How Do Stakeholders Engaged in School-University Partnerships Create Value for their Own Organizations?

By Kevin S. Cuppett

B.A. in Art Education, May 1992, Shepherd University
M.A. in Educational Leadership, May 2002, Hood College

A Dissertation Submitted to

The Faculty of
The Graduate School of Education and Human Development
of The George Washington University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Education

May 18, 2014

Dissertation directed by

Jennifer Clayton
Assistant Professor of Education Administration

The Graduate School of Education and Human Development of the George Washington University certifies that Kevin S. Cuppett has passed the Final Examination for the degree of Doctor of Education as of January 16, 2014. This is the final and approved form of the dissertation.

How Do Stakeholders Engaged in School-University Partnerships Create Value for their Own Organizations?

Kevin S. Cuppett

Dissertation Research Committee:

Jennifer Clayton, Assistant Professor of Education Administration, Dissertation Director

Lionel Howard, Assistant Professor of Educational Research, Committee Member

John Stoothoff, Assistant Professor of Education, Frostburg University, Committee Member

© Copyright 2014 by Kevin S. Cuppett
All rights reserved.

Dedication

I would like to express my gratitude to Dr. Jennifer Clayton for her commitment to me in the dissertation process. I appreciated your guidance, support, and professionalism throughout the journey. You steered me back on path when I was astray, pushed me a little further when I needed it, and believed in me at all times. Thank you.

I want to thank Dr. Lionel Howard and Dr. John Stoothoff for your valuable contributions to my work. You both provided me guidance and encouragement, and your input was helpful at every turn. Thank you.

I want to thank Dr. Karyn Sanzo and Dr. John Banbury for serving as readers on my committee. Your time, effort, and thoughtful questions were appreciated. Thank you.

I want to thank the participants of the study, who shall remain nameless, for taking time to share their thoughts with me. It was joy to speak with each of you. Thank you.

To my friends in Loudon Cohort 1, I say "FAPA." Remember, "how do you eat an elephant? One bite at a time." I wish you all the best and thank you for sharing this time together. I could not have done it without you. Thank you.

I appreciate the patience and support of my family, friends, and colleagues as I pushed on month after month. Your words of support and your understanding of my workload were appreciated. Thank you.

I want to thank my dad and mom for the support they have given me since I stepped foot on the campus of Shepherd College those many years ago. It all started there. Your belief in me, your financial support, and your encouragement made the

Bachelor's Degree possible, the Master's Degree attainable, and the Doctorate a reality. Thank you.

Finally, I wish to thank Patty, Samantha and Joey for their support on this journey. You were patient when I worked long hours in The Cave, were understanding when I made frequent trips to the GW Campus, and were encouraging when the work was trying and difficult. You also kept everything in perspective, because from you I know a dissertation is just one small endeavor in life—other experiences in life are more important, more difficult, and more rewarding. Thank you.

Abstract of Dissertation

How Do Stakeholders Engaged in School-University Partnerships Create Value for their Own Organizations?

The purpose of this study was to determine how stakeholders engaged in school-university partnerships, specifically in the work preparing future school administrators, created and captured value for their own organizations. These case studies examined three partnerships that involved three school systems who all partnered with the same college, which allowed for multi-site and within site analysis. The study used the voices of key stakeholders, partnership documents, and observations of key events within the partnerships as data sources to focus on what stakeholders took away from the partnerships for their own organizations.

The review of literature included research on the role of school-university partnerships in principal preparation reform, and the impact of such reform on leadership succession in schools. In addition, the literature on collaboration provided a clear context for identifying, analyzing and interpreting the actions of stakeholders in these partnerships. The partnerships were examined using negotiated order theory as a conceptual and theoretical framework. This framework proved valuable for determining the actions stakeholders in regard to the preconditions and processes of collaboration, with specific focus on value creation and capture as outcomes.

The findings showed that value creation and capture were specific and significant for all organizations, although there was variance across the partnerships as to what and how value was created and captured. Recommendations were offered for organizations interested in creating school-university partnerships. Recommendations could also be

broadly applied to many types of organizations in the social sector that are interested in partnering as a means of creating and capturing value for their own organizations.

