally underserved population community in education has widely been documented; therefore, the need to place more focus on preference about the use of technology was perceived to be a less influential tool to impact public education. Though the participants felt a compelling need to provide resources, advocacy, and grassroots mobility to help those in the community who had been traditionally ignored concerning education, they placed low value in visiting their local K-12 schools and encouraging others to do so as well (s35: -2). They already knew about the current

conditions of the local schools; therefore, they placed a lower priority on visiting the

schools or telling others about them. Also, they might have assumed that the others

already made visits to the local schools and knew them. One ironic statement that stood

out also was the neutral placement of their helping to mobilize the ethnic-based

communities because they believe that those communities lagged behind in terms of

influence in education (s13: 0). This preference contrasted with their highest placement

of importance in the need to mobilize and support grassroots efforts for education and

advocate for K-12 educational issues to benefit the traditionally underserved community.

In summary of Factor 2, two of eight participants are identified as Asians; one

participant is Hispanic; and five participants are White. They strongly perceived and

placed as the most influential methods in using their leadership behaviors and practices to

influence K-12 public education the acts of providing and investing resources directly to

school system or education-related organizations, advocacy for educational issues that

benefit the targeted disadvantaged community, and grassroots mobility in their

community. The data factor arrays with the Q statements, distinguishing statements

comparing with all other factors, and the post-sort questionnaire responses all emphasized

the need for these community leaders to invest and fund initiatives that support the

nontraditional and underserved communities. The overall perspective was to provide

resources, advocacy, and grassroots mobility. Even though participants in Factor 2

expressed a desire to put advocacy for education in the forefront, especially for those

children from the traditionally underserved community which can be an ethnic group or

organization for children or at-risk girls, they did not place much emphasis on promoting

cultural events within these underserved communities or serving as a mentor or educator

to others to highlight the needs of these communities. Finally, they were unwilling to explain their rationale for ±4 responses among the loaded participants in Factor 2. Factor 2 had the least qualitative sentiments in the post-sort questionnaire.

      Factor 3: Learn about educational issues to lobby and to serve. Factor 3 has an eigenvalue of 3.33 and accounts for 7% of the study explained variance. Eight of the 45 participants are significantly associated with this factor. As illustrated in Table 9 below, Factor 3 Demographics, there are 5 females and 3 males. Participants are diverse with four Asians, one Black, one Hispanic, and one White. The demographic indicates two participants who are between 26-35 years of age, two participants between 36-45 years of age, one participant between 46-55 years of age, two participants between 56-65 years of age, and one participant at least 65 years old. Their educational backgrounds include one participant with a high school diploma, one participant with a bachelor's degree, two participants with a master' s degree, and four participants with a doctorate degree. One of the eight participants is a CEO of a local organization; two participants hold executive positions; four participants are professional, and one is a community volunteer and a retired professional. Their annual earned incomes are varied from the middle to the top scale in the study with one participant earning between $25,001-50,000; one participant earning between $50,001-100,000; three participants earning between $100,001-250,000; and 3 participants earning more than $250,000. Two of the eight participants identified themselves as cultural leaders, one as an economic leader, two as educational leaders, and three participants described themselves as nonprofit organizational leaders.

Table 9

Demographic Information of Participants Loading on Factor 3

Sort ID	Race	Gender	Age range	Edu Level	Career	Income Range	Types of leader
8	Asian	Female	36-45	Doctorate	profess	$50.1-100K	Cultural/Ethnic
10	White	Female	46-55	Masters	profess	$100.1-250K	Educational
11	White	Female	56-65	Doctorate	Executive	$250.1K+	Nonprofit
16	Asian	Male	26-35	HighSchl	profess	$100.1-250K	Cultural/Ethnic
18	Black	Female	26-35	Bachelor	Executive	$25.1-50K	Nonprofit
26	Hispanic	Male	36-45	Doctorate	profess	$250.1K+	Educational
35	Asian	Female	65+	Doctorate	profess	$100.1-250K	Nonprofit
38	Asian	Male	56-65	Masters	retired	$250.1K+	Economic

Participants who comprised Factor 3 placed importance on learning about

educational issues in order to lobby and to serve their community's educational concerns

as leadership behaviors and practices used to influence K-12 public education as

demonstrated (Appendix K). Specifically, they wanted to influence public education by

first, understanding educational issues on their own, then using the knowledge to serve as

board members of various education organizations, and finally, being active in political

processes such as lobbying policy makers for education in their community. The overall

perspective that emerged from Factor 3 is based on the Factor 3 array, the post-sort

questionnaire statements from the participants' explaining their rationale in their own

words for the ± 4 rankings, and the distinguishing statements in Factor 3. To use their

leadership behaviors and practices to influence K-12 public education, the participants in

Factor 3 expressed a preference for the political process or involvement in politics.

First of all, one of the most influential perceptions among the participants in

Factor 3 described the importance of knowing about and being involved in educational

issues and using that gift to best influence educational policy (s39: +4). These

participants were composed of diverse and ethnic backgrounds. As these predominantly

minoritized community leaders in Factor 3 advocated for particular educational issues,

they preferred to learn and investigate the background of those issues prior to reaching

out to others or talking about them. Participant 10 shared, "I believe leaders should be

well informed regarding the issues and be prepared to speak in support or against issues

facing education." The comment suggested that the priority for leaders is to take the

initiative to learn the relevant issues that might negatively or positively impact their own

community. Sharing a similar sentiment, Participant 26 recognized that "knowledge is

power, and . . . becoming well versed on the educational issues is the most important step

in making a difference." The participants in Factor 3 certainly preferred seeking

knowledge on their own about the issues that concerned them and their communities in

order to counter the questions from the public about their cultural/ethnic communities or

to probe for answers.

The next most influential method used is to lobby and recruit policy makers to

impact K-12 public education at the local, statewide, and/or national educational policy

(s25: +4). Significantly, the participants in Factor 3 placed politics high on the

influencing leadership behaviors and practices including lobbying, voting (s8: +3), and

recruiting political candidates (s18: +3) who might share the same education values they

do. To them, the direct connection to the policy makers seemed a more effective method

for changing or pursuing educational issues than by going through layers of individuals

and groups to get the answers they need. For example, Participant 35 argued that "issues

need to be brought to the attention of the 'powers that be' and legislative body that will

ultimately make decisions on the matter."

As stated above, the majority of these participants are minority. Their current successes as professional and community advocates might have been the results of their lobbying directly to accomplish specific rights in order to advance socially. As Participant 38 wrote, "Lobbying has proven an effective way to influence policy makers." In reference to the importance of voting as a tool to influence public education, Participant 18 stated, "If citizens don't exercise their right to vote, then citizens shouldn't complain about those in office or the programs/bills that they don't support. Voting matters." This sentiment about individual responsibility reflected the idea previously expressed in the participants' perception on learning educational issues on their own. The suggestion here was that individuals could influence public education through political process.

The third most influential tool as illustrated in Factor 3 is to serve (or seek to serve) as a board member of local, state, or national advocacy organizations for education (s14: +4). Participant 18 explained this concept:

I believe that by serving on boards such as the School Advisory Council or PTA, you gain more insight on the reality of any situation. Often times, you are able to ask more questions to the school staff and leadership team, gaining clarity and becoming better equipped with tools to advocate for your local school and community.

The direct line of communication to the key leadership team facilitates the pressing needs of their community more quickly and efficiently. The overall view of Factor 3 underpinned the importance of political processes such as lobbying, voting, or recruiting political candidates who shared the same beliefs about education. To build up their

political connections with the decision makers, they sought to serve as board members of influential education organizations. As they served on the important education organization boards, they recognized the essential relationship building with other leaders in the community. Therefore, they felt the need to seek to collaborate with key stakeholders or organizations of the community to facilitate strategies for change (s32: +3). Participant 10 aptly commented, "There is strength in numbers. I believe that by serving on a board with strong educational ties that people listen to your views and recommendations. I believe that the decision makers also seek your opinion and support." This sentiment implied that once these community leaders lobbied with policy makers and served as board members of influential education organizations, their connection with the policy makers would become permanent and valuable over time. The comment also suggested that this long term relationship or collaboration with key leaders and decision makers would allow them the eventual influence of having the policy makers seeking them out for inputs about education instead of the other way around.

As far as the distinguishing statements were concerned, they provided any additional high rank and useful context that had not been identified in the above categories (Watts & Stenner, 2012). In the same preference for attaining leadership positions at the local, state, and/or national level in order to influence public education, the community leaders also placed higher value on holding position of authority in local and/or state organizations regarding education (s5: +2). These community leaders preferred large public audiences or gatherings to bring education concerns to the forefront. For example, they supported participation in educational policy forums (s23: +2). They themselves even convened and coordinated the formal conversations for the

public to discuss issues related to education (s31: +2) and to share quality information in order to better inform perceptions in the community (s20: +2). Even though participants placed a neutral position for the influence of how the Department of Education develops and funds programs in public schools, their place of importance for this statement was considered higher rank than all other Factor Arrays (s41: 0). Because the participants are highly political as indicated in the data and their post-sort responses, they did not place high value in developing and leading staff training programs (s38: -2) or providing executive coaching and advice to others about educational concerns (s23: -1).

On the far left continuum (-4) of the forced distribution of Factor 3 (Appendix K), the ranked statements in this section indicated the least influential leadership behaviors and practices that the community leaders used to influence public education in their community. Most of these participants had varied occupations, and some held top positions in their organizations and had high financial stability. The overall statements of participants' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and practices used to influence public education suggested their lowest preferences were promoting cultural events within their communities as a way to influence education, sending their own children to local public schools, and using their own personal education stories. Because they considered the most influential methods of impacting K-12 public education were political in nature, they did not value the promotion of cultural events within their communities as influential tools (s6: -4). They saw the cultural events as irrelevant to the influencing process of education policy, which is dictated by the political matters. For example, Participant 38, from an ethnic group, stated that "I don't see how promoting cultural events is relevant to making my community stronger in its influence in

education." Ironically, these minoritized community leaders in Factor 3 saw little relevance in using cultural events and functions as the influencing methods to impact education at all. They did not recognize a relationship between building cultural influences and educational reform in order to make their communities strong.

In addition, the participants in this factor did not highly consider sending their children to local public schools or encouraging family and friends to do the same (s10: -4). Even though these community leaders were mostly minority, they might not have attended public school; hence, their preference for this statement was least. As one participant, number 35, explained,

 I don't encourage folks one way or the other. People have to choose what fits their beliefs and what fits their budget. I choose to send my kids to Catholic private schools because I want them to have a religious education and believe Catholic school education is the gold standard.

Some might believe that choosing a school for their family was personal. As Participant 8 shared, "This . . . is personal. I am not sure about its influence." Some participants in Factor 3 seemed to consider their religious schools and experiences much more important than those at the public schools. Even though they became involved in activism for public education, they had no connection with the local school experiences, thus explaining their lowest ranking in endorsing public school attendance.

Even though the community leader participants in Factor 3 were composed of various ethnic groups, they did not recognize the significance of using their own personal story as an inspiration of how public education can transform lives (s40: -4). Participant 35 said that "I don't have my own story to tell, since I did not go to public school. [I] am

not personally affected by issues I am fighting for. I am advocating for issues that affect my community, not me personally." This participant's lived story was not considered a positive contribution to the advocacy work which was meant to serve the participant's underserved community as a whole. On the other hand, participant 38 commented, "I don't believe I have a compelling story regarding how public education made me successful. My success is tied to many different factors—the most significant of which was not public education." Because public school education was not so much a part of some of the participants' education backgrounds, they shared similar sentiment to Participant 26 who said that "I am a product of public and private parochial schools. My experience was much better in the private parochial school." Perhaps, because their schooling experience was not based upon public school education, this view helped to explain the loaded participants' lack of endorsement to visit their local K-12 schools and encourage others to do so (s35: -3). On the other hand, they might have wanted to influence education for all as indicated previously, including other children and their own children attending private or charter schools that were not considered traditional or local school settings.

The following statements were ranked lower in Factor 3 than in other factor arrays. As stated previously, the theme of learning educational issues in order to lobby and to serve in various influential boards to impact education decisions emerged from Factor 3. The underpinning concept seemed to relate to the emphasis on a political process at large in this factor more than any other factors arrays. Although six of eight participants loaded on Factor 3 were minorities, they somehow did not feel the need to

help mobilize their own ethnic-based communities, or they believed that ethnic groups lag behind in their ability to influence education (s13: -3).

On the local level, these participants did not highly position the idea of helping their community celebrate and demonstrate appreciation for education and educators (s3: -2). Similarly, because their perception to influence public education was through directly lobbying and associating with policy makers, their preference to use technology in managing and consolidating data was understandably placed lower than in all other factor arrays (s15: -2). Even though these participants placed good value in sharing quality information with other related education advocates or organizations, their preference was still positioned lower in Factor 3 than in any other Factor arrays (s16: +1). As they preferred using political processes through lobbying, supporting political candidates with similar education perspectives, and serving as board members in organizations to influence public education, they somehow placed less emphasis on being the voice of the voiceless (s1: -1). Perhaps, they believed that their advocacy work to influence public education was equally for all children with no distinction among any specific groups of students, disadvantaged or advantaged. In addition, they believed in advocating for K-12 educational concerns for the benefit of the traditionally underserved community (s19: +1); however, this preference of importance was ranked lower in Factor 3 than all other factors.

Because their preference was to directly lobby policy makers, recruit potential political candidates, and publicly serve on influential education-related boards, they did not place high importance on either writing opinions and letters to the editor (s30: -3) or orchestrating from behind the scenes and letting others have the spotlight (s11: -2). Their

low preference for various specific cultural and ethnic groups discussed earlier did not reflect a lack of value. They rather believed that helping all groups was more their preference as they placed some importance in knowing the educational needs of their community (s22: +1) in order to lobby and articulate the needs to policy makers or potential political candidates and in building and maintaining trust and relationships with educational stakeholders (s28: +2). Interestingly, six of eight participants were ethnic; perhaps, their preference to influence public education through political processes as highlighted above stemmed from their own lobbying and working directly with policy makers to politically and socially advance their respective communities.

In summary of Factor 3, four of eight participants who loaded on this factor were identified as Asians; one participant was Black; one participant was Hispanic; and two participants were White. They strongly perceived and placed the most influential methods on using their leadership behaviors and practices to influence K-12 public education through learning about educational issues on their own in order to effectively lobby policy makers and to serve as board members on local, state, or national education organizations. The overall perspective in Factor 3 was to learn about educational issues to lobby and to serve on boards, suggesting that these ethnic community leaders had figured out the best way to influence public education or other social advocacy was through the political process and not through cultural methods that involved events and voices of their ethnic communities. In addition, these diverse participants were mainly educated through the private school system and had their own children attending private schools as well; they were financially more advantaged than those in Factor 1, so their perspectives in influencing K-12 public education were naturally not focused on the challenging issues

related to public local schools. The data factor arrays with the Q statements,

distinguishing statements compared to all other Factors, and the post-sort questionnaire

responses of their ± 4 emphasized the need for these community leaders to influence K-

12 public education through political processes.

Factor 4: Build supportive and personal relationships to stay informed.

Factor 4 has an eigenvalue of 3.08 and accounts for 7% of the study explained variance.

Twelve of 45 participants are significantly associated with this factor. As illustrated in

Table 10, Factor 4 Demographics, there are six females and six males. Nine of these

participants are White; one participant is Asian; and two participants are Black. The

demographic indicates one participant is between 26-35 years of age, two participants

between 36-45 years of age, four participants between 46-55 years of age, and five

participants between 56-65 years of age. Their educational backgrounds include one

participant with a high school diploma, two participants with a bachelor's degree, six

participants with a master's degree, and four participants with a doctorate degree. Five of

the 12 participants are either professionals or consultants. One is a community activist.

There are three CEOs and three executives of local organizations. Their annual earned

incomes range from middle to high with three participants earning between $50,001-

100,000 and nine participants earning between $100,001-250,000. Six of 12 participants

consider themselves as educational leaders, and six participants identify themselves as

nonprofit organizational leaders.

Table 10

Demographic Information of Participants Loading on
Factor 4

Sort ID	Race	Gender	Age range	Edu Level	Career	Income Range	Types of leader

1	Black	Female	46-55	Bachelor	profess	$100.1-250K	Educational
2	White	Female	26-35	Masters	Executive	$100.1-250K	Educational
9	White	Male	46-55	Masters	CEO	$100.1-250K	Nonprofit
12	White	Female	46-55	Doctorate	Executive	$100.1-250K	Educational
19	White	Female	36-45	Bachelor	Activist	$100.1-250K	Non-profit
25	White	Male	56-65	Masters	CEO	$100.1-250K	Educational
29	Asian	Male	46-55	Doctorate	profess	$100.1-250K	Nonprofit
30	White	Female	56-65	Masters	profess	$50.1-100K	Nonprofit
34	White	Male	56-65	Doctorate	Consultant	$50.1-100K	Nonprofit
39	Black	Male	36-45	Doctorate	profess	$50.1-100K	Educational
42	White	Female	56-65	Masters	Executive	$100.1-250K	Educational
44	White	Male	56-65	Masters	CEO	$100.1-250K	Nonprofit

Participants who composed Factor 4 placed importance on building supportive and personal relationships with key school leaders to enact their leadership behaviors and practices in order to influence K-12 public education, as illustrated in Appendix K. Specifically, they preferred working with others in collaborative relationships to influence K-12 public education. The perspective that emerged from Factor 4 was based on the Factor 4 array, the post-sort questionnaire statements from the participants explaining their rationale in their own words for the ± 4 rankings, and the distinguishing statements within the Factor 4 in terms of higher or lower ranking than any other factors. Factor 4 described the perception that through building supportive and personal relationships with key school leaders and staying informed about educational issues in their community, participants would be able to use their leadership behaviors and practices to influence K-12 public education. Significantly, they also placed statements high on the continuum scale as leadership behaviors and practices to best influence educational policies in K-12 public schools if they were related to building and collaborating with various education leaders in the spirit of learning about public education or sharing information about schools.

First of all, one of the most influential leadership behaviors and practices expressed in Factor 4 was the importance of building and maintaining trust and supportive relationships with educational stakeholders, including students, parents, and school staff (s28: +4) to impact K-12 public education. The participants in Factor 4 believed in building relationships and maintaining relationships with trust among stakeholders to impact change in K-12 public education and eventually the community at large. As Participant 39 stated,

> Public education issues are not just a matter of school. They are systemic communal problems that require trusting relationship to resolve. Without the trust of the community, there are no admitted problems; and if there are no admitted problems, there are no solutions.