Table of Contents

Dedication……..iv

Abstract of Dissertation……..vi

List of Figures……xv

List of Tables……xvi

Chapter 1: Introduction……1

Overview 1

Statement of the Problem 2

Purpose 3

Research Questions 4

Potential Significance 4

Theoretical Framework 5

Conceptual Framework 5

Summary of Methodology 8

Limitations 8

Delimitations 9

Key Terms 10

Chapter 2: Literature Review……12

Introduction 12

Confluence of Conditions 13

The complex and critical role of the principal. 14

Perceived shortage of qualified candidates. 15

Expansion of degree programs. 16

Rising competition to traditional principal preparation programs. 18

Reform Initiatives and Recommendations 21

Balance of theoretical and practical philosophy. 26

Coherent curriculum with an emphasis on student achievement. 26

Alignment to program standards. 28

Rigorous recruitment and selection criteria. 29

Real world, problem based applications of learning. 31

Robust internships with trained mentors. 31

Competency based exit criteria. 33

Progress toward Program Design and Redesign 33

Collaborative Partnerships as a Synthesizing Vehicle 35

Current Research on School-University Partnerships 37

Gap in the Literature on School University Partnerships 49

Partnerships, Alliances and Collaboration 53

Relevant definitions. 53

Why collaborate? 54

Purpose of collaboration. 55

Design and implementation of collaborative partnerships. 57

Value in Context: Toward a Conceptual Framework 64

Value in the business context. 65

Value in the partnership context. 66

Theoretical Framework 68

Theory in the Interorganizational Domain 69

Applying organizational theory at the interorganizational level. 69

Three critical issues for understanding interorganizational collaboration. 70

Negotiated Order Theory at the Organizational Level 71

The negotiations context. 72

Strengths and weaknesses of negotiated order theory. 75

Expanding Negotiated Order Theory to the Interorganizational Domain 76

One application of negotiated order theory in the interorganizational domain. 76

Preconditions of the negotiated order. 77

Processes in the negotiated order. 78

Outcomes of the negotiated order. 79

Summary 79

Conceptual Framework 80

Chapter 3: Methodology……82

Overview 82

Epistemology..... 82

Theoretical Framework 83

Research Procedures and Design 83

Multiple case study methodology. 83

Sampling. 84

Procedures. 86

Data collection and storage procedures. 93

Data Analysis 93

Rationale and general approach to coding. 94

First cycle coding. 94

Second cycle coding. 95

Use of CAQDAS in data analysis. 95

Use of analytic memos. 95

Trustworthiness 96

Truth value and credibility. 96

Applicability and transferability. 101

Consistency and dependability. 102

Neutrality and confirmability. 103

Managing Bias 105

Human Subjects and Potential Ethical Issues 106

Chapter 4: Findings 107

Overview 107

Description of Partnerships 108

Samuel College. 108

Bernard School System Partnership. 112

George School System Partnership. 114

Douglas School System Partnership. 115

Findings 117

Preconditions of the Samuel College Partnerships 119

Financial challenges for Samuel College. 119

Few qualified candidates within school systems 120

Connectivity among key negotiators. 123

Reputation of the educational leadership program. 127

Processes in the Samuel College Partnerships 128

Key personnel were selected. 128

Interfaces were established. 131

Formal processes were created and codified. 134

Measures of success were identified. 142

Outcomes of the Samuel College Partnerships 146

Value as an outcome. 146

Value creation: Increased enrollment and revenue. 148

Value creation: Established a cost savings partnership model. 151

Value creation: Added another option for employees. 157

Value creation: Infused real world perspectives and application of learning into content. 160

Value creation: Customized course content and experiences. 162

Value creation: Built a pool of qualified candidates. 167

Value creation: Provided mentoring and career guidance. 168

Value capture: Discovered vetting process for potential leadership candidates. 172

Value capture: Developed fast movers with quality leadership skills. 174

Value capture: Capitalized on an induction function. 180

Value capture: Built credibility with stakeholders. 184

Value capture: Created a replicable model of partnering. 187

Summary 189

Chapter 5: Interpretations, Conclusions and Recommendations 190

Introduction 190

Interpretations of the Preconditions 193

Stakeholders took mutually beneficial actions. 194

Stakeholders championed the cause. 197

Stakeholders focused on what was at stake for their organization. 199

Interpretations of the Processes 201

Stakeholders built relationships. 202

Stakeholders fostered autonomy. 203

Stakeholders made adjustments. 204

Interpretations of the Outcomes 210

Stakeholders created conditions for success. 210

Stakeholders had clear standards of excellence. 213

Stakeholders relied on people to create value. 214

Recommendations for School-University Partnerships and Beyond 218

Recommendations regarding the preconditions of collaboration. 218

Recommendations regarding processes of collaboration. 227

Recommendations regarding the outcomes of collaboration. 243

Future Research 250

Conclusion 256

References 259

Appendices 272

List of Figures

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework…….....7

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework……..81

Figure 3: Connectivity in the Samuel College Partnerships……126

Figure 4: The Negotiations Context of the Samuel College Partnerships……...192

Figure 5: Adjuncts Instructors Were Critical Value Creators.……..…….....217

List of Tables

Table 1: Components of School-University Partnerships by Date and Author(s)…….25

Table 2: Periods of Collaboration Design and Implementation……..…63

Table 3: Value Concepts in Businesses and Partnership Contexts……68

Table 4: Strauss's (1978) Negotiated Order Paradigm……..74

Table 5: Distribution of Participants and Perspectives of the Study…….86

Table 6: Value Creation and Capture in Partnerships……..148

Table 7: Compensation and Workload Comparison for 2011-2012 Academic Year…..152

Table 8: Cost Savings from Use of Coordinators for 2011-2012 Academic Year……..152

Table 9: Market Value Approximation of Facility Costs for 2011-2012 Enrollment….155

Chapter 1: Introduction

Overview

The school-university partnership is not new. School systems and universities have partnered for a wide variety of reasons and in numerous forms. This study will examine school-university partnerships between institutions of higher education and local public, K-12 school systems for the purpose of preparing graduate students for certifications and/or master's degrees in educational leadership. The study sought to determine how stakeholders within organizations created value for their organizations while engaged in school-university partnerships.

The complex context of the information and technology age is driving more organizations in the business, non-profit, education, and government sectors to engage in partnerships or alliances. Doz & Hamel (1998), in a book about building alliances in the business sector, outlined three reasons why alliances (or partnerships) are essential in today's world. First, taking advantage of opportunities in the information age requires organizations to combine skills and resources that individual companies or organizations often do not possess on their own. Second, revolutionary changes in the world are being built in a networked form rather than in traditional hierarchical form. Third, the uncertainty that is central to the information economy allows alliances to use complementary strengths of its members to accelerate learning. Linden (2002) further illustrated that collaboration between organizations was essential because of the complexity of the world's challenges, the blurring of institutional boundaries, and the networked nature of the world. Austin (2000a) noted a "collaborative imperative" (p. 7) existed because people believe social problems were increasingly complex, the

government could not solve all problems, and governmental spending needed to be reduced. In essence, organizations have a difficult time functioning independently of other organizations.

This societal context directly affects public schools, as they are being tasked to address very complex societal issues in a time of reducing financial resources. Preparing school administrators to lead in such challenging times is critical because researchers have demonstrated the significant impact an effective principal can have on student achievement, placing principal leadership second only to classroom instruction among school-related factors for achievement (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). In essence, principals matter.

As a result, a movement focusing on reform of principal preparation programs has emerged over the past few decades. One of the key recommendations in this reform movement has been the school-university partnership (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe & Meyerson, 2005; Fry & O'Neill, 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003; NASBE, 2004; The Wallace Foundation, 2006, 2008; Whittaker, King, & Vogel, 2004). School-university partnerships have been identified as a sort of synthesizing vehicle for the recommended reform components outlined in the literature (i.e. balance of theoretical and practical philosophy; coherent curriculum with an emphasis on student achievement; alignment to program standards; rigorous recruitment and selection criteria; real world, problem based applications of learning, and robust internships with trained mentors).

Statement of the Problem

Research on school-university partnerships was limited. Researchers have focused on individual partnerships (SREB, 2002) or have attempted to define what

constituted a quality partnership by looking at exemplary partnerships (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson & Orr, 2007; Jackson & Kelley, 2002; Murphy, Moorman & McCarthy, 2008). Researchers have also studied the various components of principal preparation found in school-university partnerships. The line of inquiry in studies to date has primarily focused on an inward look at school-university partnerships. As a result, little is known about what value stakeholders have gained for their own organizations by participating in these partnerships. In addition, the literature on school-university partnerships included few studies that used a strong theoretical basis for explaining phenomena within the partnerships or in principal preparation in general.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine how stakeholders engaged in partnerships created value for their own organizations (Doz & Hamel, 1998). Using the voices of key stakeholders, the documents and media originating from the partnerships, and observations of key events within the partnerships as data sources, the line of inquiry in this study focused on what stakeholders took away from the partnerships for their own organizations. This study examined each partnership, not with a singular focus on the partnerships themselves, but rather with a broader look at the partnerships' impact on the participating organizations.

Specifically, the study examined how stakeholders in each partner organization created value for their own organization including how partners defined and measured such value. The study also explored whether and how partner organizations captured value separate from their planned outcomes. This line of inquiry was enriched by

studying multiple cases, as the value created and captured by organizations varied across the cases.

Finally, the topic of principal preparation was intrinsically motivating to me and is an area of study that had been an interest to me. I hoped that conducting this study would allow me to build my own understanding of principal preparation with the specific emphasis on school-university partnerships. This study topic, and the connected literature review, was made even more relevant as I have mentored five aspiring administrators during their internships and will likely mentor more in the future.

Research Questions

This study employed value creation and value capture as a focus for inquiry into school-university partnerships engaged in the business of preparing future public school administrators. As a result, the following research questions guided this study:

- How do stakeholders engaged in school-university partnerships create value for their own organizations?
- How do stakeholders capture value from the school-university partnership beyond the value they intended to create?

Potential Significance

The study provided recommendations for identifying practices that add value for institutions of higher education and school systems when engaged in school-university partnerships. The study filled a gap in the research regarding the outcomes of school-university partnerships by using the lenses of value creation and value capture.

Findings and recommendations resulting from the study may impact policy development for school systems and institutions of higher education by identifying the

value created and captured by such partnerships. Organizations do not often have opportunities to examine their endeavors at the research study level, so the study will serve as a means of examining the partnership for the institutions involved. However, the study should not be perceived as a program evaluation.

Authors on collaboration noted that creating and assessing value should be the primary focus during the design, implementation, and management of the partnership, and capturing value should be sought throughout the process of partnering (Austin 2000; Doz & Hamel, 1998; Linden, 2002). The study provided insight about value creation in school-university partnerships that structure and operate in a manner similar to those studied, as well as those institutions considering such a partnership structure.