Another Participant, 42, lamented the lack of relationship building in the community for too long that had resulted in mistrust among numerous entities within the community: "Our community has been afflicted for decades with a culture of mistrust among systems, organizations, and community. Building relationships based on mutual respect and understandings were the key to overcome this mistrust." Perhaps, the suggestion here was that without this commitment to trust building among all organizations, the challenges concerning education in the community would continue to persist. In the same sentiment, Participant 30 suggested that "there should always be inclusion of decision making on those that will be impacted. Transparency invites buy-in and support of initiatives that will contribute to success." The response here implied that transparency in operation and organization equated with maintaining and nurturing trust, contributing to success in impacting K-12 public education. Participant 1 urged that "you have to build, nurture,

and maintain trust with each [of the stakeholders]," including students, parents, and school staff.

Next, the second most influential method that community leaders loaded on Factor 4 perceived to have high effect in influencing public education was to maintain or build personal relationships with key school leaders (s27: +4). This statement, denoting relationship building, certainly resonated with loaded participants in this Factor 4. As statements 28 and 27 were ranked the highest (+4), the loaded participants in Factor 4 did not just implicitly express their preference for relationship and trust building with everyone as top priority; they explicitly desired the relationship and trust building with school stakeholders and key school leaders first and foremost. As Participant 1 explained, "I cannot influence change if I am not personally and passionately invested in my local school system." To them, students, parents, school staff, and school leaders who were most directly impacted individuals in education should be the people with whom the loaded participants should create and maintain a trusting and personal relationship.

Again, that sentiment echoed in their preference to stay informed about school and public educational issues by learning about them from the most impacted—teachers, students, and parents (s24: +4). Attaining trust was considered important in all relationships and collaborations. For these participants, the education issues and challenges must be learned directly and explicitly from within the education system starting with students, teachers, and parents because they could provide the trustworthy and reliable information about what was really happening and what was not. As Participant 1 argued, "Without accurate knowledge of key issues impacting our children, schools, and our communities, we are simply being ineffective in our attempts to be

credible and impactful change agents." The knowledge gained from directly impacted

persons within the schools should then be deemed accurate and should be used to inform

others in order to influence public education. Participant 19 stated, "It is important to me

to learn enough about an issue so that I understand both the negative and positive aspects

and form my own opinion before sharing it with others." According to Participant 39,

"without understanding the nuances . . . of public education, it is difficult to support,

influence, or impact the issues." As implied in these perspectives, community participants

of Factor 4 seemed cautious in their influencing, yet they wanted to ensure that their

community knowledge arose from the direct sources and that they should be well versed

in such community knowledge prior to sharing information.

As illustrated in Factor 4 data, these above statements were leadership behaviors

and practices that the community leaders perceived to be the most influential methods of

influencing public education. In addition, the participants provided their own written

responses in the post-sort questionnaire to elaborate further as to the reasons for their

highest ranking +4 and +3 statements, indicating the perception of their leadership

behaviors and practices used to influence K-12 public education in Factor 4.

Uniquely, some participants might have preferred relationship building not

necessarily with education service organizations but with cultures and languages and

organizations for special needs children who might not need advanced education status to

succeed. For instance, Participant 2 pointed out that because she "help[ed] those on the

front lines of education to be the most prepared to support the diverse cultural and

linguistic students that we serve," she recognized "multicultural populations as an

additive to the collective community. They can provide much, and I think we are all

better off with multiple voices and perspectives present." This sentiment was indicative of the understanding of schools' current diverse demographics. In terms of advocacy for children with special needs and not necessarily with a focus on college bound or curricular rigors, Participant 30 shared,

> I have always pulled for the underdog and looked at those challenges, trying to determine strengths and their contribution opportunities. Only through working with multidisciplines, can we reach those to promote the programs that seem to be harder to fund. Not all students will achieve advanced educational status. Our society and communities need to assist these folks in finding their strengths and pairing them with our needs to see success.

The relationship and trust building must also be reached from within the new, emerging population in public education.

Similarly, the following statements in Factor 4 were mostly ranked higher than all other factor arrays (Watts & Stenner, 2012). The following statements were not only high ranking statements, but they were ranked higher in Factor 4 than were any other factors. As far as these distinguishing statements were concerned, they provided additional high ranked and useful context that had not been identified in the above categories (Watts & Stenner, 2012). In the same preference for building trusting and supportive relationships with organizations and inclusive cultures in order to influence public education, the community leaders also placed higher value on collaborating with other education stakeholders to help those disadvantaged populations (s29: +3) and seeking out other leaders and organizations for impactful change (s32: +3). Participant 9 articulated this point:

Most change requires multiple partners and thinking about education in terms of a

larger system. Silo's efforts are generally doomed to failure. Only by bringing

people together to coordinate a shared approach to improving education can we

leverage all of the entities who need to have a part in making change.

Like other participants in Factor 4, this participant believed that collaborative efforts in a

spirit of sharing among multiple partners in a larger communal context enable a far

greater opportunity to impact change rather than operating singly.

Participant 34 added,

As a collaboration expert, I have facilitated discussion with educational

stakeholders that focus on their ability to improve educational outcomes by

working more effectively together, particularly about better serving children and

families in disadvantaged areas of the community.

Community leaders, like Participant 34, believed that building personal relationships

with students was important to influence public education one student at a time by being

their one-on-one mentor (s9: +1). These community leaders appeared to be more cautious

and thoughtful individuals in this Factor 4 than in other factors about their own behaviors

and practices used to influence K-12 public education by placing an emphasis on

assessing and reflecting on issues prior to taking action (s33: +3). By the same token,

they placed high importance on developing their own leadership skills first before leading

others (s36: +2) and sharing quality information to better inform perceptions in the

community about public education (s20: +2). Even though participants valued building

relationships with school stakeholders, their preference was neutral in acting as brokers

or liaisons to connect to various educational entities (s37: 0) and in sending their children

to local public schools (s10: 0). They might not have placed the importance of sending their children to public school, but participants believed that visiting their local public K-12 schools and encouraging others to do so as well was an influential method to impact public education (s35: +1).

On the far left continuum (-4) of the forced distribution of Factor 4, Appendix K, the ranked statements in this section indicated the least influential leadership behaviors and practices that the community leaders used to influence public education in their community. Most of these participants had varied occupations, but 6 of 12 participants were either CEOs or top executives of their organizations. The overall negatively-scaled statements illustrated that participants' perception of their leadership behaviors and practices used to influence public education suggested their lowest preferences as writing opinion editorials and letters to the editor, using their own personal education stories, and influencing the Department of Education (DOE). They also considered events and activities that seemed political or cultural in nature as the least influential method of impacting K-12 public education.

Because these participants' preference in Factor 4 was geared towards relationship building with actual school stakeholders and education advocates, writing opinion editorials (Op Ed) or letters to the editor was ranked as one of lowest (s30: -4). Out of 12 participants in this factor, 6 of them placed statement 30 as the lowest rank in the forced distribution. Participant 10 lamented, "I see little value in writing to the paper. Very few people read these articles anymore. I would rather directly communicate with those who make the decision." This distant and impersonal approach to influence decision makers was not something that "interested" (Participant 29) the community

leaders in Factor 4. As Participant 39 explained, "Advocacy starts with the direct and trusting relationships; therefore, Op Ed articles are spurious without it." Some, like participant 44, felt that writing "does not foster active dialogue" about public education concerns, while Participant 2 did "not feel as if [writing articles] is the best manner to get . . . [the] message heard." Overall, these participants expressed an interest in hands-on and active modes of influencing K-12 public education. They valued the actual interactions with affected stakeholders on school grounds rather than those methods that appeared impersonal as in writing editorial articles in order to impact public education policies.

As mentioned, these participants in Factor 4 expressed a preference for building relationships through direct communication and contact with the school stakeholders and school leaders in order to understand the nuances of the school's situation and to learn reliable information about the education challenges facing their local community. As a result, they placed low priority on influencing public education at the state level by trying to affect the way the Department of Education (DOE) develops and funds programs (s41: -4). Five participants in Factor 4 also indicated, as illustrated in the data, that the DOE was important and influential, especially when it concerned funding for programs needed in the school. However, these community leader participants felt that their influence level was minimal concerning what was happening at the DOE because of the magnitude of the organization at the state and national level. They rather focused on the influencing process at the local level. For instance, Participant 9 stated,

The DOE at the national level is beyond the ability of one individual to provide

influence. It is an enormous, highly politicized animal. The state Department of

Education is slightly more amenable. But in each case, a regulatory framework

exists within which real progress could be made. . . . In the meantime, real change

can be made locally more efficiently.

Influencing the DOE at the state and national level required highly connected individuals,

educationally or politically, mentioned Participant 9; therefore, to be involved at the state

or national DOE, community leaders would have to be deeply connected with top and

influential leaders at the Department of Education at the state or federal level. Participant

34 recognized that he might have been a community leader, but he was "not in a position

to have influence with the DOE." Another participant, number 9, could only suggest the

thought by stating that "hopefully our grassroots efforts will be recognized by [the] DOE

as they develop and fund programs." Others such as Participant 30 suggested that they

had not been "directly involved with ongoing funding and programmatic decisions . . .

[but]" would need to trust those with more direct involvement to define and influence the

policies." These participants in Factor 4 still recognized the importance of the work of the

Department of Education; however, the majority of these leader participants felt that the

DOE office was far beyond their influence; hence, they relied on the DOE officials to be

fair in devising a funding formula or other administering funding sources.

The following statements were ranked lower in Factor 4 than in other factor

arrays. These community leaders viewed these to be less influential means of using their

leadership behaviors and practices to impact K-12 public education. As stated previously,

the theme of building supportive and personal relationships with key school stakeholders

to remain involved in educational issues to impact education decisions emerged from

Factor 4. The essential concept seemed to emphasize relationship building with key

school leaders and stakeholders in this factor more than any other factors arrays; therefore, community leaders loaded in Factor 4 placed less importance on statements that leaned more toward political processes and board membership. For example, three of the four (-3) statements (s5, s14, and s18) mentioned above were also ranked as lower in Factor 4 than in any other factor arrays.

These participants remained neutral on being an active voter (s8: 0); however, the rank of their preference was lower in this factor than all other factors. The process of mobilizing and supporting grassroots efforts for education (s12: -1), which might have been perceived as political activism, also was placed as a less important tool to influence public education among participants in Factor 4. By the same token, an irony that while the theme emerging for Factor 4 was based mainly on building supportive and personal relationships with key school leaders and stakeholders, these community leaders placed low importance or neutral on representing the voice of the underserved community (s2: -1) and ensuring that diverse-thought leaders are invited into the decision-making process for education (s4: 0). These community leaders had low preference for building relationships with the media (s7: -1). Perhaps, there was a real mistrust between their advocacy for public education and the media that already had existed, thus resulting in low preference for a relationship with the media.

Because the preference which emerged in Factor 4 was about building meaningful and trusting relationships with key school leaders and stakeholders, community leaders loaded in this factor preferred to use the knowledge gained about the needs of the community (s22: +2) in order to articulate those needs to other collaborators and partners. Besides the need to learn about their community, learning about the educational issues for

their own understanding (s39: +2) also was evidently placed high on the continuum scale of influence. However, the puzzling part of these community leaders' preference for relationship building was that they placed low importance not just on the items with political connotations as discussed earlier but also on cultural events as a tool for influence among ethnic communities (s6: -3). Perhaps, the irony could easily be explained in the demographic data for Factor 4 whereby 9 of the 12 participants loaded in this factor were White and perceived themselves as not having a compelling story (Participants 2 and 12) or an interesting story to others (Participant 44). They could be lacking the cultural context to be informed enough in order to place high preference in this statement.

In summary of Factor 4, nine of 12 participants were identified as White; two participants were Black; and one participant was Asian. They strongly perceived and placed the most influential methods in using their leadership behaviors and practices to influence K-12 public education through building trusting and personal leaderships with key school leaders and stakeholders in order to stay informed about educational concerns. The overall emphasis of the message among the participants embodied in Factor 4 was to build supportive, trusting, and personal relationships to stay informed while deemphasizing the impersonal influencing methods such as writing Op Ed articles, using their "not-that-compelling" personal stories, and connection with the state or national DOE. The data factor arrays with the Q statements, distinguishing statements comparing with all other factors, and the post-sort questionnaire responses of their ± 4 emphasized the need for these community leaders to influence K-12 public education through

relationship building with others and not through political and cultural processes.

Summary

Chapter 4 presented the data results of the way community leaders perceived their leadership behaviors and practices used to influence K-12 public education. In Chapter 4, an overview of the Q data analysis from 45 sorts using 42 statements was briefly highlighted, followed by factor analysis with a discussion of correlation matrix, factor extraction and rotation, and then factor interpretation. After examination and analysis of the data, the four factors were named relative to how community leaders perceived their leadership behaviors and practices that they used to influence K-12 public education: (a) Voice the Story and the Needs of My Underserved Community, (b) Provide Resources, Advocacy, and Grassroots Mobility, (c) Learn About Educational Issues to Lobby and to Serve, and (d) Build Supportive and Personal Relationships with Key School Stakeholders to Stay Informed.

Within the factor interpretation, these factors were identified, examined, described, and interpreted with the inclusion of data analysis for each factor array along with the participant background and demographical data, and their own responses to the post-sort questionnaire. Four prominent perspectives emerged within the four factors in the study. Factors 1 and 3 were composed of minoritized participants. However, their preferred methods of influencing K-12 public education were quite different. Factor 1 had 13 participants loaded on the factor. Their perspective illustrated a desire to influence by being involved and knowing about the needs of their communities, by representing the voice of their underserved communities, and by using education stories about their communities to influence. They focused on the process of influencing through cultural

activities while expressing distrust toward the media, key school leaders, and policymakers who were perceived as lacking context about their underserved communities.

On the other hand, eight participants loaded in Factor 3 preferred their influencing through learning about educational issues on their own in order to effectively lobby policy makers and to serve as board members on local, state, or national education organizations. These behaviors and practices affirmed an emphasis on political processes. Unlike the participants in Factor 1, Factor 3's community leaders felt that cultural methods through events or stories/voices of their ethnic communities were least influential. Even though Factor 2 was comprised of more White participants than in Factor 1, participants loaded in Factor 2 illustrated a compelling preference to provide resources, advocacy, and grassroots mobility for the underserved communities –almost like Factor 1. However, they did not place much emphasis on promoting cultural events within the communities because they felt that there was not much significance to their culture. An interesting note was that the participants loaded in Factor 2 provided the fewest explanations as to why they chose their ± 4 statements.

Twelve participants loaded in Factor 4 were mainly composed of White except for three. These community leaders expressed a preference to build supportive, trusting, and personal relationships directly with school stakeholders including students, teachers, parents and key school leaders. The collaborative relationships served as foundations of trust where reliable and accurate education information and issues could be gathered for knowledge in order for them to influence K-12 public education while deemphasizing the impersonal writing of Op Ed articles, personal stories, and connection with the state and

national DOE. The perspectives of Factors 1 and 4 were more statistically correlated to one another than were Factors 2 and 3. The participants in Factors 1 and 4 might be different in their cultural/ethnic composition, but their sentiments and leadership behaviors and practices in influencing K-12 public education were more closely related.

In terms of consensus statements, only statement 37, "act as a broker or liaison connecting various educational entities in the community or state," stood out as nonsignificant among all factors, indicating the lowest level of influence tool or behavior exhibited by the community leaders. The factor scores for s37 were .04 (Factor 1), -.18 (Factor 2), -.47 (Factor 3), and .00 (Factor 4). In addition, the use of technology (s15) or writing Op Ed articles (s30) as tools to influence were generally considered not as important by loaded participants in all factors. These perspectives could suggest that these community leaders wanted to actually act on issues by actively working with each other and other agencies and not just to serve as a connector or use intangible means to act on issues. These statements were deemed as nonactionable methods of leading to affected change in influencing K-12 public education.

In Chapter 5, the researcher will discuss the data findings and their relation to literature as presented in Chapter 2 with the inclusion of comparison and contrast of the factors and any themes that emerged from the analysis. In addition, a discussion on confirmations or contradictions in the findings with an inclusion of new perspectives on conjectures based on the study topic is presented. Next is a presentation of interesting nuances which emerged followed by a discussion of warranted findings in the study, strengths of study, and delimitations and limitations. Finally, there will be a section on

implications for research, theory, and practice, recommendations from the study findings, and conclusion.

Chapter 5: Data Findings, Implications, and Recommendations

Discussion of Findings

This Q methodology study examined the perceptions of 45 participant community leaders about their leadership behaviors and practices used to influence K-12 public education at the local, state, or national level. The study explored and designed a theoretical framework based on individual and collective leadership theories where transformational and charismatic leadership models were applied to understand the community leaders themselves and their behaviors and practices (Bass, 1999; Bass & Bass, 2008; Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Also contributing to the theoretical framework were distributed and collaborative leadership theories as well as coalition theory in order to understand how community leaders work with other individuals or groups to influence K-12 public education for the good of the entire community (Kramer & Crespy, 2011; Raelin, 2006).

In accordance with Q methodology, the study was designed to identify, describe, analyze, and compare operant subjective perceptions shared by community leaders regarding how they influence public education policy. The study addressed the following research question: *How do community leaders perceive that their leadership behaviors and practices are used to influence K-12 public education*? In this chapter, the researcher discusses the data findings and their relation to the literature review and compares and contrasts the factors with confirmation or contradiction in the findings; presents warranted findings, strengths of the study, delimitations and limitations, implications, and recommendations for practice or theory.

Discussion of Study

Throughout the chapters of this study, the researcher explained that specific literature focusing exclusively on community leaders and their impact on educational policies was very sparse. The literature that specifically addressed the study's research question concerning community leaders' perception of their leadership behaviors and practices used to influence K-12 public education was also minimal. Even though there were ample studies of community leaders and community issues focused on power and social structure as a whole and studies of city or specific group concerns, there was scant scholarship with regard to their individual influence on K-12 public education (Gilbert, 1972; Hunter, 1953, 1968, 1980; Miller, 1970). Therefore, this study grew, in part, from the gap in the literature and sought out the perspectives of the political, economic, and cultural/ethnic leaders as community influentials who sometimes exercised their influence under other overlapping leadership titles such as educational or nonprofit leaders as well. Another aspect of the literature review related to the leadership theories in order to explain the behaviors and practices of the leaders themselves in the positions they held and their interaction with other leaders and organizations to strengthen their influence on K-12 public education.