Theoretical Framework

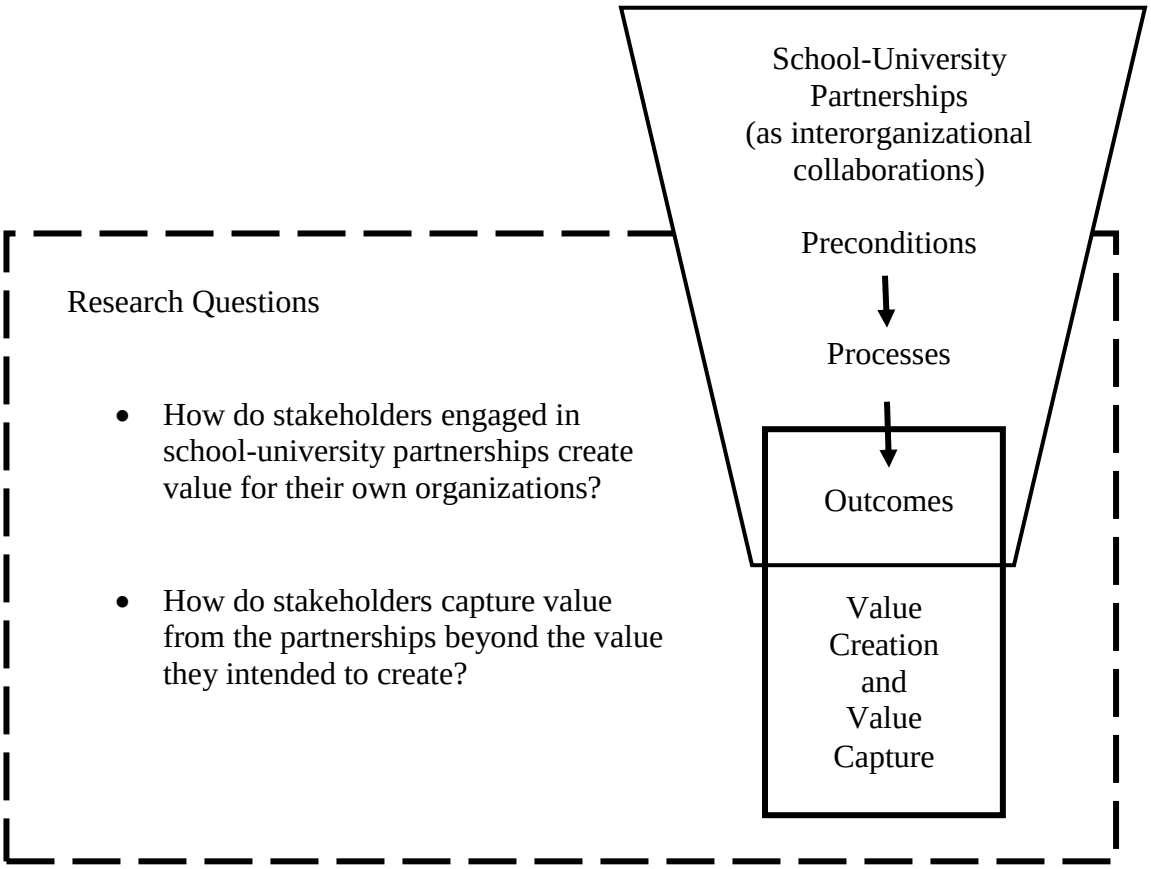
The study was informed by the literature on interorganizational collaboration, with focus on the preconditions, processes, and outcomes of collaboration in school-university partnerships. Specifically, negotiated order theory was used as the theoretical framework for exploring the research questions (Strauss, 1978). This theoretical perspective served as a tool for inquiry and analysis of the interorganizational milieu of the school-university partnership to examine the preconditions, processes and outcomes of the interorganizational domain of school-university partnerships with a specific focus on value creation and value capture.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for the study was created by combining concepts from negotiated order theory with the business concepts of value creation and value capture. If school-university partnerships were heralded or even mandated as effective tools for

developing school leaders, then what is known about them? This analysis was viewed through literature about the preconditions, processes, and outcomes of such partnerships. A review of the literature to that end produced only limited empirical knowledge, and value creation as an outcome has been studied in collaborative partnerships, but not with school-university partnerships (Birmingham, 2005). Therefore the research gap for the study was identified.

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework



Summary of Methodology

Case study methodology was used to investigate the qualitative research questions. Case study "involves the study of an issue explored through one or more cases within a bounded system (i.e., a setting, a context)" (Creswell, 2007, p. 73). In this study, the researcher examined three school-university partnerships involving the same institution of higher education and three different local school systems. When focusing on these partnerships as a sample, it was appropriate to use both multi-site (three local school systems) and within-site (institution of higher education) approaches (Creswell, 2007). The case study employed in depth interviews (Rubin & Rubin, 2005), document analysis (Altheide, 1996), and observation (Lofland, Snow, Anderson & Lofland, 2006) as data collection methods. Because the researcher gathered data from more than just interviews, a phenomenology was not an appropriate methodology (Creswell, 2007).

Limitations

Limitations to the study were influenced by the nature of qualitative study. The study used a research design that attempted to reduce the impact of these limitations whenever possible (see Chapter 3). The study relied heavily on the openness, memories, and accessibility of interview participants. Participants' abilities to recall information or their willingness to share information and perceptions may have limited the data gathered in the study.

Of note, participants generally provided less data on the inner workings of their own school systems. This was likely because many of key personnel in the partnerships were actual superiors and others were colleagues with considerable influence within the school system. Participants would often become hesitant or cautious when certain lines

of discussion involved another school system administrator. These lines of inquiry were not pressed because of concerns about ethical treatment and protection of participants and because the focus of the study was how stakeholders created value for their own school systems when partnering, not the interpersonal dynamics of the school systems.

In regard to access, all potential participants identified by either organizational role or by another participant were interviewed for the study, except one. One former school system employee was identified by several colleagues as a critical informant; however he elected not to participate in the study because of his schedule. This participant possessed historical insight into one partnership and not having his insight likely limited the study of one partnership.

Another limitation of the study was my personal view and experiences with principal preparation. Being a school administrator for over a decade, I have developed clear views on my own preparation and have a particular closeness to the topic of study. However, my review of the literature greatly broadened my perspective of principal preparation and widened my perspective on my experiences. I believe my role as a researcher was enhanced, rather than limited by my background.

Delimitations

The researcher confined the scope of the study to a sample of three school university partnerships in the mid-Atlantic region. The findings of this study should not be generalized in the statistical sense to all school-university partnerships. However, the findings relate to value creation and value capture in school-university partnerships and could be extrapolated (Patton, 2002) or transferred (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) by anyone perceiving the findings as applicable.

Although a significant amount of time was spent in the field, the study was not designed to be longitudinal. Therefore, the findings addressed value creation and value capture over time only as related to participants' longitudinal perceptions of partnerships.

The scope of the study did not intentionally include the perspectives of students within the partnerships because the focus was on how stakeholders at the college and in the school systems created value for their own organizations. However, opinions and suggestions of students did appear in documents related to the partnerships such as program evaluations and notes from focus groups conducted at the college. This data was included as part of triangulation.

Key Terms

School-University Partnerships (SUPs) were defined for the purpose of this study as partnerships between institutions of higher education and local public, K-12 school systems for the purpose of preparing graduate students for certifications and/or master's degrees in educational leadership.

Stakeholders of school-university partnerships were actors holding positions of relevance to the partnership in either the college or the school systems as identified by the researcher.

Value Creation was the process of creating planned benefits of a partnership.

Value Capture was the process in which benefits were realized in a partnership, but were never intended or planned; these outcomes were the "serendipitous spinoffs" of the collaborative process (Birmingham, 2005).

Cohorts were used by the school-university partnerships in this study. Cohorts were groups of students who progressed through the same course sequence. In the interviews, participants would often refer to the partnerships as “the cohort” or “cohorts”.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Reform movements can be initiated, propelled, sustained, and terminated by a variety of conditions, factors, and actors. The reform of principal preparation programs was, and continues to be, no exception. A confluence of conditions helped produce reforms in principal preparation with many different stakeholders weighing in on what was needed. Those who called for reform developed recommendations that were relatively consistent considering so many different foundations, organizations, colleges, universities, legislators, states, and school systems were involved.

These changes were precipitated in part by the role of the principal becoming increasingly complex. This complexity included high stakes accountability, the dramatic changes in student demographics in many parts of the country, the ever expanding knowledge base on student learning and achievement, and the complex repertoire of leadership skills needed to improve student learning (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2000). Principals today must possess the advanced knowledge, skills, and dispositions required to (a) manage complex organizational change centered on student achievement and teacher development, (b) drive decision making and problem solving using an elaborate system of data, and (c) build a coherent vision of a professional learning community among multiple stakeholders (Robinson, Lloyd, & Rowe, 2008). At the same time, university preparation programs for principals have come under intense scrutiny and criticism (The Broad Foundation and Thomas B. Fordham Institute, 2003, Fry & O'Neill, 2005; Hess & Kelly, 2005; Levine, 2005).

The specific focus of this study was the school-university partnership, which has been offered as a possible solution to better preparing principal candidates (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, & Orr, 2007; Jackson & Kelley, 2003). The literature review examined the confluence of conditions that have influenced reform efforts, the nature of the reform effort, the recommendations emanating from the reform literature and research, and the specific role identified by reformers for school-university partnerships. The review also examined relevant research on partnerships, alliances and collaboration; this was critical to contextualizing the school-university partnership. Further, the literature review analyzed the current research on school university partnerships in regard to principal preparation and the resulting gap in the literature that was the focus for this study. Finally, the literature review connected the current literature on school-university partnerships, the concepts of value creation and capture, and the theoretical framework of negotiated order theory into a coherent conceptual framework for conducting the study and answering the research questions.

Confluence of Conditions

Over the past few decades, several conditions emerged that have influenced principal preparation: (a) the increasingly complex and critical role of the principal, (b) the perceived shortage of principals, (c) the concurrent explosion of principal preparation programs, and (d) the rising competition to traditional principal preparation programs. These conditions generally pre-dated the major reform initiatives; however they remained subjects of study in the research community, subjects of policy initiatives and objects of scrutiny by critics. The confluence of these conditions helped spawn and sustain the

reform efforts in institutions of higher education that prepare principals for school leadership.