As per the convention of Q methodology, the researcher conducted a two-step process. First, about 50 participant community leaders from a purposeful sample responded to an initial survey through Qualtrics asking these participants to list five specific leadership behaviors and five practices that they used to influence K-12 public education. A list of 263 statements (Appendix L) was compiled and gradually collapsed to 108 (Appendix M), and eventually to 42 statements (Appendix J) as the Q sample. In

the first stage, former and current elected officials participated in the first but not the second round. Eventually, 45 participants responded in the second stage, which was the actual Q sorts via FlashQ program (Hackert & Baehler, 2007). At the end of each sort, participants also answered post-sort questions and provided additional demographic information that would enrich the interpretation of the data and qualitative descriptions of their perspectives with the quantitative factor analysis.

For factor analysis, PQMethod 2.35 software was employed (Schmolck, 2014) to use principal component analysis (PCA) to factor analyze the correlation among the individual sorts, and then varimax rotation was used to extract the most suitable factor solution (Watts & Stenner, 2012). The researcher chose the study's 4-Factor solution because it met the requirements of Kaiser–Guttman criterion in eigenvalues, the use of Humphrey's rule, explanation of study variance, participant loadings on the factors, correlations between factors, and contextual significance by examining the factor arrays. The researcher engaged in data interpretation of the respective factor arrays by first examining the highest and lowest ± 4 and ± 3 statements and other distinguishing statements that were revealed only in each factor but not in the others (Watt & Stenner, 2012). After examination and analysis of the data, the four factors concerning the way community leaders perceived their leadership behaviors and practices that they use to influence K-12 public education were described. The four factors were named: (a) Voice the Story and the Needs of My Underserved Community, (b) Provide Resources, Advocacy, and Grassroots Mobility, (c) Learn About Educational Issues to Lobby and to Serve, and (d) Build Supportive and Personal Relationships with Key School Stakeholders to Stay Informed.

Cross-factor comparison and contrast. Taken as a whole, the 45 participants in this study expressed through their Q sorts that they engage in powerful and idiosyncratic leadership behaviors and practices to impact K-12 public education. The resultant factors identified in this study resonate in some clear ways with the academic literature. For instance, the shared perspectives of community influentials in this study identified distinct ways that they support the recognized needs of their community, represent mainstream or underserved cultural/ethnic groups, develop and clarify plans, network to expand their social capital, and envision the collective values to build trust and to advocate for educational change (Bottomley et al., 2014; Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl et al., 2008). Forty-one of the 45 participants loaded on one of the four factors in this study. Some collective perspectives, like Factors 1 and 2, were comprised of participants who were very different demographically. For example, Factor 1 participants were very diverse culturally, composed mainly of cultural/ethnic minorities, earned the lowest average income, and held the least formal positions in their professions. In contrast, eight participants loaded on Factor 2; these participants were mainly White and earned the top average incomes of participants while also holding the most CEO and formal professional positions.

Interestingly, for all of their demographic differences, the participants in Factors 1 and 2 were both collectively focused on some similar methods such as advocating and supporting underserved communities and mobilizing grassroots efforts of ethnic groups to help them progress with the rest of population. However, participants who comprised Factor 1 emphasized cultural aspects and cultural identities whereas Factor 2 participants focused on funding plans to help underserved communities improve the educational

quality and outcomes for traditionally underserved students. Given the substantial

demographic differences between Factor 1 and Factor 2 participants, it is easy to

conjecture that their approaches to influencing public education might emerge from their

formal or informal positions, backgrounds, and beliefs. Nevertheless, the collective

purpose of the community leaders in Factors 1 and 2 was to use their leadership

behaviors to raise the quality of education of the underserved communities in order to

help these students have more opportunities to reach their potential (Quatro et al., 2007).

Factors 1 and 3 participants shared similar demographics. They both were comprised of

mainly minority participants, but their perceptions of influencing public education were

very different. Factor 3 expressed preferences for influencing public education through

learning about educational issues on their own in order to effectively lobby policy makers

and serve as board members on local, state, or national education organizations. Their

perceptions of influencing public education denoted a preference for political process.

Unlike participants in Factor 1, the minoritized participants in Factor 3 focused

comparatively less importance on cultural events and activities to influence public

education. Notably, Factor 3 participants did not feel that they or the ethnic communities

they represent lagged behind others in influence.

   Factor 4 participants were mainly White like those in Factor 2. Their perceptions

about influencing public education were mainly focused on relationships and

collaboration. They placed a high importance on building and cultivating supportive,

trusting, and personal relationships directly with school stakeholders including students,

teachers, parents, and key school leaders in order to influence public education.

Essentially, participants in Factor 4 were willing to collaborate, partner, and share their

information and resources with all members and organizations in order to capitalize on
their influence to impact public education. Unlike these participants of Factor 4,
participants in Factor 2 placed high value only on relationship building with key
stakeholders from organizations other than public schools, and not with school leaders as
a means of collaboration in order to influence K-12 public education.

Factor 1 and others. The 13 community leaders in Factor 1 who were mostly
minoritized members had expressed their position that the special educational needs of
their community were being neglected. Therefore, these participants felt that the most
influential method was for them to represent the people and the concerns of their own
ethnic and cultural community (s2: +4). Sometimes, these communities were not
historically attended to or even asked about their education concerns, a neglect which led
the participants to be active in advocacy for public education for their own community.
As Participant 40 stated, "Silence is deadly. Silence is just as much a problem as negative
forces [that] contribute to the failure of our underserved."

In the literature review conducted for this study, research on community
cultural/ethnic leaders using their activism and concerns for their community to influence
school reforms was extremely limited. As suggested in the literature reviews of the
Latino (Arriaza, 2004; Mercado, 2012), Black (Brown & Beckett, 2007; López, 2003),
Asian American (Bankston, 1996), and Native American (Rivera & Tharp, 2006)
communities and their initiatives to transform education, the cultural/ethnic community
leaders became active in their advocacy to bring about change in social equality and
equity because they experienced the daily struggle in this supposedly democratic society.
Their opportunities to use or even exhibit leadership behaviors were not easily available

to them. For example, Participant 7 explained this motivation: "Because I am part of the community that had traditionally been ignored by the general population, I want to represent my community whenever I can to serve as an advocate for my community members who may otherwise be lost in the conversation." Their activism in the community was a means to gain access to the level of influence in the decision making and social capital that might not naturally be afforded to them as other traditional top leaders (Easterling & Millensen, 2012; Whatley et al., 2012).

In the context of individual leadership behaviors, the literature review supported the community leaders' preference to recognize, support, and advocate change for their underserved communities, and represent the voice of their own underserved communities while empowering the community members that they served (Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl et al., 2008). Because most of these cultural leaders had no formal authority except from their long-time community volunteerism or their profession (Stevenson et al., 1985), they interacted with others in a network of multiple low-key memberships with people like themselves (s6, s12, and s13) or with other prestigious group memberships who were empathic to their cause, enabling them to find more opportunities to fill the educational needs of their own communities (s22) (Easterling & Millesen, 2012; Whatley et al., 2012).

As supported by the literature, these community leaders of Factor 1 had to cross social and educational boundaries in order to strengthen their partnerships with others to productively represent their community voices and needs (Raelin, 2006; Whatley et al., 2012). As they were supporting, networking, and advocating changes (Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl et al., 2008), they also preferred to use community education stories (s40) in order

to inspire change as integrators and to build trust and share cultural values as vision-builders (Bottomley et al., 2014) within and outside their own communities as evidenced in their preferences (s16, s20, and s28).

In addition, their other perceived means of influencing were to speak on behalf of the voiceless of their disadvantaged community members (s1), to work collectively with school stakeholders (s28) and organizations that shared similar interests (s29), and to seek ways to influence public education K-12 (Kegler & Swan, 2012; Whatley et al., 2012) for the benefits of their historically neglected communities. Likewise, their diverse backgrounds and common commitment to their culture and cultural identities through promoting cultural events (s6) and mobilizing efforts of the ethnic-based communities (s13) as means to influence public education suggested their preference for developing short term coalitions to act on the needs of their community (Kegler & Swan, 2012). Because Factor 1's loaded participants perceived themselves as representatives of or speakers on behalf of their community members, they presumably possessed strong community knowledge and awareness of the needs of their communities through years of commitment in helping their communities. This practice allowed the cultural/ethnic community leaders to exhibit a sense of confidence, transparence, competence, and trustworthiness (Northouse, 2010) to others who collaborated with them in communal educational events to benefit all but especially the students from their disadvantaged communities (Kramer & Crespy, 2011; Mendenhall & Marsh, 2010; Raelin, 2006). As Participant 32 reflected, "So much comes down to being an active member of society and the vote and voice that comes with it is the basis for decision making and policy setting."

For some cultural members, but particularly those embodied in Factor 1, the community leaders' activism was not for the purpose of attaining top positions on the commissions, boards, and organizations like those in Factor 3 or to reinforce the possession of wealth and family status within the community. Most importantly, their perception of influencing K-12 public education was based on a sense of culture and cultural identities. In terms of demographics for Factor 1 participants, all except one were minoritized community leaders who did not currently hold formal positions or top status in their professional career while earning the lowest average range of income. They centered their influence on cultural values from mobilizing their base, promoting cultural events, to collaborating with others because they felt the need to represent or speak on behalf of their targeted constituents. Culture served as an internal glue and unity that bound their communities together in times of crises and dealing with crises. For instance, Participant 31 commented, "I belong to an Asian community. It is important to promote cultural events to teach our next generation and other people about our rich culture. Only after learning about our own culture [will] kids become more confident [to move forward]." Success stories from within their own communities served as both potent pride and quest to uplift the quality of life through their activism and advocacy for a quality education for their children in the community. Their involvement focused on a sense of survival to retain the natural rights to educate and practice aspects of their cultural heritage and to attain equality and quality education for the children of their community (Arriaza, 2004; Brown & Beckett, 2007; Mercado, 2012; Rivera & Tharp, 2006).

From their perspective, education was perceived as the key gateway to access mainstream America, a prime vehicle for social mobility and successes in life. Perhaps,

because of traditionally being shut out of the mainstream decision-making groups in the community concerning education, they had gradually formed a low trust in key school decision makers (s27) and policy makers (s25) whom they perceived as not knowing about the needs of their communities but making decisions as if they knew, further disadvantaging their communities. On the other hand, experiencing constant negative media bombardment about their community's declining, or lack of, education progress made them wary and distrustful of the media and their relationship altogether.

In essence, their leadership idealized influence behaviors of the socialized charismatic leadership (Quatro et al., 2007; Shamir et al., 1993) and transformational leadership (Bass, 1999; Bass & Bass, 2008; Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; McCleskey, 2014; Northouse, 2010) reviewed in the literature. These cultural/ethnic community leaders in Factor 1 used their leadership behaviors and practices evidenced above to collectively influence and benefit their disadvantaged students from their own cultural/ethnic communities. In particular, because they recognized that their voices concerning educational decisions had been institutionally and historically left out of the conversations at large, these transformational and charismatic leaders felt that it was their moral and ethical obligation (Bass, 1999; Bass & Bass, 2008; Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; McCleskey, 2014; Northouse, 2010; Quatro et al., 2007; Shamir et al., 1993) to speak on behalf of their underserved communities and be the voice of the voiceless of their communities they represented in order for their children to receive a quality education with equality and equity, as suggested by Arriaza (2004), Brown and Beckett (2007), Mercado (2012), and Rivera and Tharp (2006).

The community participants in Factors 1 and 2 were the only ones that emphasized and ranked high importance on ensuring that diverse-thought leaders were in a decision-making position when important education decisions were made. This perspective suggested that they valued distributed leadership model (Leithwood & Mascall, 2008) where informal leaders (Spillane et al., 2001) such as those cultural/ ethnic community leaders would have opportunities to lead and to feel more motivated to advocate and act on behalf of their traditionally underserved communities in an umbrella of the larger community. The tendency for distributed leadership also worked well when community leaders built coalitions to initiate or produce educational and cultural events to benefit all students but especially students from their underserved or ethnic communities (Stevenson et al., 1985). In truth, these cultural/ethnic community leaders perceived their influence of leadership behaviors through actions of their neighborhoods, cultural groups, and other localized associations as suggested by McKnight and Block (2012). Regardless of the methods, their leadership behaviors were still perceived as managers and problem solvers of their community's education concerns, builders of community trust and educational infrastructures, and integrators of changes for the better in their underserved communities (Bottomley et al., 2014; Nix et al., 1977; Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl et al., 2008). Based on the data findings and according to Bass and Bass (2008), the community leader participants in Factor 1 were not governed by economic considerations, like in Factor 2, or political means, like in Factor 3, but aimed to influence public education through cultural and collective means for educational changes and common good because "cultural events build families and communities" (Participant 32).

Factor 2 and others. As stated previously, the participants in Factors 1 and 2 were more interested in influencing methods such as advocating and supporting the underserved communities and mobilizing grassroots efforts of the ethnic groups to help move their progress forward with the rest of population. However, their actions on these methods were very different. Unlike the participants in Factor 1, the community leaders comprised in Factor 2 had the financial means and formal positions to impact public education from providing resources which could be connected directly with people or organizations with resources or funding initiatives themselves. Participants in Factor 2 emphasized their influence by directly funding the education initiatives (s21) with a focus on helping the underserved communities to improve the quality of education for these students. Unfortunately, there were no post-sort responses to explain the selection of s21. The participants who had the ability to provide funding for education initiatives chose to be anonymous in the reasons for giving.

Other participants who perceived s21 as important might have approached it from their perspectives of collaborating with others and political and community agencies to bring about social capital and resources for schools. For instance, Participant 27 explained that "the resources are controlled by politics; and, thus, it is important that we put people in those positions that have the same priorities and value these priorities as much as I do." From a different perspective, participants in Factor 2 equated social capacities and capital as funding resources. Therefore, they felt that "it is influential to utilize an individual's actions to have greatest impact by collaborating with others and connecting more people through these collaborative networks" (Participant 5).

Among community leaders in Factor 2, their collective purpose was to use their leadership behaviors to raise the quality of education of the underserved communities (s19), thus helping students who historically had been neglected by the system to have opportunity to reach their potential (Quatro et al., 2007). In order to help those students from the underserved population, they created funding to increase mobilizing efforts and support grassroots movements to reach out to those hard-to-reach communities (s12). In addition, they placed high importance on the preference of representing the voice of their underserved community (s2), ensuring that the voice of those least attended to was heard when the decisions were made, motivation similar to that expressed in Factor 1. These leaders' goals and efforts were consistent with Kohlberg's moral development stage, inspiring themselves and others to act with morality and ethics (Quatro et al., 2007). As Bass (1999) also suggested, these community leaders transformed their community by directly investing in the historically neglected schools or specific children population, thus uplifting the morale, motivation, and morals of the students and parents of the community they served. For instance, some of the leaders in Factor 2 donated funds, time, and the resources of their own organizations to support Quality Education for All (QEA) to help 36 schools in the district that were identified as historically low performance schools.

Even though the eight community leaders loaded in Factor 2 were mainly White, successful individuals with the most top positions as CEOs and executives, and higher income ranges on an average compared to other factors, they wanted to strongly advocate for K-12 educational issues and/or organizations that were committed to help the traditionally underserved population—which could represent, for example, an ethnic

group or organization for children or at-risk girls. These behaviors and practices made them more like charismatic leaders whose idealized influence attributes allowed them to collectively influence others to finance and advocate for educational initiatives for the underserved student population (Bass, 1999; Northouse, 2010). Certainly, these socialized charismatic leadership behaviors demonstrated their moral and ethical tendency to improve the educational successes for those historically underserved students (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Quatro et al., 2007; Shamir et al., 1993).

With high and formal positions held, the community leaders in Factor 2 were closely related to the economic leaders in the literature review who headed the for-profit and nonprofit organizations. The literature review indicated that the economic leaders were those community leaders who held top positions in the local business, social, civic, and professional organizations (Miller, 1970). These community leaders were considered to have not only position (due to their businesses or for-profit or nonprofit organizations) but also reputation (resulting from their involvement in voluntary and civic organizations). According to Miller (1970), they were considered to have greater influence than most and to exert the most power in community affairs. Likewise, the community leaders in Factor 2 shared some of the same characteristics.

In this study, these leaders committed to provide funding for the educational initiatives and/or to connect resources from other agencies to assist school system and education organizations to benefit the traditionally underserved community. Similar to the national megabusiness leaders and their foundations, such as Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, Thomas Fordham Foundation, Eli Broad Foundation, and the Walton Family foundation (Ravitch, 2010), the local community leaders in Factor 2 dedicated their time

and investments in an effort to bring equal and quality education to the underserved

student population as illustrated in the data results. Even though they placed statement

21, *providing resources and investing fund directly to the school system and education*

organizations, as one of their top influencing tools to impact K-12 public education, they

did not feel the need to give reasons for their preference. As stated previously, Factor 2

participants provided the fewest overall responses to the postsort questionnaire,

particularly the rationale to statement 21. Perhaps, this lack of response to the rationale

might be better understood in their highly placed value on the preference that they would

rather orchestrate others from behind the scenes and let them have the spotlight (s11).

Another interpretation would be that they would rather remain anonymous in giving

instead of publicly providing the reasons in the study.

Although the participants in Factor 2 might empathize with the ethnic-based

communities and the challenges that they faced, these leaders still did not place a high

level of importance on influencing public education through promoting cultural events so

that these communities could be stronger in their influence (s6). In this perspective of

cultural/ethnic value, these community leaders were very different from the diverse

community leader participants in Factor 1. On the one hand, they used their financial

resources to mobilize the grassroots efforts and advocate for the underserved population.

Like those in Factors 3 and 4, the community leaders in Factor 2 did not think that

promoting cultural events to improve the community (s6) would be an important tool to

use to impact K-12 public education. Ironically, they placed the lowest importance on

promoting cultural events within these underserved communities to become stronger in

order to gain levels of influence in public education. Here, the disconnect between the

perspectives of Factors 1 and other factors became apparent: Factor 1 participants viewed all aspects about their culture as important to the achievement and success in public education, and others did not. In Factor 2, the community leader participants' high income range and formal positions allowed them to create alliances with top key stakeholders among organizations to facilitate educational change (s32) while placing low importance on building relationships, maintaining trust (s28), or even collaborating with school and educational stakeholders (s29)—unlike those in Factor 4—to promote the educational issues of the underserved community.