The complex and critical role of the principal. The first condition was the change toward a more complex and critical role for the principal, especially over the past two decades. The Institute for Educational Leadership outlined the changes on the role of the principal in a report entitled *Leadership for Student Learning: Reinventing the Principalship* (2000). Led by Joseph Murphy, the report noted that although the principal of the past was primarily a manger, the principal of today faced the considerable responsibilities of instructional leader, community leader, and visionary leader (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2000). The report stated that the shift in responsibility called for a shift in leadership models for schools as well. Specifically, more distributed models of leadership would be necessary, and facilitating these models required an additional set of leadership skills, knowledge, and dispositions. The report also noted that the shift of the principal into a more complex role that required a broader, more integrated set of leadership skills was often tied directly to the perceived shortage of qualified leaders to assume the role of principal (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2000). Copland (2001) asserted that academics and practitioners have tried to articulate what principals should know and be able to do, sometimes reducing the role of the principal down to three or four broad areas of competency. At other times, they offered a more detailed listing of several dozen job responsibilities and roles. This resulted in an expectation for principals that was simply too difficult to meet and disregarded the importance of organizational structure and the culture of distributed leadership (Copland, 2001).

Researchers have demonstrated the significant impact an effective principal could have on student achievement, placing principal leadership second only to classroom instruction among school-related factors for achievement (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). In addition, researchers have found that leadership makes the most significant impact on schools where it is most needed, noting that there are almost no documented cases of schools turning around without the guidance of a strong leader (Leithwood et al., 2004).

Robinson, Lloyd and Rowe (2008) noted that various studies have shown that the connection between leadership and achievement effect size can vary from negative to significant. After conducting two meta-analyses of 27 studies focusing on the relative impact of different types of leadership on student outcomes, Robinson et al. (2008) found that the type of leadership used by a principal makes a significant difference on student learning.

Perceived shortage of qualified candidates. The second condition influencing principal preparation was the perceived shortage of qualified candidates in line to assume the principalship. The Bureau of Labor Statistics (2011) noted there were 445,000 administrative positions in the United States and projected that by 2016 there would be an 8% increase in the number of positions. The National Association of Secondary School Principals (2000) reported on a survey regarding principal shortages; half of the school districts reported there was a shortage of qualified candidates for principal positions. Data emanating from state specific statistics and studies built support for indications of a national shortage (Rayfield & Diamantes, 2003). In contrast, some researchers have shown there were an ample number of professionals who have the necessary certification

to become principals; however, many qualified candidates simply chose not to apply for positions (Gajda & Militello, 2008).

DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2003) examined the conditions and concerns of principals to see what their perceptions and experiences were of the growing shortage in Virginia. Outlining the increase in responsibilities in principalship, the authors stated that adding the roles of instructional leader and change agent to the job added considerable complexity to the position. They further noted that this increased complexity may be straining those in the principalship, and this may have resulted in a shortage of qualified people willing to take on the role, regardless of how many people actually held administrative credentials (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2003).

Gates, Rengel, Santibanez, Ross, and Chung (2003) noted there were adequate numbers of people certified to assume principal positions in the United States. Gates et al. (2003) studied national demographic, salary, employment, mobility, distribution, retention, and work experience data and determined that the number of principals was stable even though the population is aging. Gates et al. (2003) qualified their study by noting it was not a complete analysis of the potential shortage because it only focused on the supply side of the issue. They also cautioned that better longitudinal data were needed to make a more complete assessment of the issue.

Expansion of degree programs. This rapid expansion in the number of universities and colleges offering educational leadership master's degrees, specialist's degrees and doctoral degrees (Baker, Orr, & Young, 2007) was another condition that influenced principal preparation reform efforts. The researchers found that the number of educational leadership programs in almost all colleges and universities types increased, as

did the overall number of degrees produced by these programs. Across all institutions, the number of graduate degree programs increased by 16% and the number of master's degrees granted grew by 90% (Baker et al., 2007). Comprehensive I institutions accounted for 56% of master's programs, 55% of specialist's programs and 29% of doctoral programs, while Research I and II institutions accounted for 16%, 19%, and 38% of degree programs respectively (Baker et al., 2007). The number of master's degrees programs in Comprehensive II and Liberal Arts II schools increased by 188% and 244% respectively from 1990 to 2003. These same two Carnegie categories accounted for a respective 846% and 986% increase in master's degrees produced over the same ten year time period (p. 293). Similar expansion occurred with specialists and doctoral degrees as well. These data illustrated a shift in the number of new educational leadership programs and the number of degrees produced away from Research I and II colleges and universities and toward Comprehensive and Liberal Arts institutions.

Baker et al. (2007) noted that the greatest increases in degree programs and production occurred at lower-ranked institutional types that had fewer educational resources such as full time faculty (vs. adjunct staff), field work supervision, and advisement for dissertations. This raised concerns from the researchers about the quality of program these institutions could deliver, especially at the doctoral level. They asserted that having more or fewer institutional resources would not necessarily result a higher or lower quality program, but rather they asserted institutional type served as an indicator of university's potential to provide quality resources (Baker et al., 2007). These rapid increases in degree program and production coincided with growing criticism of principal

preparation in higher education programs and the call for better leaders for public schools (Levine, 2005; Young, Peterson, & Short, 2002).