As reviewed in the literature, the influential community leaders were often those who earned top incomes and held top and formal positions in businesses and for- and nonprofit organizations. The combination of these features afforded these leaders the most influence in various community affairs, including education, because of their wide involvement with local influential boards and organizations—and not necessarily with school systems—where their bases of power expanded even greater capacity (Miller, 1970). In addition, the community leaders described in Factor 2 were the most dominant with community power because of their financial ability, professional aptitude, and formal roles across all spectrums of society, including economics, politics (Hunter, 1953, 1968; Nix et al., 1977; Preston, 1967), and education. For these similar influentials, as described in the literature, their wealth and social and leadership positions allowed them to control and exert their influence and decision making in the community (Hunter, 1953, 1968; Johns & Kimbrough, 1968). Perhaps, this recognition of the leadership influence at their disposal inspired their moral and ethical obligation to mobilize the grassroots efforts, to advocate for the disadvantaged students in the underserved community, and to

ultimately invest financial resources directly to the school system or agencies to help these communities. Because of their financial and positional stability, which often implied potential political influence, they probably saw themselves as already having access to the officeholders and establishing interrelationships with these policy makers (Fanelli, 1956; Gilbert, 1972; Ravitch, 2010). They, thereby, saw no need for lobbying political individuals as pursued by participants in Factor 3. Even though their leadership behaviors and practices might not be perceived as altruistic or positive to public schools by some in the community, these dedicated community leaders still effected positive changes for disadvantaged students in the underserved schools.

Factor 3 and others. Like the participants in Factor 1, six out of eight participants in Factor 3 were minoritized community leaders. Many did not hold formal positions in the community or top ranks in their profession. However, the resemblances ended here. These community leader participants in Factor 3 preferred influencing behaviors and practices that centered on the political process such as voting (s8) or lobbying (s25) and not on cultural means that involved cultural events and the voices of their ethnic communities. Participant 18 expressed the importance of voting: "If citizens don't exercise their right to vote, then citizens shouldn't complain about those in office or the programs/bills that they don't support. Voting matters." Another political perspective was expressed by Participant 38: "Lobbying has proven an effective way to influence policy." In addition, they felt that seeking out and serving on different educational boards (s14) or even Parent Teacher Associations (PTA) provided opportunities for these community leaders to be closer to decision-making school officials and eventual legislators. Perhaps, these community leaders viewed politics as the main source of the "powers that be"

(Participant 35), hence preferring the political process as one of the main influencing methods.

Although these leaders in Factor 3 were mainly from ethnic groups like those of Factor 1, they did not believe that a cultural approach was as an appropriate advocacy to influence public education. They expressed the need to learn about and investigate the educational issues that they were interested in on their own (s39) in order for them to effectively lobby policymakers (25) for what they perceived their communities needed. As Participant 26 stated, "Knowledge is power and I believe becoming well versed on educational issues is the most important step in making a difference. I prefer to research on my own to learn all sides." Supported by the literature review on leadership behaviors, these leaders recognized that they needed to learn the ropes of community activism on their own and deliberately interacted with political or economic leaders in an effort to make their presence known and build trust with the policymakers for their community and the mainstream society (Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl et al., 2008). Mercado (2012) suggested that their activism in the political process ensured that educational policies could help facilitate the educational values and beliefs of the students in the community. It was interesting to note that a few of these eight participants were educated through private schools and enrolled their family members in private schools as well. They were proud of the professional achievement and success gained through their experiences in the private school system. In general, the participants' involvement in influencing public education was based on the political access, not at the cultural or local level but with the political individuals at the state level, such as the State Department of Education where "policies and budgets are directed. . . . It is the head of a train" (Participant 8).

Even though the diverse participants of Factor 3 preferred the political processes over those of the cultural means to influence educational issues in their community, they used their leadership behaviors to learn about the issues themselves (s39) in order for them to plan strategies to advocate for educational needs in their communities (Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl t al., 2008). Besides their preference to lobby local or state legislators on educational concerns (s25), they also networked with potential political candidates as a means to actively recruit and support those who shared the same education policies (s18) that they believed could benefit their community. Perhaps, the participants of Factor 3 envisioned themselves as trust builders and representatives of the community through political pursuit and connection in order to improve the education success and inspire social changes, hence a better life in American society (Bottomley et al., 2014; Rowold, 2005).

As far as transformational and charismatic leadership, these community leaders exhibited moral and ethical behaviors in serving as education board members, lobbying policy makers, and using their knowledge on education issues to influence public education for the benefits of the entire community (Bass & Bass, 2008; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Northouse, 2010; Shamir et al., 1993); therefore, they seemed to have low tolerance for perceived waste of public funds and orchestrating others from behind the scenes (s11). For example, Participant 10 explained this attitude: "I do not feel that you should orchestrate others. That statement feels like it demonstrates playing someone like a puppet. You can help them develop their thoughts and actions but not orchestrate their behavior." Their interest in serving on education boards highly supported their modeling of education activism for their community and acting as standard bearers and monitoring

fairness of practices (Bottomley et al., 2014; Yukl et al.,2002; Yukl et al., 2008). For

example, Participant 38 wrote, "Holding a position in such an organization allows one to

impact education policies directly." Another participant explained, "Serving on boards . .

. you are able to ask more questions to the school staff and leadership team, gain clarity

and become better equipped with tools to advocate for your local school and community"

(Participant 18). Eventually, if they had served on enough influential education boards,

they might not have to seek out decision makers to influence public education but might

be sought out by those decision makers. Participant 10 stated, "I believe that by serving

on a board with strong educational ties that people listen to your views and

recommendations. I believe that the decision makers also seek your opinion and support."

These sentiments also suggested a desire to not only lobby decision makers or recruit

potential political candidates but also to collaborate with other leaders and organizations

to expand their socialized charismatic leadership style (Quatro et al., 2007).

As evidenced in the data finding, these community leaders preferred to seek out

and collaborate with key stakeholders or organizations of the community (s32) for

collective change (Shamir et al., 1993) though not particularly with key school leaders.

For instance, Participant 35 stated, "We need the collaboration of the stakeholders and

organizations other than ours in order to make stronger arguments. We cannot do it by

ourselves." Another perspective from Participant 26 was that "collaboration and

discussion with key stakeholders is important to be able to take the knowledge learned on

best practices and hopefully be able to effectuate change through our elected and

nonelected government officials." Even though these sentiments might have implied

collective change as they seek support or collaboration with other key leaders and

organizations, they did not place high value on influencing public education through

collaboration with school leaders. Their leadership behaviors in seeking only key leaders

and organizations to collaborate (s32) and serving as board member of local, statewide,

and/or national advocacy organizations for education (s14) vaguely aligned with the main

characteristics of distributed leadership under collective leadership behaviors because of

the strong presence of hierarchical and formal structure and values (Leithwood &

Mascall, 2008; Raelin, 2006; Whatley et al., 2012). Certainly, their collaborative efforts

suggested their desire to expand the social capital of the cultural/ethnic groups or

community they represented in their advocacy for education (Easterling & Millesen,

2012; Whatley et al., 2012) through political means.

Besides the fact that these diverse leaders comprised in Factor 3 did not consider

culture as a means to help elevate the influence level of their community, another

interesting finding relating to these participants lay in their lack of interest in

collaborating with organizations and/or school districts to promote educational needs of

those from underserved communities. This perspective, combined with their lowest

preferences for promoting cultural events within the cultural/ethnic communities to

strengthen their influence and use of personal story, implied that they did not believe in

the relevant link between community building, preservation of cultural wellness or

cultural identities, and school success. Although these community leaders in Factor 3

were composed mainly of minorities, they did not place high importance in ensuring that

diverse-thought leaders like themselves were in a decision-making position (s3). Finally,

these diverse community leaders placed mobilizing ethnic-based communities at almost

the lowest importance because they did not believe that these communities were lagging

behind at all in their influence level (s13) or that their voice needed to be represented

when the decisions were made (s1). These sentiments were not characteristic of

distributed leadership behaviors in the sense that the community leaders in Factor 3

seemed to endorse the hierarchical structure of the decision-making process and

overlooked the principles of democracy where all formal and informal leaders were

invited to share decisions, ideas, tasks, and reflections for a collective cause (Leithwood

& Mascall, 2008; Spillane et al., 2001).

Perhaps, these community leader participants viewed the political process,

including electing or appointing governmental officials, as the people chosen by the

people; therefore, these governmental members and agencies should be lobbied and

recruited to work for the good of their community. To these community leaders, the

officials were viewed as the public trust in all aspects of community life, including

education. Likewise, the appointed or elected officials were worthy alliances for building

coalitions and interrelationships between them and schools, hence encouraging lobbyists

and policy makers to be allies and partners with schools (Grady et al., 2007; Henig, 2009;

McGlynn, 2010; Shen, 2012; McDonnell, 2009; Wong, 2006; Wong & Shen, 2003). As

suggested by the literature, these community participant leaders perhaps viewed these

elected officials as instruments to help expand the support base from the public and

corporate sectors, bridging the political gap between schools and city entities to improve

student achievement (Grady et al., 2007; Henig, 2009; Wong & Shen, 2007).

Factor 4 and others. Factor 4 had the second largest group of community leaders

loaded on its factor, comprised of 12 participants, slightly behind Factor 1 with 13

participants. Unlike the highly diverse group of participants in Factor 1, 9 of the 12

participants of Factor 4 were White. According to the statistical significance from the data findings, participants embodied in Factor 4 were closely correlated with those of Factor 1. This implied that their perspectives in influencing public education were aligned with each other. However, their approaches to using leadership behaviors and practices to impact K-12 public education were still inherently different from those of Factor 1. These participants strongly perceived and placed the most important methods of influencing public education on building and maintaining trusting and supportive relationships with both key stakeholders and organizations (s27) in the community and school leaders and stakeholders such as parents, students, teachers, and school staff (s28) within the school district. For these community leader participants, relationship and trust building had to be restored in the community for collective change to take effect. As Participant 42 pointed out, "Our community has been afflicted for decades with a culture of mistrust among systems, organizations, and community. Building relationships based on mutual respect and understanding is key to overcoming this mistrust." Similarly, Participant 39 stated, "Public education issues are not just a matter of school; they are systemic communal problems that require trusting relationships to resolve. Without the trust of the community, there are no admitted problems." Certainly, the perspectives indicated here suggested that these charismatic leaders exhibit the trustworthiness, loyalty, and affection for community and its people and organizations necessary for the entire community to achieve possibilities and face challenges in public schools (Bass & Bass, 2008; Northouse, 2010).

Unlike participants in Factor 2, they favored collaboration with all key stakeholders and organizations in their community (s32) as well as within the school

organization (s29). Their purpose was to stay informed about educational issues by learning from those most impacted such as teachers, students, and parents (s24) and not by learning about them through the media (s7). The latter perspective suggested distrust with building strategic relationships with the media, which was quite similar to attitudes reflected in Factor 1. Participant 39 commented, "Without understanding the nuances of public education, it is difficult to support, influence, or impact the issues." The sentiment supported their strong preference for learning directly from the primary sources of educational concerns: parents, students, and teachers in public schools. Another participant shared, "Without accurate knowledge of key issues impacting our children, schools and our communities, we are simply being ineffective in our attempts to be credible and impactful change agents" (Participant 1). The perspective mirrored that of the socialized charismatic leaders (Quatro et al., 2007) who searched for the nuances and information directly from the sources in order "to be fully informed before putting forth an opinion" (Participant 44) or planning for action (Participant 29) for the good of the community (Shamir et al., 1993).

Because they valued the personal and trusting relationships among key stakeholders, organizations, and school leaders, they felt that the educational concerns should be voiced from those within the school walls. For example, Participant 30 explained, "I would need to trust those with more direct involvement to define and influence the policies." This trust in the integrity of information directly from those most impacted illustrated their preference for clarifying and monitoring of facts and information as the way leaders should behave (Yukl et al., 2002). Such leadership behaviors, like some of the preferred methods used, also were enforced by their high

ranked statement, referring to their penchant for assessing the situation for the best approaches and actions on education concerns (s33) and developing their own leadership skills in order to lead more effectively (s36), perhaps to uphold the standards and ethics of a transformational leader (Bottomley et al., 2014; Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl et al., 2008).

Unlike the perspectives of those participants in Factor 3 who placed high value in the political processes, participants in Factor 4 ranked these processes quite low. To them, being an active voter (s8) and recruiting and supporting a political candidate who shared similar educational views (s18) were not highly important. As one participant remarked, "I personally am not that involved in local politics" (Participant 2). In addition, Participant 12 explained that because of associations "with all elected officials on a routine basis, I do not openly endorse political candidates," so this participant was forced to stay neutral politically. Another participant recognized that "voting is definitely important. . . . I do vote but feel that it is low on the influencers of my efforts to improve public education" (Participant 42). Likewise, the act of serving as board members on education advocacy organizations (s14) and holding positions of authority in various organizations (s5) were perceived as political tools which the participants in Factor 4 did not consider to be important leadership behaviors in influencing public education. Participant 39 proposed that prior to having board membership in advocacy organizations, they needed first to develop trust and develop relationships directly with people. Otherwise, serving as board members in organizations would not be considered genuine. Participant 34 stated, "I am not interested in pursuing leadership positions in educational organizations."

Again, the participants in Factor 4 preferred direct and trusting relationship building as opposed to seeking out positions of authority, as preferred by participants in Factor 3, to influence K-12 public education— a tool which may have been perceived as spurious by most Factor 4 participants. As with other participants in the three other factors, the community leader participants in Factor 4 acted with moral and ethical principles in the sense that they placed trusting relationships above all acts as they collaborated or sought to collaborate with key stakeholders and organizations in their local community and school district in order to maximize their idealized influence by attribute and behaviors for educational advocacy (Bass, 1999; Northouse, 2010; Quatro et al., 2007).

For the community leader participants of Factor 4, collaborative relationships with all stakeholders and organizations served as the foundation of trust where they could learn directly and reliably about educational issues in order to act on those issues accordingly in their local communities. Certainly, the leaders sought to collaborate and maintain relationships based upon trust. Because trust was established and maintained over time, as suggested by the participants, these community leaders built coalitions to resolve educational challenges—not just for the short-term (Kramer & Crespy, 2011; Raelin, 2006) but also for long-term collective plans in the community. For example, Participant 39 remarked,

> Public education issues are not just a matter of school. They are systemic communal problems that require trusting relationships to resolve. Without the trust of the community, there are no admitted problems. And if there are no admitted problems, there are so solutions.

In addition, due to their low preference for holding formal positions or using their formal positions to influence public education (s5), their leadership was truly more related to distributed leadership behaviors under the collective leadership model (Leithwood & Mascall, 2008). Their collective and individual efforts to work in coalitions where all formal or informal leaders shared decisions, tasks, ideas, and reflections were more aligned with collaborative leadership as supported in the literature (Gialamas et al., 2014). This collaboration was reflected by Participant 30:

> I am able through my work to access community leaders and future leaders regarding areas of need for youth and explaining the relevance and positive natural impact of what they can do. Several leaders are stressed; and having someone to assist in pointing out their positive influence that comes naturally (with little effort) is attractive to them. Then, when they see the positive moves, they put forth more effort.

However, the participants in Factor 4 evidenced a suspicious perception of forging a relationship with the media (s7), similar to the attitude of participants in Factors 1 and 3. Participant 1 confirmed, "Our local media tends to focus the negative issues impacting our children versus ACTIVELY seeking out ways to celebrate our children's successes." It was characteristic of collaborative leaders who partnered together to find solutions, to pool resources (Stevenson et al., 1985), and to look for respectful outcomes and successes as models to rise out of challenges (Easterling & Millesen, 2012; Kegler & Swan, 2012; Whatley et al., 2012). In a way, these leaders shared some similar intent and purpose with those in Factor 2 in focusing on resources and with those in Factor 1 in respect and civil discourse towards the historically underrepresented population (Kegler

& Swan, 2012) as discussed previously to collectively resolve challenges in their communities.

Warranted Findings

In regard to data collection and analysis techniques (Howe & Eisenhart, 1990; Marshall & Rossman, 2011), Q methodology, as discussed in Chapter 3, was an appropriate *fit* to address the research question: *How do community leaders perceive that their leadership behaviors and practices are used to influence K-12 public education?* Since the research question was exploratory in nature to discover the perspectives of the participants, it required Q methodology that was primarily exploratory and was designed to measure human subjectivity. According to Howe and Eisenhart (1990), researchers should address the "alertness to and coherence of background assumption" in the pursuit of *warranted* findings (p. 7). The essential point to seeking warranted findings was to ensure that the current study could stand alone in order to be judged against a background of already existent knowledge (Howe & Eisenhart, 1990). The suggestion here was that for the current study to be considered high quality and warranted in the findings, the study needed to be measured against known knowledge or assumptions from the literature. This background reference from the literature required the researcher not only to compare the data findings against a known framework but also to be firm on the subjectivity in the data findings as a means to make the study different from others.

Given the complexity of this research topic examining external influencers of the K-12 public education system, distilling the analytic frame to just one definitive theoretical perspective to make meaning from the leadership behaviors and practices of the current study's participants would not have been useful. Therefore, this researcher

chose to explore and design a theoretical framework based on multiple leadership theories to explain leader influence from varying perspectives and disciplines. In addition, coalition theory was incorporated within the theoretical framework for this study in order to better understand how leaders behaved and interacted with others to build a coalition of individuals or organizations that shared similar visions, missions, beliefs, and values about public education to provide quality education to all students (Kegler & Swan, 2012).

Relevant to the study, the researcher recognized that the research topic of this study was highly limited in the literature based on the perceptions of community leaders who used their leadership behaviors and practices to influence K-12 public education. The paucity of existent literature related to the specificity of this study should not hinder the quest for knowledge about the ways education is influenced by community influencers of K-12 public education. The literature surrounding this study's topic such as the types of community leaders, leadership behaviors from the individual or collective approach, and leadership sources to influence was adequate to address the research question.

Implementing the data findings, the researcher was able to compare the leadership behaviors exhibited or used, individually or collectively, by community participants in each factor against the known literature review. Also, the researcher was able to identify, specifically, the community leader participants' preferences of influencing tools and measured the statistical results with the post-sort qualitative responses from the participants for each factor. In addition, the data findings about the participants' four emerging but distinct factors were described, analyzed, interpreted using the participants'

post-sort responses, and judged against the literature review based on behaviors exhibited by political, economic, or cultural/ethnic leaders. Specifically, leadership behaviors concerning transformational and charismatic leadership theories under the individual leadership model, distributed and collaborative leadership theories and coalition theory under the collective leadership model were incorporated to measure against the study's data findings. The researcher was able to find support in which the community leader participants' preferred perspectives as illustrated in the data findings, coupled with their own post-sort responses, were used to address, compare, and contrast particular preferences of one factor against or with another factor.

In essence, the current study provided strong support for the majority of assumptions raised and measured against known knowledge from the literature. The background reference from the literature was consistently used to compare the data findings against those theoretical frameworks of leadership and coalition theories. As a result of many years spent performing community service and building trusting and enduring relationships with some of the participants, the researcher was able to have access or entrée to many cross-spectrum community leaders who participated in the study. Nevertheless, the researcher committed to stay transparent in this status and stay objective on the process, analysis, and interpretation; however, the researcher remained firm on the subjectivity in the data findings in order to claim the uniqueness of the study compared to others in the research field (Howe & Eisenhart, 1990). All of these elements added credence to the warranted findings and raised the quality of research, especially relating to a topic of community influencers of educational policies that many research scientists had not investigated.

Strengths of the Study

This study illustrated several strengths. First of all, only four of the 45 sorts collected did not load on any of the four factors. The data here illustrated that the Q sorts for 41 participants were loaded on one of the four factors, which meant that 91% of all the Q sorts helped in approximating a factor's viewpoint. Second, the study contained a high explained variance at 42% (12, 10, 9, and 11) in a Q study. Statistically, the 42% accounted for the portions of the total variance in this study and explained the relationships between many Q sorts in the group (Watts & Stenner, 2012). The 42% of shared variance represented the shared perspective or meaning of the factors present in the data. Third, even though the literature based on the study research topic was very limited, the literature surrounding the underpinnings—leadership behaviors, transformational and charismatic leadership theories for individual leadership, and distributed and collaborative leadership theories for collective leadership and coalition theory—warranted this study to be a stand-alone. Fourth, because the researcher volunteered in the community for many years and was able to have trusting relationships with many of the participants, the opportunities allowed the researcher to observe many perspectives of potential participants throughout the years.

Such understanding and knowing the potential participants enabled the researcher to have access to not only diverse but also active and informed participants who were up-to-date with the current educational issues in the community, strengthening the abductive process in the analysis and interpretation. Q methodology strongly encourages the researcher to maintain as close proximity to the perceptions of community leader participants as possible in order to truly incorporate the abductive reasoning in the

analysis and interpretation as the participants deserved. This subjectivity of personal

contribution during the research process served as strength to the Q study. In the end, the

abductive reasoning process began when the researcher gained entrée to compile a

purposeful sample of community leaders for the study.

Delimitations and Limitations

Because there was no such concept as a perfect research design (Marshall &

Rossman, 2011; Patton, 2002), the research had to set some parameters in the study in

order to narrow the scope, giving the study rich data and robust results. The two

delimitations of the study were the age limit and the diversity of the community

population. Specifically, the participants were older than 18 years of age. This study

deliberately included more diverse and minoritized community leaders who represented

not just different races but also highly at-risk girls, the arts, immigrant students, homeless

youth population, LGBTQ, poor children, health, politics, and a combination of all these.

The eventual composition of community leader participants started with the baseline of

the U.S. Census Bureau State & County QuickFacts, as mentioned in Chapters 2 and 3;

however, the community leader participant population included more minoritized and

various community-needs representatives because these leaders could be interested in the

decision-making process but were often excluded due to their lack of positional power,

especially the cultural/ethnic community leaders (Armstrong, 2008; Gilbert, 1972;

Hunter, 1968).

As far as the limitations were concerned, the researcher identified potential

challenges in Chapter 3. For example, the researcher confirmed that problems arose when

participants did not understand the process of Q sorts, causing the participants to not

complete particular parts, feel frustrated, or not follow through at all. When such problems occurred, the participants might not have given adequate attention to the sorting and ranking of the statements. Even though a few elected and appointed governmental individuals agreed to be participants in both the initial survey and the Q sorts, some might have opted out in the Q sorts for various reasons, including but not limited to technical issues with the Q sort process and fear of personal views becoming public. Some might have chosen to not respond to the post-sort questionnaire due to the potential risk of identity recognition. In both situations, their contributions of perspectives were either left out altogether in the sorts, or their voices were absent in the rationale of their insights.

Implications

In any research study, the data findings should enable the researchers to make inferences and provide substantive ideas about the study in order to inform the public. In the process of making recommendations and implications, researchers should draw inferences based on the data findings and apply those to benefit the public and future audiences. In the following section, the researcher provided implications for future research, theory, and practice.

Implications for research and theory. According to Yamokoski and Dubrow (2008), the paucity of research regarding these community leaders, especially those who advocated for education, served a disservice to the research community. In the absence of such literature, the social scientists widened the gap of power sources between the community influencers and the potential and emerging community leaders (Jeffres et al., 2011). Such disparity implied that traditional community leaders would continue to retain the dominant power to make decisions on educational policies which often left out those

informal and cultural/ethnic community leaders. Scott (2008) suggested that the absence of empirical studies of the community influentials in the last three decades was caused by researchers who had assumed that these community leaders already had too much influence and needed no more studies focusing on them.

However, the data findings had already provided clarifications that these community leaders were racially and culturally different and enacted their influence very differently as well. The community is no longer made up of traditional leaders, as studied by social scientists in the past, or as assumed by current researchers. The community leaders are composed of individuals of different races, cultures, genders, socioeconomic backgrounds, and advocacy organizations such as homeless, at-risk girls, at-risk youth, poverty, health, LGBTQ, schools, and others. This assumption about their influence and power served no purpose in the field of educational research (Jeffres et al., 2011; Savage & Williams, 2008; Scott, 2008) but hindered the understanding of community members who might have direct or indirect sources of influence over educational issues and policies. The community leaders in the study needed to be studied, examined, and directly asked how they perceived their leadership behaviors and practices in order to influence K-12 public education. They are the insiders of knowledge concerning the sources and methods used to impact public education (Yamokoski & Dubrow, 2008). Without the current knowledge of how these community influentials perceived their leadership behaviors and practices used to impact K-12 educational policies, the emergent leaders would not be able to tap into the sources and useful tools to lead toward collective change for public education, especially for their historically disadvantaged communities.

As suggested by Hunter (1953, 1968, 1980), McKnight and Block (2012), Miller (1970), and Preston (1967), community leaders were generally categorized into two extremes. At one end of the dichotomy were the traditional and mainstream leaders who yielded the most influence in the community, as indicated in the literature; on the other end were the cultural/ethnic or grassroots leaders who traditionally were left out of the decision-making process altogether due to the lack of formal authority or positions, as reviewed in the literature. The data findings in this study seemed to suggest and support both of these assumptions through the comments and perceptions made by the participants in the study as discussed above.

This study identified, described, examined, analyzed, and interpreted the perspectives of the 45 community leader participants in a purposeful and snowball sample. Their perspectives were distinct in the perceptions of their leadership behaviors and practices that they used to influence K-12 public education, chronicled in the 4 Factors as follows: (a) Voice the Story and the Needs of My Underserved Community, (b) Provide Resources, Advocacy, and Grassroots Mobility, (c) Learn About Educational Issues to Lobby and to Serve, and (d) Build Supportive and Personal Relationships with Key School Stakeholders to Stay Informed. The data findings supported the overall indication that economic, cultural, nonprofit, and educational leaders approached their influencing of K-12 public education quite differently, as suggested in the names of the factors. Their leadership behaviors and practices used to influence depended on their positions of leadership and backgrounds. Furthermore, the names of factors also suggested the sources of the influence exercised by the community participants. The perceptions here were supported from the participants' own reasons as to why they

behaved or practiced methods to influence public education. In addition, this study also highlighted the lack of academic research on these types of leaders who behaved in different ways, which manifested into distinct practices and preferences in their influencing K-12 public education.

All community leaders in all factors behaved very much like transformational and charismatic leaders as they collectively came together to help resolve educational issues in their community as indicated in the literature and data findings. At times, they worked in coalition for specific and temporary goals for education such as educational forums, community educational convention, school tours, and speaking to legislators in the capital. However, researchers need to focus on why these leaders of Factor 2 and 3 seemed to prefer the practice of hierarchical structure in the decision-making processes. In addition, researchers need to study how the leaders of Factor 1 who were more cultural/ethnic community members can use their emphasis of culture and cultural identities to raise the level of influence with the decision makers.

As suggested in the data findings and inferred from the lack of literature review on the economic and top community leaders as those in Factor 2, these influentials seemed to have safeguarded themselves from being approached by social scientists who might have been intimidated by the influentials. Perhaps, they were not used to learning in a public and democratic forum with other cultural/ethnic community leaders and with the historically underserved community leaders. In essence, these economic and top community leaders were used to making decisions with each other for/to others because their influence afforded them the opportunity to do that.

Significantly, researchers can investigate how leaders of Factor 2 who seemed to have the most influential tools—positions, connections, and resources—to impact K-12 public education can help other leaders, especially community leaders in Factors 1, to gain influence without fearing of the loss of their own level of influence that is naturally afforded them, as suggested in the study and literature review. Even though this study did not start out with the assumption that race affects the way community leaders approach their influencing K-12 public education, the data findings, by the nature of 45 independent sorts, indicated that race was a distinct element in each of the four factors. Researchers could examine the racial composition of decision makers to identify whose influence, whose knowledge, and whose voice ought to be included in the decision-making processes for public education.

Implications for practice. In addition, because of the study's data findings, the public can now understand how specific individual or collective leaders behaved, interacted, or preferred to lead in affecting public education reform. Even though their preferences and approaches were different in influencing public education, the cultural/ethnic community leaders in Factor 1 could collaborate with those in Factor 4 to provide a stronger voice and relationships to help the local schools, especially the schools and student populations that have been traditionally ignored. The perspectives of these two groups could clearly provide guidance to the emergent community leaders in bringing about greater social and educational capacity in serving their communities, particularly those that have been historically disenfranchised. The community leaders of these two factors might have been racially and culturally different; they certainly could use cultural means to build better trusting and supportive relationships so that the

cultural/ethnic communities could be stronger in families and communities to help their students succeed in school.

Participants of Factors 1 and 2 could still help each other advocating for grassroots movements to help the underserved communities; however, economic and influential community leaders from Factor 2 should understand that important cultural events and cultural identities are viewed relatively highly by those in Factor 1 and their communities. Culture is the source of self-identity and validation among these community leaders who want to instill cultural pride into their children's life and school experience. Educational values and advocacy alone would not endure the interest of these community leaders with whom communities in Factor 2 might collaborate. The financial incentives and support alone would not push forward the changes that these underserved communities need.

At the same time, the participants of Factor 3 could seriously consider the Factor 1's emphasis on cultural processes instead of just political means to advance the educational needs of their cultural/ethnic but historically ignored groups and vice versa for Factor 1's community leaders. A balance between both cultural and political influencing tools must be present in order to assist the emergent community leaders from these diverse communities to become more effective in their own political and cultural efforts to change the education landscape at the local, state, or national level. Working in collaboration with policy makers could be an essential tool to build trusting and supportive relationships between community leaders across the board and the elected and appointed governmental officials.

Certainly, the data findings concerning the preferences of community leaders in all four factors suggested that aspiring and current leaders could identify who their potential allies were or even recognize who the adversaries were. Thus, this analysis of their current coalition helps them plan for appropriate interactions in order to capitalize on their collective efforts through compromise, conflict resolution, and combining resources to influence K-12 public education (McDonnell, 2009; Stevenson et al., 1985). Finally, this study's findings should provide insights to education-related agencies, organizations, school systems, and school stakeholders into who are the community leaders and the way they prefer to behave or operate to influence public education. With this knowledge, these entities could maximize their partnerships, collaborations, and coalitions with these individual or collective community leaders to impact change in their communities and organizations.

Recommendations

Based on study results and findings, the researcher proposes several recommendations. First, further studies based on the views of these community leaders should be explored. In particular, social scientists should stop making assumptions about the influence levels of the community influentials and begin to learn about them and their motives in their connections and interrelationships with both educational lobbyists and policy makers. As illustrated in the data findings, many community leaders perceived that their behaviors and advocacy for public education occurs through a variety of methods. As indicated by the literature review, three decades of absence in the research of community influentials has gone on too long. In addition, this absence or scarcity of

studies based on the community leaders as influencers of K-12 public education is

unacceptable (Scott, 2008).

First, there should be more studies focusing on the level of influences and which

community leaders really influenced educational policies the most. Second, these studies

should also explore how community leaders influence and pursue particular policy

agenda to embed multicultural education into the curriculum of those students and

families who most likely share the same beliefs about public education as those

community leaders in Factor 1. Third, undoubtedly, using Q methodology such as in this

current study would be quite appropriate because Q research study allows their influences

to be grouped for easy comparison of one perspective to others while using the

participants' voices to directly elaborate on their own preferences. In these particular

instances, Q methodology certainly would be more than compatible to address research

question within the mentioned possible contexts.

Fourth, both social scientists and the community influentials need to take the

initiative to respond to criticism about the lack of concerted efforts on both sides to build

trusting relationships consistently over a long period of time. Social scientists should

recognize the importance of community and community building in education. Schools

are not the only grounds for field studies on education issues. Schools are built within the

community where students and families reside. Social scientists should understand and

learn directly from the communities and work with community leaders to bring about the

wholesome and substantive changes in schools. On the other hand, the community

influentials should begin to build collaboration and coalitions with higher education

institutions or research institutes in order to examine whether the influencing acts really worked or not and to apply best practices to their daily advocacy and action.

Fifth, trust building in relationships is hard work performed by all partners. Relationships between community leaders—including political, economic, for-/nonprofit, educational, and cultural/ethnic—and social scientists need to resume or immediately begin in all communities in order for a relationship to be established. Once that relationship is established in trust, then the understanding process between the roles of the social scientists and community leaders can begin to benefit the field of education research and research community. The trusting relationships can serve as entrée into the circle of community leaders whom many academic researchers had accused of lacking education knowledge yet helping to make the wrong decisions for education reform (Fullan, 2011). By the same token, the community leaders could learn to trust the social scientists in this field and recognize that not all educational researchers are living in an ivory tower.

Sixth, more research studies based on influencers of public education can focus on racial and socioeconomic approaches to identify how specific individual or collective community leaders really endorse particular educational policies. Perhaps, such approaches can examine how and why particular policy agendas made it to formulation and eventual implementation of educational policies which continue to retain and protect the traditional curriculum content and mainly serve the traditional students while ignoring the unique needs of the underserved students.

Seventh, other possible research studies could explore or examine exactly what specific purposes the community leaders are seeking in order to influence, what kind of

educational assumptions the community leaders believe, and what espoused theory for public education community leaders have in mind.

Next, future studies could examine how race, education, and income play a part in the way minoritized actors influence or advocate K-12 public education as suggested in the current study. As a follow-up study, the Q sorters could be gathered and queried qualitatively to share their perspectives of the results. Perhaps then, an advocacy model could emerge to identify these influentials' sense of political advocacy as they influence K-12 public education in the community.

Lastly, if there were to be more research studies to specifically examine the community influencers on public education, the researchers need to deliberately include members of the diverse and underprivileged population as a means to elevate and project their voice. It is important to consider and ask the traditional community leaders who were viewed as the effectors of influence in the community and perceived as being responsible for establishing community forums on education or financing these activities. However, the grassroots leaders within various neighborhoods, cultural/ethnic groups, or other localized organizations (McKnight & Block, 2012) need their perspectives to be valued as the views of other traditional community leaders.

Conclusion

In summary, four distinct factors arose concerning the way community leaders perceived their leadership behaviors and practices that they used to influence K-12 public education. The four factors were named: (a) Voice the Story and the Needs of My Underserved Community, (b) Provide Resources, Advocacy, and Grassroots Mobility, (c) Learn About Educational Issues to Lobby and to Serve, and (d) Build Supportive and

Personal Relationships with Key School Stakeholders to Stay Informed. Forty-five participants performed the Q sorts, but 42 of the participants loaded on 4-Factor solution. With the most participants at 13, Factor 1 had the most diverse community leaders who preferred to influence K-12 public education through cultural means and work in collective efforts to build coalitions to help advance their historically disadvantaged communities as supported by the literature on cultural studies, collective leadership, and coalition theory. They placed high importance on using their own education story to attend to the needs of their underserved communities.

Similarly, Factor 2 emphasized the influencing methods of providing resources, advocacy, and grassroots efforts. Their leadership behaviors were aligned with socialized and idealized influence leadership but lacked the democratic characteristics exemplified in collective efforts of collaborative leadership and coalition building. The disconnect between wanting to financially help the disadvantaged communities but not promoting cultural events in order to help these cultural members to gain more influence seemed to be the cause of mistrust between the most influential group of participants and the most diverse and least influential in community leadership. In terms of leadership behaviors, participants of Factor 3 exhibited similar characteristics to those in Factor 2. Specifically, their collective efforts were evidenced only with those that held formal positions and political connections.

The perspective of Factor 3 was based on the preference of the community leaders learning about educational issues so that they could lobby policy makers and serve on education boards at different levels. The characteristics of leadership behaviors exhibited by participants in Factor 3 were less inclusive of informal leaders, preferred a hierarchical

structure in their collaborations and coalitions, as evidenced in behaviors of participants

in Factors 1 and 4, and appeared even more traditional than those exhibited by

participants in Factor 2. By contrast, participants in Factor 4 preferred leadership

behaviors that were inclusive of many relevant stakeholders and organizations, especially

in their local community. If there were educational issues, they would rather learn

directly from the affected stakeholders within the school walls and not through the media

and build coalitions based on trust to resolve issues of their communities. Therefore, they

had a desire to build and maintain trusting and supportive relationships with various

entities for not just short-term but also long-term collaboration and coalition.

The participants in all of the factors placed lowest importance on impersonal

writing Op Ed articles (s30). Most community leader participants became actively

involved in community issues through their advocacy for public education. Therefore, it

is understandable that these community leaders who performed the Q sorts placed low

importance on writing their opinions in articles to the editorial column. Even though

politically oriented participants in Factors 2 and 3 placed a neutral level of influence on

the distant relationship with the Department of Education as the developer of programs

and provider of funds (s41), participants of Factors 1 and 4 placed this perspective as the

least influencing tool. Perhaps, the result was affected by how these community leaders

preferred advocacy and action for change at their local communities instead of some far

away institution like the DOE.