As noted above, the explosion of university programs and the resulting spikes in degree production created a large market share among colleges and universities. Local school systems often reimbursed educators for credits accumulated while pursuing master's degrees. There were claims from some critics that state licensure requirements created a monopoly for universities and colleges because many states required master's degrees in educational leadership before someone could assume the principalship (The Broad Foundation and The Thomas B. Fordham Institute, 2003). In essence, traditional programs controlled access to school leadership. Policy makers were trying to create other opportunities for preparation outside of traditional higher education programs; this created competition within the business of principal preparation.

Rising competition to traditional principal preparation programs. This surge in competition to traditional educational leadership programs was the final condition influencing principal preparation. Some researchers believed traditional university programs were slow to change because of insufficient resources, lack of administrative priority and support at the president and dean level, resistance within education departments, various institutional hurdles, and polices in school districts that rewarded credit accumulation with higher pay (Fry & O'Neill, 2005). Because the weaknesses seen in traditional principal preparation programs were compounded by the perceived resistance to change in higher education, some scholars called for expanding the pipeline of qualified principals by offering preparation and certification through alternatives to traditional university programs (Hess & Kelly, 2005).

In response, twenty-four states have directed reforms to principal preparation programs, developed state leadership academies, created leadership frameworks, or have allocated funds for leadership development since 2007 (Shelton 2010; 2009; 2008; Vitaska, 2007). Some states have increased licensure requirements in an attempt to improve quality; other states have reduced or virtually eliminated licensing requirements to apply for administrative certification (Vitaska, 2008). Six states made modifications to their certification requirements in an effort to expand the pipeline of school leaders (Shelton 2010; 2009; 2008; Vitaska, 2007). Even with the emphasis on reforming traditional programs, states have accelerated legislative actions to support alternative pathways to certification and allow non-traditional candidates to assume the principalship (Shelton, 2009; 2010, 2011). In 2010, seven states specifically passed legislation to allow alternative pathways to the principalship; this was a sharp uptick from only two states between 2007 and 2009.

One such program was Maryland's proposed Officers to Principals program, a recommendation from a task force on the principalship (Maryland State Department of Education, 2009). As another example, Massachusetts allowed several school systems to certify school administrators in connection with area universities or education organizations such as the Massachusetts Secondary Schools Administrators' Association and the Massachusetts Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (Massachusetts Department of Education, 2009; National Association of State Boards of Education, 2007). Private organizations have also introduced alternative certification models. New Leaders for New Schools (NLNS) is a non-profit organization created to specifically train leaders for urban school districts (New Leaders for New Schools, 2012).

The non-profit Knowledge is Power Program (KIPP) Foundation began training prospective principals for placement in KIPP public charter schools in 2000.

Hickey-Gramke and Whaley (2007) conducted a study of statewide policies on alternative licensure that included a review of all states' alternative licensure policies, an analysis by a panel of experts on the policies' critical elements, and a survey of superintendents and principals regarding the alternative licensing of school administrators. These three lines of inquiry resulted in several key findings. First, the authors concluded that alternative pathways should first be deemed necessary by examining demand for and/or shortages of principals; in essence, states should determine if alternative licensing was needed at all. Second, licensing requirements and skills outcomes for alternative licensing programs should be similar to traditional programs; study participants indicated that "quick-fix" principals could be problematic (p. 21). Third, monetary resources should be available to implement, monitor, and evaluate alternative licensing programs. Finally, the study showed little consensus among participants about the requirements and length of an alternative licensing program (Hickey-Gramke & Whaley, 2007).

The calls for reform of educational leadership programs occurred in the context created by the confluence of conditions outlined above. The reformers calling for the changes came from higher education, think tanks, foundations, and professional organizations. These researchers and advocates identified some common recommendations for reform, including the school-university partnership.

Reform Initiatives and Recommendations

Efforts to reform principal preparation programs began in the 1980s. Early calls for reform included the 1987 report and recommendations from the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration (NCEEA), which criticized preparation programs for a number of deficiencies including a lack of: (a) collaboration with school districts; (b) leader recruitment; (c) minorities and women in the field; (d) relevance to the job demands of school administrators, and (e) sequenced, modern content and clinical experience (Jackson & Kelley, 2003).

In the mid-1990s, the Council of Chief State School Officer developed the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards in an effort to bring preparation programs up to a common set of standards using the research base on the characteristics of good school leaders (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008). States began adopting the ISLLC Standards as part of their own reform efforts. In 2000, the National Council for Accreditation on Teacher Education (NCATE) adopted the ISLLC standards for their accreditation reviews of educational leadership programs (Jackson & Kelley, 2002; Young, Crow, Orr, & Creighton, 2005).

Criticisms of principal preparation programs continued through the early 2000s. Foundations, universities, and organizations began responding to these criticisms by building the research base and developing policy stances in respect to principal preparation programs (Barnett, Margaret, Yerkes, & Norris, 2000; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Glazier, 2000; Hess & Kelly, 2005; Institute for Educational Leadership, 2000; Jackson & Kelley, 2002; Murphy & Vriesenga, 2004; Southern Regional Education Board, 2003, The Broad Foundation and Thomas B. Fordham Institute, 2003).