However, it did not necessarily mean that the office of the DOE was not

important to them. For some community leaders without formal positions in both Factors

1 and 4, their influencing at the DOE was perceived as farfetched and unrealistic. For instance, participant 9 commented,

> The DOE at the national level is beyond the ability of one individual to provide influence. . . . The state Department of Education is slightly more amenable. . . . National or state policy changes always come with upheaval and unintended consequences that it takes time to discover. In the meantime, real change can be made locally [and] more efficiently.

In terms of a consensus statement, the community leader participants felt that their acting as a broker or liaison connecting various educational entities at the local and state levels was nonsignificant and least influencing tool to use. This sentiment was shared across all factors. Perhaps, the statement implied that the community leader participants are just connectors rather than doers of active deeds such as voicing the needs of the disadvantaged, providing resources, lobbying and serving, and building relationships, and other actionable means in order to influence K-12 public education.

Essentially, community leaders and their influence on organizations and institutions have been absent from academic studies for more than three decades. As has been previously noted, this neglect has often been based upon assumptions and concern for these community leaders' perceived power. This reluctance to engage in research examining community influentials does a disservice to educational and social research. The community leaders studied in this research study expressed definitively that they actively seek to influence K-12 public education through their preferred leadership behaviors and practices outlined here. Undoubtedly, many of their efforts lead to substantive changes. It is, therefore, essential that their perspectives regarding approaches

for influencing K-12 education be systematically and purposefully examined. What these influentials do, how they behave and practice as leaders in order to influence, should not be self-contained among them as protected or hidden knowledge of the insiders. Regardless of their positional status as political, economic, for-/nonprofit, educational, or cultural/ethnic community leaders, broader communities and the families and students who live and learn within them have a right to know how and why they are attempting to influence the public systems and institutions in which they are schooled.

Public education is one of our country's purest expressions of democracy and our democracy is becoming increasing rich in the pluralism and diversity of its citizens. This diversity extends to all aspects of life, not just race or gender. As such, just as we should know how groups of community leaders are seeking to influence our public institutions like K-12 public schools, we should also marshal knowledge of these various and distinct perspectives of influence in order to activate and inform other diverse communities and their leaders. In this way, *sharing* knowledge of approaches to influence, to politic, can empower new and newly vulnerable communities to contribute their own influence so that their needs can be better met and their aspirations more fully realized.

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Appendix A

Informed Consent # 1, Survey Questionnaire for Concourse Development

From: Mai Dinh Keisling

Date: November 15, 2014

To: Community Leaders via Qualtrics email survey

Subject: Informed Consent # 1 for Initial Survey for Concourse Development of Community leaders' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and practices used to influence K-12 public education

My name is Mai Dinh Keisling. I am a UNF doctoral student conducting dissertation research on how community leaders perceive their leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing K-12 public education. I am requesting your participation in this research study. The survey questionnaire for the Concourse of development will take approximately 15 minutes to complete.
You must be 18 years of age or older to take part in this research study. Your participation is voluntary and your responses will remain confidential. In compliance with IRB requirements and to insure data security, your answers will be stored on a secure UNF server and destroyed at the culmination of this research. No personal identifiers will be collected. However, some of you, by virtue of your prominent position, may be recognized through codified results. Your participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time. There are no foreseeable risks for your participation. One possible benefit from taking part in this research is the knowledge that you are adding to the body of research on the various behaviors and practices which community leaders can partake to influence K-12 public education. The University of North Florida, Institutional Review Board has approved this survey. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, you may contact the University of North Florida's Institutional Review Board Chairperson by calling 904.620.2498 or by emailing irb@unf.edu. Should you have any comments or questions, please feel free to contact me at

.
Completion and checking on the agreement terms in the electronic survey implies that you have read the information on this form and consent to take part in the research. Please print a copy of this form for your records or future reference if necessary. Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.
Sincerely,

Mai Dinh Keisling
Principal Researcher

Appendix B

Informed Consent # 2, Participation in Q Sort

From: Mai Dinh Keisling
Date: November 15, 2014
To: Community Leaders via Qualtrics email survey
Subject: Informed Consent # 2 for participation in Q sort to be used as data collection method in Q methodology to identify and analyze community leaders' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and practices used to influence K-12 public education

My name is Mai Dinh Keisling. I am a UNF doctoral student conducting dissertation research on how community leaders perceive their leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing K-12 public education. I am requesting your participation in this research study. The research instrument (Q sample) is used to Q sort, and the process will take approximately 30-45 minutes to complete.
You must be 18 years of age or older to take part in this research study. Your participation is voluntary and your responses will remain confidential. In compliance with IRB requirements and to insure data security, your answers will be stored on a secure UNF server and destroyed at the culmination of this research. No personal identifiers will be collected. However, some of you, by virtue of your prominent position, may be recognized through codified results. Your participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time. There are no foreseeable risks for your participation. One possible benefit from taking part in this research is the knowledge that you are adding to the body of research on the various behaviors and practices which community leaders can partake to influence K-12 public education. The University of North Florida, Institutional Review Board has approved this research. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, you may contact the University of North Florida's Institutional Review Board Chairperson by calling 904.620.2498 or by emailing irb@unf.edu. Should you have any comments or questions, please feel free to contact me at

Please click the link below to go to the survey web site or copy and paste the link into your internet browser to begin the Q-sort. Upon opening the link below, you will be asked to read the consent letter for this study. Once completed, you will be asked to check a box indicating that you have read the consent letter and agree to participate in this research study. Upon checking the box, the actual survey instrument will be launched.

Survey link:

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.
Sincerely,

Mai Dinh Keisling
                              Principal Researcher

Appendix C

UNF
UNIVERSITY of NORTH FLORIDA.

Office of Research and Sponsored Programs
1 UNF Drive
Jacksonville, FL 32224-2665
904-620-2455   FAX 904-620-2457
Equal Opportunity/Equal Access/Affirmative Action Institution

MEMORANDUM

DATE:	December 23, 2014
TO:	Ms. Mai Keisling, BFA, MAT
VIA:	Dr. Chris Janson Leadership, School Counseling & Sports Management
FROM:	Dr. Jennifer Wesely, Chairperson On behalf of the UNF Institutional Review Board
RE:	Declaration of Exempt Status for IRB#686289-1: "How do community leaders' perceive their leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing public education K-12?"

> UNF IRB Number: 686289-1
> Exemption Date: 12-23-2014
> Status Report Due Date: 12-23-2017
> Processed on behalf of UNF's IRB

Your project, "How do community leaders' perceive their leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing public education K-12?" was reviewed on behalf of the UNF Institutional Review Board and declared "Exempt" category 2. Based on the recently revised Standard Operating Procedures regarding exempt projects, the UNF IRB no longer reviews and approves exempt research according to the 45 CFR 46 regulations. Projects declared exempt review are only reviewed to the extent necessary to confirm exempt status.

Once data collection under the exempt status begins, the researchers agree to abide by these requirements:

- All investigators and co-investigators, or those who obtain informed consent, collect data, or have access to identifiable data are trained in the ethical principles and federal, state, and institutional policies governing human subjects research (please see the FAQs on UNF IRB CITI Training for more information).
- An informed consent process will be used, when necessary, to ensure that participants voluntarily consent to participate in the research and are provided with pertinent information such as identification of the activity as research; a description of the procedures, right to withdraw at any time, risks, and benefits; and contact information for the PI and IRB chair.
- Human subjects will be selected equitably so that the risks and benefits of research are justly distributed.
- The IRB will be informed as soon as practicable but no later than 3 business days from receipt of any complaints from participants regarding risks and benefits of the research.
- The IRB will be informed as soon as practicable but no later than 3 business days from receipt of the complaint of any information and unexpected or adverse events that would increase the risk to the

participants and cause the level of review to change. Please use the Event Report Form to submit information about such events.

- The confidentiality and privacy of the participants and the research data will be maintained appropriately.

While the exempt status is effective for the life of the study, if it is modified, all substantive changes must be submitted to the IRB for prospective review. In some circumstances, changes to the protocol may disqualify the project from exempt status. Revisions in procedures that would change the review level from exempt to expedited or full board review include, but are not limited to, the following:

- New knowledge that increases the risk level;
- Use of methods that do not meet the exempt criteria;
- Surveying or interview children or participating in the activities being observed;
- Change in the way identifiers are recorded so that participants can be identified;
- Addition of an instrument, survey questions, or other change in instrumentation that could pose more than minimal risk;
- Addition of prisoners as research participants;
- Addition of other vulnerable populations;
- Under certain circumstances, addition of a funding source

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Investigators who plan to make any of the above changes should contact the IRB staff so that the review level can be changed as necessary. If investigators are unsure of whether a revision needs to be submitted, they should contact the IRB staff for clarification.

Please Note: The UNF IRB understands that the statements that will be used for the Q sorts in phase II of this research will be based on participant responses in phase I of this study. However, the UNF IRB also understands that all the statements for the phase II Q sort will be based on the two identified prompts:

1. **What are the five distinct behaviors you use in order to influence public education K-12?** (whether that is on the local, state, and/or national level) and

2. **What are the five distinct practices, approaches, strategies, and/or methods you use in order to influence public education K-12?** (whether that is on the local, state, and/or national level)

Based on this information, the UNF IRB has determined that any disclosure of responses outside of the research is unlikely to place participants at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects financial standing, employability, or reputation. This determination is based on the documents submitted to the UNF IRB. If you decide to make substantial changes to the prompts such that responses could pose risks to participants, this study could be elevated to expedited review. For this reason, please contact a research integrity administrator before adding additional prompts or changing the research topics for this study as it may be necessary to submit an amendment to the IRB before making those changes. If an amendment is required, it would need to be submitted in IRBNet via a new package, reviewed, and approved before you initiate your proposed changes.

Your study was declared exempt effective 12/23/2014. Please submit an Exempt Status Report by **12/23/2017** if this project is still active at the end of three years. However, if the project is complete and you would like to close the project, please submit a Closing Report Form. This will remove the project from the group of projects subject to an audit. An investigator must close a project when the research no longer meets the definition of human subject research (e.g., the data are de-identified and the researcher does not have the ability to match data to participants) or data collection and analysis are complete. If the IRB has not received correspondence at

the three-year anniversary, you will be reminded to submit an Exempt Status Report. If no Exempt Status Report is received from the Principal Investigator within 90 days of the status report due date listed above, then the IRB will close the research file. The closing report or exempt status report will need to be submitted as a new package in IRBNet.

All principal investigators, co-investigators, those who obtain informed consent, collect data, or have access to identifiable data must be CITI certified in the protection of human subjects. As you may know, **CITI Course Completion Reports are valid for 3 years**. Your completion report is valid through 8/17/2017 and Dr. Janson's completion report is valid through 4/10/2015. The CITI training for renewal will become available 90 days before your CITI training expires. Please renew your CITI training within that time period by following this link: http://www.citiprogram.org/. Should you have questions regarding your project or any other IRB issues, please contact the research integrity unit of the Office of Research and Sponsored Programs by emailing IRB@unf.edu or calling (904) 620-2455.

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within UNF's records. All records shall be accessible for inspection and copying by authorized representatives of the department or agency at reasonable times and in a reasonable manner. A copy of this memo may also be sent to the dean and/or chair of your department.

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Exemption Date: 12-23-2014
Status Report Due Date: 12-23-2017
Processed on behalf of UNF's IRB

Appendix D

<u>Initial Survey for Concourse Development</u>

From: Mai Dinh Keisling

Date: November 15, 2014

To: Community Leaders via Qualtrics email

Subject: Initial Survey for Concourse Development of Community leaders' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and practices used to influence K-12 public education

As I begin my data gathering for the dissertation process, I need your help with this survey by responding to the following questions as honest, rich, and descriptive as you are able in order for me to obtain quality results.

1. Age: 18-30 _____ 31-40 _____ 41-60 _____ 61 and above _____

2. Ethnic background: _____

3. Years of formal education (including high school and higher ed) _____
4. <u>Please choose/check ONE only</u>:
   How would you consider yourself primarily as? Check one.
   a. Political Community Leader (holding governmental position) _____
   b. Economic Community Leader (holding lead position within education agencies, organizations, foundations; providing education fund)_____
   c. Cultural Community Leader (representing a cultural/ethnic/grassroots group) _ ____

A. Research Question: How do you perceive your leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing-12 public education?
What are the five distinct behaviors you use in order to influence K-12 public education? (whether that is on the local, state, and/or national level) **Please list up to five:**
1.
2.
3.
4.

5.
What are the five distinct practices, approaches, strategies, and/or methods you use in   order to influence K-12 public education? (whether that is on the local, state, and/or national level) **Please list up to five:**
1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

B. **FINDING OTHER COMMUNITY LEADERS**

If there were urgent decisions or crises relating to public education in your community, who would you want to contact and talk to about your concerns? Please provide up to 5 names from your community.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

Thank you for your help.
Gratefully yours,
Mai Dinh Keisling

Appendix E

Inverted Quasi-Normal Distribution Format

This inverted quasi-normal curved distribution table will be used by participants to Q sort (ranking) their Q sample of statements.

(-4) indicates "least influential my leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing public education K-12,"

(+4) "most influential my leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing public education K-12," and (0) for a centered response option of "unsure."

-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4
□	□	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
□	□	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
□	□	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
			□	□	□			
				□				

Appendix F

Recruitment Email, Participation in Q Sort

From: Mai Dinh Keisling
Date: November 15, 2014
To: Community leaders via Qualtrics email
Subject: Recruitment email, participation in Q sort for data collection by
             community leaders on the perceived leadership behaviors and practices
             used in influencing K-12 public education

My name is Mai Dinh Keisling. I am a UNF doctoral student conducting dissertation research on how community leaders perceive their leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing K-12 public education. I am requesting your participation in this research study. The research instrument (Q sample) will be used to Q sort and will take approximately 30-45 minutes to complete.
You must be 18 years of age or older to take part in this research study. Your participation is voluntary and will remain confidential. In compliance with IRB requirements and to ensure data security, your answers will be stored on a secure UNF server and destroyed at the culmination of this research. No personal identifiers will be collected. Your participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time. There are no foreseeable risks for your participation. One possible benefit from taking part in this research is the knowledge that you are adding to the body of research on how different community leaders use their leadership behaviors and practices to influence K-12 public education. The University of North Florida, Institutional Review Board has approved this survey. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, you may contact the University of North Florida's Institutional Review Board Chairperson by calling 904.620.2498 or by emailing irb@unf.edu. Should you have any comments or questions, please feel free to contact me at
Completion and checking on the agreement terms in the electronic survey implies that you have read the information on this form and consent to take part in the research. Please print a copy of this form for your records or future reference if necessary.
Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.
Sincerely,

Mai Dinh Keisling
Principal Researcher

Appendix G

Post Q-sort Questionnaire

1. If there are any additional items you might have wanted to include in your own Q set,
   a. What they are? Please list.
   b. Why they are important? Please list.

2. If there are any further items about which you would like to comment, which you have not understood, or which you simply found confusing, please explain.

3. Of your extreme far left and extreme right statements, please provide the best rationale for each.
   a. Rationale for extreme far left: _____
   b. Rationale for extreme far right: _____
4. Please provide your general demographics:
   a. Age: 18-30 _____ 31-40 _____ 41-60 _____ 61 and above _____
   b. Ethnic background: _____
   c. Years of formal education (including high school and higher ed.) _____

5. Please choose/check ONE only:
   How would you consider yourself primarily as?
   d. Political Community Leader (holding governmental position)   _____
   e. Economic Community Leader (holding lead position within education agencies, organizations, foundations; providing education fund) _____
   f. Cultural Community Leader (representing a cultural/ethnic/grassroots group) _
      ___

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.

Appendix H

Correlation Matrix Between Sorts

No	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	100	23	20	21	-12	0	12	-2	8	-2	33	49	-10	39	27
2	23	100	-14	18	15	15	4	3	10	1	-18	21	-9	-10	-4
3	20	-14	100	37	12	18	44	-3	5	16	30	20	-1	30	2
4	21	18	37	100	16	27	51	18	41	31	37	33	-15	15	12
5	-12	15	12	46	100	24	35	13	24	34	-1	3	9	-23	7
6	0	15	18	27	24	100	31	2	-11	0	2	28	-26	15	24
7	12	4	44	51	35	31	100	-15	2	22	15	10	9	39	22
8	-2	3	-3	18	13	2	-15	100	20	18	7	1	9	-22	15
9	8	10	5	41	24	-11	2	20	100	16	25	40	35	-3	-13
10	-2	1	16	31	34	0	22	18	116	100	38	10	-25	24	25
11	33	-18	30	37	-1	2	15	7	25	38	100	18	-7	54	19
12	49	21	20	33	3	28	10	1	40	10	18	100	13	26	12
13	-10	-9	-1	-15	9	-26	9	9	35	-25	-7	13	100	-15	-17
14	39	-10	30	15	-23	15	39	-22	-3	24	54	26	-15	100	24
15	27	-4	2	12	7	24	22	15	-13	25	19	12	-17	24	100
16	-6	25	-2	24	30	25	31	27	-7	36	19	6	-1	5	32
17	7	21	-1	6	34	-2	15	12	21	21	14	23	18	-3	13
18	6	-6	4	-1	-5	-13	2	-14	-7	52	28	7	-7	23	13
19	37	18	38	39	15	15	6	-5	23	26	49	28	-35	28	18
20	36	7	38	33	-1	23	33	-10	22	-1	24	43	9	51	3
21	18	8	47	50	28	14	51	25	33	23	37	15	28	17	8
22	-4	9	24	20	25	23	10	35	-2	13	15	7	10	10	8
23	-10	-31	21	-14	-6	-30	-9	-4	-20	2	8	-14	15	-5	-2
24	13	11	-14	16	15	39	28	11	-16	-8	-21	22	11	4	27
25	10	19	2	45	8	49	7	17	36	6	43	30	7	20	9
26	14	-9	0	19	20	3	6	20	15	58	48	13	1	24	37
27	8	5	7	25	34	23	25	14	20	32	14	32	2	-5	23
28	18	-17	30	40	23	25	45	-4	15	8	13	11	-2	38	10
29	53	42	-5	21	-1	21	14	2	4	-3	8	45	3	38	7
30	25	28	7	8	-4	30	1	-2	-2	25	14	22	-14	10	8
31	30	25	13	33	12	14	43	-19	18	10	21	27	3	44	27
32	12	21	28	39	6	10	39	-5	-1	34	20	0	-36	40	20
33	11	20	-5	15	24	9	3	16	34	19	25	19	16	-8	20
34	12	20	20	35	24	6	9	3	34	34	40	10	-10	31	0
35	3	-5	15	39	61	4	17	29	26	48	43	7	-1	12	19
36	14	-2	0	45	17	13	50	-10	35	23	23	14	0	16	19
37	18	8	9	20	40	15	16	25	42	0	23	23	36	-3	17
38	-20	-16	-21	-9	15	-22	-14	19	11	42	15	-17	13	-27	20

39	50	7	25	36	4	13	27	-10	22	6	22	51	13	35	21
40	20	-15	34	27	9	4	35	-10	6	9	1	17	-3	34	9
41	12	17	4	29	31	38	20	9	16	10	10	28	-5	8	29
42	23	19	16	18	18	-15	-5	-9	44	9	13	31	20	-9	-4
43	14	-6	28	28	35	23	45	-3	-14	27	1	17	-9	10	17
44	33	5	10	34	-15	0	4	20	40	27	55	40	1	37	37
45	0	12	26	30	20	30	27	-23	20	26	30	22	10	24	4

Appendix I

Unrotated Factor Matrix

	Factors							
No	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	0.4587	-0.2456	-0.0732	0.3314	-0.3485	-0.1579	0.0526	0.1807
2	0.2227	0.0114	-0.2558	0.3487	0.0447	0.4695	-0.2298	0.2773
3	0.4291	-0.2682	0.1242	-0.3034	0.1736	-0.261	-0.1183	0.164
4	0.7256	0.0145	-0.047	-0.154	0.161	0.0316	-0.1477	-0.1313
5	0.3973	0.4364	-0.1751	-0.3212	0.3946	0.1118	-0.144	0.1416
6	0.3886	-0.0598	-0.408	-0.1513	-0.0847	0.4958	0.0066	-0.1493
7	0.5618	-0.1075	-0.2643	-0.5338	-0.0038	-0.1205	0.0053	-0.0869
8	0.1086	0.3673	0.1001	0.0395	0.2726	0.2602	0.3563	0.0449
9	0.4311	0.2419	0.0545	0.4082	0.3878	-0.3526	-0.1265	-0.1828
10	0.4663	0.3423	0.4803	-0.3021	-0.1965	0.1192	-0.119	0.1636
11	0.5793	0.0971	0.5121	0.0764	-0.1355	-0.1594	-0.0367	-0.207
12	0.5507	-0.0674	-0.2192	0.3831	-0.1257	-0.12	0.1239	0.1517
13	-0.0004	0.1578	-0.1468	0.2199	0.4865	-0.4113	0.4719	-0.0236
14	0.5133	-0.4011	0.1609	-0.1016	-0.4003	-0.1609	-0.0258	-0.1959
15	0.3672	0.1548	0.0529	-0.1427	-0.4085	0.2164	0.2858	-0.0749
16	0.3572	0.2601	0.0655	-0.2202	0.0498	0.4043	0.2554	0.163
17	0.2784	0.6493	-0.2636	0.0443	-0.053	-0.1944	-0.1283	0.249
18	0.1877	0.1472	0.3688	-0.0839	-0.474	-0.1719	0.1825	0.4051
19	0.5154	-0.0179	0.2503	0.3207	-0.1569	0.0661	-0.3887	0.079
20	0.5557	-0.5601	-0.1054	0.0138	0.1061	-0.2097	0.0933	0.1879
21	0.6133	-0.1469	0.1762	-0.1964	0.4373	-0.0412	0.279	0.1022
22	0.3164	-0.072	0.1349	-0.1968	0.4727	0.3561	0.2634	0.1414
23	-0.1658	-0.2378	0.4975	-0.1482	0.1788	-0.0645	0.2857	0.0648
24	0.2509	-0.1377	-0.479	0.0342	-0.0692	0.3626	0.4451	-0.1348
25	0.5806	-0.0361	-0.0295	0.3254	0.1078	0.2749	0.1563	-0.3594
26	0.3906	0.3729	0.4559	-0.0235	-0.252	0.0221	0.2171	-0.1807
27	0.3259	0.6236	-0.2719	-0.1301	-0.2891	-0.1221	-0.1047	0.1247
28	0.4263	-0.1638	-0.2084	-0.2729	0.0366	-0.2234	0.0359	-0.3046
29	0.435	-0.1155	-0.3527	0.3997	-0.3003	0.0955	0.0715	0.1102
30	0.2737	-0.2531	0.213	0.2101	-0.0626	0.4294	-0.1009	0.3114
31	0.5575	-0.2863	-0.0454	-0.0157	0.0523	0.058	-0.0507	-0.2739
32	0.412	-0.3985	0.2532	-0.2918	-0.068	0.2415	-0.2083	0.0725
33	0.3734	0.5377	-0.1405	0.3758	-0.0075	-0.05	-0.1452	0.1158
34	0.5085	-0.1382	0.3266	0.124	0.3108	0.1205	-0.4423	0.0105
35	0.4283	0.5436	0.2432	-0.265	0.2076	0.006	-0.17	-0.0355
36	0.3972	0.2123	-0.2231	-0.1522	-0.2465	-0.2687	-0.1905	-0.4037

37	0.4056	0.5049	-0.302	0.1994	0.1697	-0.2643	0.1267	0.0518
38	-0.0813	0.6761	0.433	-0.0534	-0.094	-0.0092	0.2395	-0.0636
39	0.5724	-0.3863	-0.038	0.1663	-0.1027	-0.2319	0.3981	0.1766
40	0.3654	-0.4488	-0.1459	-0.3086	0.0645	-0.3071	-0.0994	0.1688
41	0.3439	0.234	-0.4072	-0.0411	-0.0824	0.2115	-0.0254	-0.1125
42	0.3424	-0.1015	0.1503	0.4921	0.3353	-0.0674	-0.1416	0.2961
43	0.3903	0.0685	-0.3254	-0.5211	-0.1277	-0.1524	0.1124	0.4529
44	0.5493	-0.0238	0.4147	0.3828	-0.1574	0.0041	0.3052	-0.2075
45	0.4972	-0.0166	-0.0043	-0.029	0.1927	0.0981	-0.1749	-0.2979
	8.2593	4.4562	3.3345	3.0758	2.6326	2.404	2.1185	1.8641
	18	10	7	7	6	5	5	4

Appendix J
Final 42 Concourse statements

Be the voice for the voiceless when the decisions are made (1)	Represent the voice of my community as it is traditionally underserved in education matters (2)	Help community celebrate and demonstrate appreciation for educators and education (3)
Ensure that diverse-thought leaders are in a decision-making position regarding education issues (4)	Hold positions of authority in local and/or state organizations regarding education (5)	Promote cultural events within my communities so we will become stronger in our influence (6)
Build strategic relationships with the media (7)	Be an active voter (8)	Serve as a mentor to others (9)
I send my children to local public schools and/or I encourage family and friends to send their children (10)	Orchestrate others from behind the scenes and let them have the spotlight (11)	Mobilize and support grassroots efforts for education (12)
I help mobilize the ethnic-based communities because I believe that they lag behind in terms of influence in education (13)	Serve (or seek to serve) as a board member of local, statewide, and/or national advocacy organizations for education (14)	Use technology to manage and consolidate data in order to be more efficiently influence education (15)
Share quality information with other people or organizations about educational policies and issues (16)	Educate community leaders on educational policies (17)	Recruit and support a political candidate who will support my favored education policies or run for political office myself (18)
Advocate for k-12 educational issues and/or organizations that benefit the traditionally underserved community (19)	Share quality information in order to better inform perceptions in the community about public education (20)	Provide and invest resources directly to the school system or to entities supporting it (21)
Know the educational needs of my community (22)	Provide executive coaching and advice to other leaders and organization so they will better understand and address pressing educational issues (23)	Stay informed with school and public education issues by learning about them from those most impacted: teachers, students, and parents (24)
Lobby policy makers in order to impact local, state, or national educational	Participate in various educational policy forums or formal conversations	Maintain or build personal relationships with key school leaders (27)

policies (25)	(26)	
Build and maintain trusting and supportive relationships with educational stakeholders (including students, parents, school staff, etc) (28)	Collaborate with organizations and/or school district to promote educational issues, especially those that are not traditionally attended to (29)	Write Op Ed articles or letter to the editor (30)
Convene and coordinate meetings, formal conversations, or forums to discuss educational issues and plans of action in the community (31)	Seek to collaborate with key stakeholders or organizations of the community to facilitate strategies for change (32)	Prior to taking action, I first assess the situation for the best approach and actions on education concerns (33)
Use position or expertise to present or lecture on education (34)	Visit my local K-12 schools and encourage others to do so as well (35)	Develop my own leadership skills so I can lead more effectively (36)
Act as a broker or liaison connecting various educational entities in the community or state (37)	Develop and lead staff training programs to educate administrators, teachers, and counselors (38)	Learn about educational issues on my own and understand my strengths and assets in order to use my gift to best influence educational policy (39)
Use my own personal story of how public education can transform lives (40)	Influence how the Department of Education (DOE) develops and funds programs (41)	Ask members of my school district to direct us as to how we can support them (42)

Appendix K
Inverted Quasi-Normal Distribution for All 4 Factors
Factor 1: Voice the Story and the Needs Of My Underserved Community

-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+ 2	+3	+4
23	11	7	5	3	16	1	12	2
30	21	14	10	9	20	4	13	22
42	34	15	18	17	24	6	19	40
	41	25	27	32	26	8	28	
	38	31	33	36	29			
			35	37	39			

Factor 2: Provide Resources, Advocacy, and Grassroots Ability

-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4
6	23	15	3	13	1	4	2	12
9	26	33	10	20	5	18	11	19
38	34	35	14	22	7	25	16	21
	36	39	30	28	8	31	17	
		40	37	29	24	32		
			42	41	27			

Factor 3: Learn About Education Issues to Lobby and Serve

-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4
6	13	3	1	2	12	5	8	14
10	21	11	7	4	16	20	17	25
40	30	15	23	9	19	26	18	39
	35	34	33	24	22	28	32	
		38	37	29	27	31		
			42	41	36			

Factor 4: Build Supportive and Personal Relationships with Key School Stakeholders to Stay Informed

-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4
30	5	13	2	4	1	16	19	24
40	6	23	3	8	9	20	29	27
41	14	25	7	10	11	22	32	28
	18	38	12	17	21	36	33	
		42	15	26	31	39		
			34	37	35			

Appendix L

Communication Concourse Table from Q methodology: Statements culled from Initial Survey

	Concourse statement	FIRST/INITIAL SURVEY
How do you perceive your leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing-12 public education? What are five distinct behaviors you use in order to influence K-12 public education? (whether that is on the local, state, and/or national level) Please list up to five:		
1	Sharing books, articles, information, research on Public Education	
2	Participate in community events(workshops, symposiums, seminars, etc.) on public education	
3	Join boards, advisory councils, committees that have an impact on public education to influence and contribute to its development	
4	Create my own program to impact the lives of children in the K-12 system	
5	Volunteer as a mentor or activities chair for K-12 children events	
6	Relationships	
7	Trial and Error	
8	Testimonies, Success Stories	
9	Stay informed on the issues influencing public education K-12	
10	Before voting in elections evaluate the candidates' positions regarding education K-12	
11	Make financial contributions to non-profits that promote education	
12	Collaborate with non-profits that promote education	
13	Maintain personal relationships with key individuals, including the superintendent and school board members.	
14	Oral communication	
15	Written communication	
16	Relationship Development	
17	Recognizing	
18	Envisioning	
19	Planning	
20	Encouraging	
21	Evaluating Success	
22	Listening to others, especially constituents such as parents, teachers, school leaders to help inform group	
23	Awareness of needs through being up to date on material, topics	
24	Direct investment in the system	
25	Service on key nonprofits	
26	Participation in symposia, panels	
27	Lack of effectiveness	
28	No mentoring	
29	No Accountability	

30	Lack of reliability
31	Lack of communication
32	Advocate for quality education and equitable distribution of resources for all students
33	Research evidence-based practices that can increase learning in specific demographics
34	Plan and implement programs that will increase learning and instill self-efficacy into a student's learning environment and capacity
35	Engage education stakeholders to a dialogue on the state of education in our district and communities
36	Represent my community's voice on education matters that are important to them
37	Removing barriers
38	Empowering
39	Supportive
40	Charismatic
41	Made education a central component of our organizational mission
42	Led the development of WJCT's TEACH conference as a daylong resource for teachers in our community.
43	Interact with the Department of Education for the development of programs and resources which the DOE funds.
44	Engage members of DCPS and other school districts to determine how we can support them.
45	Partner with other public broadcasting organizations throughout ion the development of programs and services that can be broadly used.
46	Advocacy
47	Orchestrating others from behind the scenes and letting them have the spotlight
48	Monitoring external environment…local, state, national and to a lesser extent global
49	Building and nurturing relationships/networking
50	Supporting my staff and board
51	Building relationships with decisions makers within public education
52	Consideration of others in order to promote goals within system
53	Networking with community
54	Innovator. Interested in seeking change to a system infected by complacency and mediocrity
55	Task oriented to attack issues in a planned and persistent way
56	External Networking
57	Relationships- working with teachers, districts, community organizations to support and empower to collaboratively…
58	Change- oriented- encouraging innovation from those who are practitioners…
59	Integrator- inspiring change and coordinating activities…
60	Consideration and support for individuals and organizations trying to improve practice in a world of …
61	Knowledge gathering- I learn by reading research and talking with people in

	education about key issues
62	Connecting= I make connections between people and organizations whose work overlaps or supports
63	Collaborating- I work with others to develop plans to improve educational issues and then implement them
64	Advocating- I share what I have learned with others and encourage them to the same
65	Convening- I bring people together to discuss issues and plans of action
66	Foster the development of collaborative networks thru the creation of a shared vision
67	Facilitate the deepening of relationships in order to build trust
68	Provide leadership development training to enhance collaborative skills
69	Assist in the development of new organizations and systems
70	Educate community leaders about the full range of educational issues
71	Reading for information
72	Thinking about solutions and allies
73	Communicating with key informants and change agents
74	Search for like minded people or organizations working toward change or consider creating a new path if none exist
75	Sharing information, proposals, outcomes, with the community through relationships, social media, and other outlets
76	Building trust such as being reliable and accountable
77	Task oriented- pay attention to individual interests and strengths
78	Encouragement- constantly reinforce positive behaviors with compliments
79	Establish ethics, culture, and goal expectation
80	Embrace challenges and innovation
81	Mentorship
82	Personal counseling
83	Public forum
84	Formal presentations
85	Lectures and seminars
86	Be professional
87	Be direct
88	Be courteous
89	Be consistent
90	Be persistent
91	Advocating at local and state level
92	Connecting- donors to projects and educators to donate
93	Participating- attending events, school board meetings
94	Listening to diverse opinions
95	Learning- reading articles and research
96	Staying informed of key issues in education
97	Staying abreast of any proposed and passed legislation
98	Attending public meetings where decisions are being made, such as school board meetings and public events

99	Listening to a variety of perspectives
100	Providing input into topics that I have some expertise or knowledge
101	Attend the PTA meetings
102	Attend SAC meetings and become a board member/officer in SAC
103	Follow the school board elections
104	Attend the school board candidate forum
105	Attend the community education events
106	Political advocacy to influence policy at the state level
107	Development of model programming implemented in the public school system to provide direct services to prevent school suspension (to demonstrate the power of public/private partnerships)
108	Partnership with the local school board to provide strategies for shifting the school culture specific to gender equality for girls
109	Development and implementation of staff training programs to educate administrators, teachers, counselors that includes shifts in culture, delivery of programs and services and gender equality
110	Partnerships with disenfranchised students to understand their perspectives (focus on girls who are suspended, expelled, failing) to advocate for the inclusion of their voices, lived experiences, in the design of programs and services and to inform the advocacy agenda
111	Helper in keeping policy makers honest
112	Representative of the Hispanic community
113	Organizer of conferences or meetings regarding education
114	Being a policy influencer
115	Community mobilizer for educational causes
116	Teacher trainer concerning education issues of specific needs students such as LGBT
117	Being the voice for the voiceless in the room
118	Positional authority in local and/or state organization regarding education
119	Advisor to school personnel on policy changes around bullying and harassment
120	Reviewer of best and new practices in education
121	Speaker at national and local conventions, colleges, and civic organizations on education issues
122	Active voter
123	Advocate to administration to try new approaches in education
124	Supporter of Teach for America initiatives
125	Parent of child(ren) in public schools
126	Communicator to/with legislators at local or state level
127	Advocate for educational emphases in recruitment, development and retention of teachers
128	Grassroots organizer and advocate for education
129	Communicator with other community leaders regarding education issues
130	Builder of warm, stable, and supportive relationships among students, parents, and teachers

131	Runner for elected office
132	Communicator with colleagues regarding education issues
133	Believer in the idea that ethnic-based communities lag behind in terms of influence, causing me to be a mobilizer for education
134	Participant in the roundtable in community discussion on public education
135	Writer of articles or Op Ed pieces for publications concerning education
136	Promoter of cultural events within their own communities
137	Award winning producer of education documentary
138	Participant in community education events and panels
139	Believer in the idea that other minority community leaders who do not see themselves as having a role in influencing educational policies, causing me to be an activist in the election process for school board and other offices.
140	Educator and trainer of community organizations regarding issues of community engagement
141	Self-educator in educational policies

How do you perceive your leadership behaviors and practices used in influencing K-12 public education? What are five distinct practices you use in order to influence K-12 public education? (whether that is on the local, state, and/or national level) Please list up to five:

1	Stay informed and educated
2	Communicate consistently with diverse though leaders
3	Voice my opinions to appropriate groups and individuals
4	Build rapport and relationships with leaders and parents and their kids
5	Experience
6	Research Data
7	Community Organization
8	Research
9	Advocacy and influence
10	Media Relations
11	Evaluating the way I think and act daily through the Bible
12	Searching for authenticity and passion in all daily communications
13	"Creating art in every system I live within, so that I can always be free and inspire others to do the same"
14	Using technology to manage and consolidate processes to save time, money, and energy to be more artistic
15	Remind myself that the word tomorrow is not a promise for any human being, so engage the day fearlessly
16	Use of data to make informed decisions
17	Advocacy
18	Consensus Building
19	Community collaborations, partnerships
20	Communicating with key players
21	Lead by example
22	Mentor of leaders
23	Community involvement

24	Attending community events
25	Being active on community boards
26	Participate on School Advisory Councils and Parent, Teacher, Student Associations
27	Support education community advocacy organizations by being an active member
28	Host community meetings to encourage and discuss educational topics
29	Meet regularly with key educational stakeholders (i.e. Superintendent of Schools, School Board members, principals, parents, and students
30	Attend or review school board meetings and workshops
31	Facts
32	Grass-roots support/advocacy
33	Educating others on issues
34	Getting policymakers on board
35	Fundraising
36	Human capital deployment
37	Networking
38	Regularly meet with folks who are influential in the community to discuss what is going on in our schools, talk about issues, and seek their support
39	Instead of talking to folks about what I see as the issues/solutions, I listen to their concerns and what their view as the best solution
40	Learn as much as I can about the issue by reading and discussing same with presumed experts so I am able to understand all points of view on an issue so I can be a more effective advocate for my position
41	Participate in multiple education and community initiatives and organizations to find the common goals to begin building collaboration for collective impact
42	Keep abreast of current practices and new requirements coming on line for education institutions from preK through higher ed
43	Create initiatives to find and highlight innovative teaching practices with the goal of finding new ways to reach students to improve their learning
44	Acting as a broker between "edupreneurs" and institutions to help each achieve their learning goals
45	Organize appreciation events for educators to demonstrate concern, caring, and respect.
46	Learn- first learn about the sides of issues
47	Assess- the resources I have to provide support
48	Act- determine what actions I can take to support
49	Facilitate long term strategic planning processes
50	Provide executive coaching and advising to further develop the collaborative leadership skills of leaders
51	Assist in the creation of new organizational systems that serve as a model for collaborative decision making
52	Coordinate forums for the presentation of issues to the larger community
53	Participate in community forums regarding education
54	Gather information

55	Contact likeminded individuals
56	Decide on course of action for advocacy
57	Determine level of participation in the effort to make change
58	Monitor the situation and adjust if needed
59	Team work and net working
60	Be respectful, disciplined, and persistent to achieve the goals
61	Communicate well and develop people skills
62	Prioritize tasks
63	Develop and strengthen various skills needed to complete tasks
64	advocacy
65	Information sharing
66	Lobbying
67	petitions
68	Legislative visits
69	Provide information to the community
70	Obtain feedback from the community and its concerns
71	Contact the leaders of the education institution
72	Contact the media should #3 not yield success
73	Call to action from the community when a decision has a negative effect on the majority
74	Gather and report out on current student data
75	Visit K-12 schools to conduct teacher observations and provide feedback
76	Meet with school administrators to share best practices across schools
77	Share expertise and experiences at educational conferences
78	Consult with local, state, and national leaders on current issues
79	Research to determine best practices concerning the topic or issue
80	Discussion and listening to better understand the current issues and opinions regarding the topic
81	Stakeholder surveys to get a wide variety of perspectives
82	Use of data dashboards to determine the current level of performance
83	Determining key message and keeping it simple
84	Speak out in SAC meeting
85	Speak out in PTA meeting
86	Communicate with the principal directly
87	Actively engage in School Board Members' elections
88	Speak out to the School Board Members
89	Research-based- using research to inform the advocacy platform, design of model programs and training programs. Ensuring that the developing of each of these core behaviors are grounded in cutting edge research and the best practices
90	Strategic visioning- clearly developing a vision of what is needed to improve education opportunities for students and developing a deliberate strategy to promote that vision. Sees the big picture and an understanding of potential unintended consequences
91	Grounded in values- ensuring that all that I do is grounded in my personal and

		professional values and that my leadership practices are always grounded in these core values
92		Through a girl-centered lens- recognition that my perspective is grounded and guided through a girl-centered lens and making this perspective clear
93		Transparency- be vulnerable and open to sharing my values, core beliefs, perspectives as part of the process
94		Activist in the political process during the election of school board and other state offices that will impact certain educational policies
95		Board member of local and statewide advocacy organizations for education
96		Advocate for oversight in education
97		Sharer of quality information with other entities about the effectiveness of educational policies and outcomes
98		Facilitator of strategic planning processes for organizations regarding collaboration for all education stakeholders
99		Advocate for financial and professional regulatory process in education
100		Sharer of quality information with other entities in person and through media about educational policy to address the perceptions in the community
101		Sharer of quality information with other entities in person and through media about educational policy to encourage more people to become advocates for education
102		Provider and distributor of resources to entities relating to education
103		Funder for educational initiatives
104		Provider of executive coaching and advising services to leaders and organization's capacities to understand and address larger policy issues
105		Influencer of the teachers' pay with the state authorities
106		Connector or liaison between educational entities
107		Initiator of education initiatives
108		Activist in finding political candidates that are friendly to education
109		Mentor for students
110		Researcher for education issue
111		Knower of the needs of the community
112		Voter for policies that promote student advancement and success
113		Knower of true education needs in the community, especially minority
114		Knower of where you came from
115		Voter against punitive policies
116		Advocate for the changes to meet the children's needs
117		Mentor to the youth to take over
118		Educational advocate with key stakeholders
119		Knower of the current educational laws and the effects of changes
120		Voter for good educational policy ideas
121		Partners or collaborators with other educational entities
122		Provider of information concerning education issues and policies

Appendix M

108 Concourse Statements from 263

1. Help keeping policy makers honest
2. Represent the Hispanic community
3. Organize conferences or meetings regarding education
4. Be a policy influencer
5. Be a community mobilizer for educational causes
6. Be a teacher trainer concerning education issues of specific needs students such as LGBT
7. Be the voice for the voiceless in the room
8. Hold positional authority in local and/or state organization regarding education
9. Advise to school personnel on policy changes around bullying and harassment
10. Review and advocate for best and new practices in education
11. Speak at national and local conventions, colleges, and civic organizations on education issues
12. Be an active voter
13. Advocate the administration to try new approaches in education
14. Support Teach for America initiatives
15. Parent of child(ren) in public schools
16. Communicate to/with legislators at local, state, national level
17. Advocate for educational emphases in recruitment, development and retention of teachers
18. Be a grassroots organizer and advocate for education
19. Communicate with other key community leaders and diverse-thought individuals regarding education issues
20. Build warm, stable, and supportive relationships among students, parents, and teachers
21. Run for elected office
22. Communicate with colleagues regarding education issues
23. Believe in the idea that ethnic-based communities lag behind in terms of influence, causing me to be a mobilizer for education
24. Participate in the roundtable in community discussion on public education
25. Write articles or Op Ed pieces for publications concerning education
26. Promote cultural events within their own communities
27. Being an award winning producer of education documentary
28. Participate in community education events and panels

29. Believe in the idea that other minority community leaders who do not see themselves as having a role in influencing educational policies, causing me to be an activist in the election process for school board and other offices
30. Educate and train leaders of community organizations regarding issues of community engagement
31. Self-educate on educational policies, issues, leadership skills to complete tasks
32. Be an activist in the political process during the election of school board and other state offices that will impact certain educational policies
33. Board member of local and statewide advocacy organizations for education
34. Advocate for oversight in education
35. Share quality information with other entities about the effectiveness of educational policies and outcomes
36. Facilitate strategic planning processes for organizations regarding collaboration for all education stakeholders
37. Advocate for financial and professional regulatory process in education
38. Share quality information with other entities in person and through media about educational policy to address the perceptions in the community
39. Share quality information with other entities in person and through media about educational policy to encourage more people to become advocates for education
40. Provide and distribute resources to entities relating to education
41. Fund or raise fund for educational initiatives
42. Provide executive coaching and advising services to leaders and organization's capacities to understand and address larger policy issues
43. Influence the teachers' pay with the state authorities
44. Connect and serve as liaison between educational entities
45. Initiate and start new education initiatives
46. Be an activist in finding political candidates that are friendly to education
47. Mentor students
48. Research on concerning education issues
49. Know the needs of the community
50. Vote for policies that promote student advancement and success
51. Know true education needs in the community, especially minority and disadvantaged population such as female gender and LGBTQ
52. Know where you came from
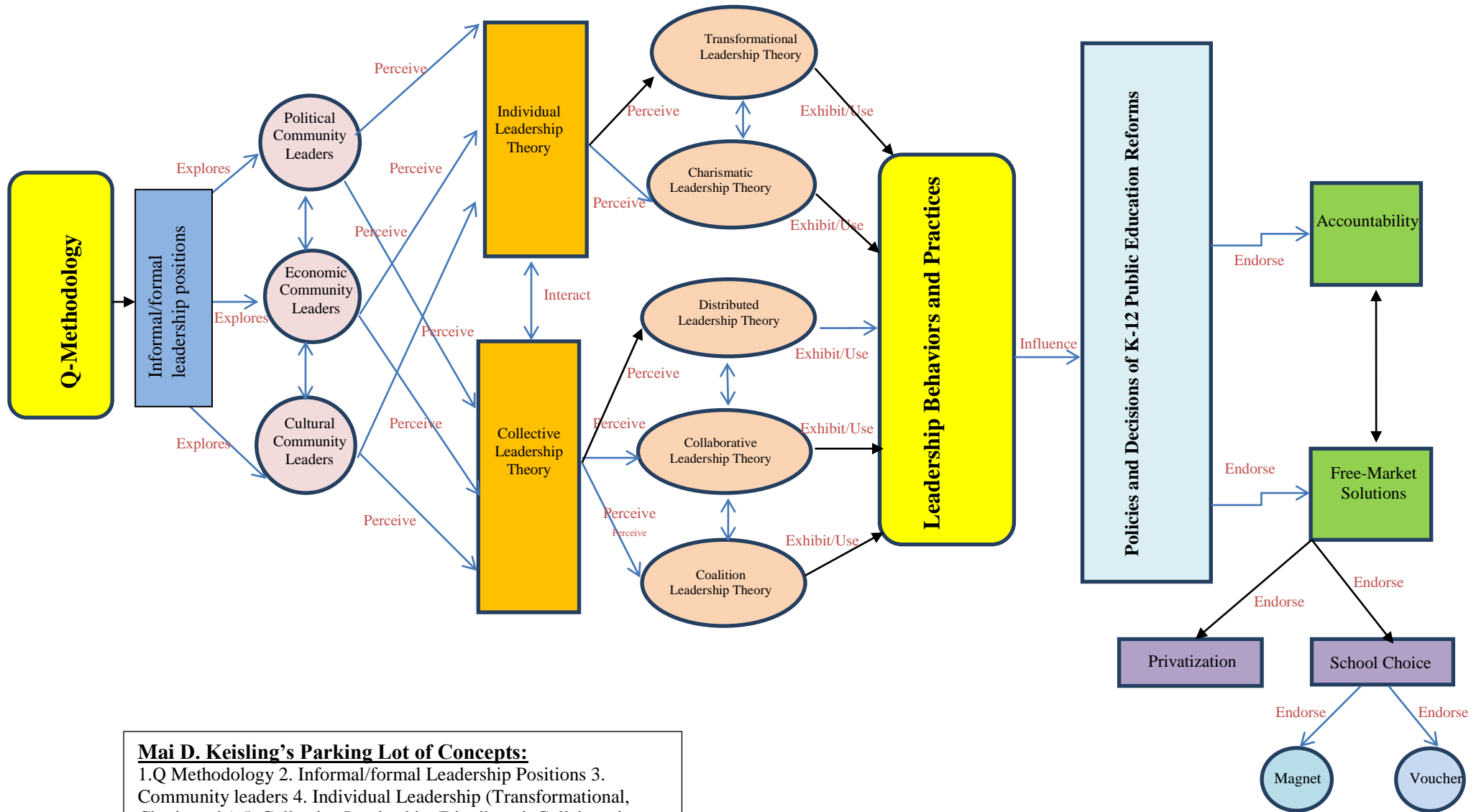53. Vote against punitive policies

54. Advocate for the changes to meet the children's needs including disadvantaged population, gender equity, and/or LGBTQ
55. Mentor other leaders
56. Educate the educational policies and issues to others such as community leaders
57. Advocate public education with key stakeholders and leaders
58. Know the current educational laws and the effects of changes
59. Vote for good educational policy ideas
60. Partner or collaborate with other educational and non-profit organizations
61. Provide or share information and research concerning education issues and policies to/with others
62. Stay informed on and keeping abreast with current issues on public education through reading and discussing them with others
63. Be informed of current legislations relating to public education concerns and requirements
64. Have considerations for others including affected students, parents, teachers, and community members by listening to their diverse concerns and obtaining their feedback for the decision making
65. Lobby or try to get policymakers on board through elections, school board candidate forums
66. Use the research data to make informed decisions, to inform the advocacy platform, and to design model programs and training programs
67. Maintain or build relationships and trust with others such as teachers, district, community organizations
68. Maintain or build personal relationships with key individuals including the Superintendent and school board members
69. Build relationships with and have contact with the media
70. Partner with other public broadcasting organizations on the development of programs and services
71. Collaborate with non-profits that promote education or educational issues
72. Partner with local school board to provide strategies for shifting the school culture specific to gender equity for girls
73. Search for like-minded people or organizations working toward change or creating a new path if none exist
74. Convene meetings or coordinate forums to discuss educational issues and plans of action in the community
75. Regularly meet with influential/key members of the community to discuss school issues and seek their support
76. Determine on course of action and level of advocacy
77. Volunteer to chair or lead activities concerning K-12 children events

78. Attending or participating in community education events or school board meetings
79. Attending and speaking out at PTA, SAC meetings
80. Become a panelist, lecturer, or presenter on education
81. Visit K-12 schools to conduct teacher observations and provide feedback
82. Participate or become member of community boards, advisory councils, committees which have an impact on public education
83. Develop and implement staff training programs to educate administrators and teachers, and counselors about the shift in culture, delivery of programs and services and gender equity
84. Recognize that my perspective is grounded in personal and professional values and guided through a girl centered lens
85. Embrace challenges and innovation and adjust to change if needed
86. Build trust by being reliable, accountable, supportive, respectful, effective, persistent, and persistent to achieve the goals
87. Establish ethics, culture, and goal expectation
88. Act as a broker between "edupreneurs" and institutions to help each achieve the learning goals
89. Organize appreciation events for educators to demonstrate concern, caring, and respect
90. Task-oriented to attack issues in a planned and persistent way
91. Seek change to a system infected by complacency and mediocrity
92. Support my staff and board
93. Orchestrate others from behind the scenes and let them have the spotlight
94. Led the development of WJCT's TEACH conference as a day-long resource for teachers in our community
95. Interact with the Department of Education (DOE) for the development of programs and resources which the DOE funds
96. Engage members of DCPS and other school districts to determine how we can support them
97. Remove barriers
98. Support and advocate for Grassroots
99. Advocate for equality education and equitable distribution of resources for all students
100.   Represent my community's voice on education matters that are important to them
101.   Lead by example
102.   Direct investment in the system
103.   Build consensus

104.   Evaluate the way I think and act daily through the Bible Search for authenticity and passion in all daily communications
105.   Create art in every system I live within, so that I can always be free and inspire others to do the same
106.   Use technology to manage and consolidate process to save time, money, and energy to be more artistic
107.   Remind myself that the word tomorrow is not a promise for any human being, so engage the day fearlessly
108.   Networking

CONCEPT MAP

Community Leaders' Perceptions of Their Leadership Behaviors and Practices Used To Influence Public Education K-12

Q-Methodology — Informal/formal leadership positions

Explores → Political Community Leaders

Explores → Economic Community Leaders

Explores → Cultural Community Leaders

Perceive → Individual Leadership Theory

Perceive → Collective Leadership Theory

Interact

Individual Leadership Theory:
- Perceive → Transformational Leadership Theory → Exhibit/Use
- Perceive → Charismatic Leadership Theory → Exhibit/Use

Collective Leadership Theory:
- Perceive → Distributed Leadership Theory → Exhibit/Use
- Perceive → Collaborative Leadership Theory → Exhibit/Use
- Perceive → Coalition Leadership Theory → Exhibit/Use

Leadership Behaviors and Practices

Influence → **Policies and Decisions of K-12 Public Education Reforms**

Endorse → Accountability

Endorse → Free-Market Solutions

Endorse → Privatization

Endorse → School Choice

Endorse → Magnet

Endorse → Voucher

Mai D. Keisling's Parking Lot of Concepts:
1.Q Methodology 2. Informal/formal Leadership Positions 3. Community leaders 4. Individual Leadership (Transformational, Charismatic) 5. Collective Leadership (Distributed, Collaborative, and Coalition Theory) 6. Leadership Behaviors and Practices 7. Aims/Goals of K-12 Public Education Reforms 8. Accountability 9. Free-Market Solutions with Privatization and School Choice

Vita

Mai Dinh Keisling,

Year

Background

Lived in Refugee camps, Pulau Bidong and Kuala Lumpur (Malaysia), and Bataan (Philippines)

1981

Arrived in the United States 1982

Education

University of North Florida
Doctorate of Education in Educational Leadership 7/2015

Jacksonville University
MAT in Art & Math Teaching, 1992

Jacksonville University
BFA, Ceramics and Painting, 1986-1990
Studying Engineering 1986-12/1988

Professional Experience

Paxon School for Advanced Studies
Teacher- IB art, AP 3D art, AP art history, and sculpture 2002-present

Landon Middle School
Teacher- 2/3D art teacher 1993-2002
Teacher- math 1992-93
Developer of magnet visual arts curriculum 1994-96

Honors and Awards

Leadership Jacksonville Class of 2014, LJ (2014) Award: Biggest Advocacy Voice 2014
Art juror - the Mayor's Inaugural Art Contest 2014, 2015
Recipient of UNF's Student Government Scholarship, Non-Traditional Re-Entry 2012-14
Juror - 2012 Jazz Festival Poster Contest 2/2012
Recipient of the Delores Auzenne Fellowship 2011-2013
Speaker, Jacksonville Women Network Dinner 2011
UNF's Twomey Fellowship recipient 2010-2013

Speaker, UNF's EPI Educator Program Institute	2009-11
Bank of America's Neighborhood Hero Award	2010
Times-Union's Eve Award Finalist – Education	2008
Memphis Wood Award Excellence in Career Art Teaching	2008
UNF's Gladys Prior Award for Excellence in Career Teaching	2007
Florida's Outstanding High School Art Teacher of The Year (FAEA)	2007
Education Award recipient by Mayor's Asian American Advisory Board	2006
Duval County Teacher of the Year Finalist	2006
Paxon SAS Teacher of the year	2006

Interests

Reading, philosophy, art history, traveling, politics, debating, creating art, and cooking/baking