In 2005, the tone and urgency of reform calls progressed when Arthur Levine, the former head of the Columbia University's Teachers College, released the report, *Educating School Leaders*, which claimed that educational leadership programs ranged from "inadequate to appalling" (p. 23). He called for significant reforms in many areas of principal preparation including changing financial incentives in school systems that promote credit accumulation, setting higher admission standards, closing or strengthening weak programs, redesigning leadership programs and curriculum, eliminating the Ed. D., and reserving the Ph. D. for preparing researchers (Levine, 2005). This report was often cited by others calling for the acceleration of reform in educational leadership programs (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Fry & O'Neill, 2005; Murphy, Moorman, & McCarthy, 2008; Southern Regional Education Board, 2007).

Murphy et al. (2008) conducted a qualitative analysis of documents surrounding reform recommendations in leadership programs in six states. The researchers had served as consultants to these states during their reform efforts. This analysis process created macro findings about the state of reform in principal preparation including:

- most program developers are following an unproductive paradigm;
- results of reform are uneven and overall fall short of the mark;
- lack of actionable theory is a major shortcoming;
- reforms are hampered by weak curriculum and content; and
- neglect of the technical and adaptive dimensions of change make serious reform unlikely (Murphy et al., 2008, p. 2186-2188)

Murphy et al., (2008) then outlined nine reform principles and practices that should guide programs in the direction of true reform and not just a refinement of existing models:

1. Work from an outcomes based paradigm.
2. Create a strong platform of actionable theory.
3. Establish a clear, coherent focus and foundation.
4. Recruit and select candidates through rigorous, values-based admissions.
5. Align the program through zero-based curriculum development.
6. Ground and integrate learning through practice-anchored experiences.
7. Provide adequate support for technical and adaptive change.
8. Replace culture of autonomy with culture of community.
9. Maintain quality and continual improvement through outcome based accountability (p. 2190-2196).

Many of these recommendations appeared throughout the literature of principal preparation reform.

Over the last decade, a number of foundations, organizations, and researchers called for educational leadership programs to contain specific components or features in an effort to ensure quality. The specific language used to describe each component varied somewhat, but there appeared to be some general agreement about what components should be present in a quality principal preparation program. There was some variance among authors and researchers about which components were critical and how each of these components were defined and described. The various components have each been individual subjects of study. The recommended components for principal preparation programs have been summarized from the literature and are shown in Table 1

below. Discussing these components was important to this study because the school-university partnership was touted as a synthesizing vehicle for these recommended components; according to the literature, the school-university partnership should tie these components together in a coherent and practical way. Therefore, the components will be addressed in turn.

Table 1: Components of School-University Partnerships by Date and Author(s)

Date and Author(s)	Jointly guided curriculum (taught by practitioners and academics)	Design based on program standards	Philosophical and theoretical basis (with focus on student achievement outcomes)	Real world, problem- based applications of learning	Rigorous recruitment and selection criteria	Robust internships with trained mentors	Performance based exit criteria
(2002) Jackson and Kelley	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
(2003) Hale & Moorman	X			X	X	X	
(2004) Murphy & Vriesenga	X		X	X	X		X
(2004) National Association of State Boards of Education	X			X	X	X	
(2004) Whitaker, King, & Vogel	X			X		X	
(2004) Williams, Matthews, & Baugh	X			X		X	
(2005) Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson	X	X	X	X		X	X
(2005) Fry & O'Neill	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
(2005) Levine	X		X	X	X	X	X
(2006) The Wallace Foundation		X					X
(2007) Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, & Orr, 2007	X	X	X	X	X	X	
(2007) Southern Region Education Board	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
(2008) The Wallace Foundation	X		X		X	X	X
(2007) Hess and Kelly							

Balance of theoretical and practical philosophy. Programs should be rooted in a philosophy of instructional leadership and school improvement with a focus on student outcomes (Hess & Kelly, 2007). In addition, a balance between a theoretical base of information and practical applications of knowledge was recommended; this goal of balancing theoretical and practical applications was often accompanied with the parallel consideration of having educational leadership faculty composed of both university academics and experienced practitioners, and relying less on adjunct faculty (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Jackson & Kelley, 2002; Levine, 2005).

SREB (2004) noted that this balance of research-based and practical content could be accomplished through co-teaching by university faculty and school district practitioners as was the a case in the University of Rhode Island and Providence School Department. Storms and Gonzales (2006) noted that having a strong philosophical basis for the partnership was critical. The California State University East Bay and a local school system partnered to implement an educational leadership program using the Bold, Socially Responsible Leadership (or BSRL) model of leadership development. Both of these partnerships will be examined in greater depth later in the literature review.

Coherent curriculum with an emphasis on student achievement. Critics of existing programs claimed that the curriculum content in educational leadership programs was not always research-based or coherent (Davis et al., 2005) or was often a "grab bag of survey courses" (Levine, 2005, p. 51). Authors of reports from the Southern Regional Education Board and the Wallace Foundation called for specific and comprehensive redesign of educational leadership curriculum (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Levine, 2005). Bottoms et al. (2003) characterized current curriculum as "out of balance" (p. 7)

noting that educational leadership curriculum emphasized the topics of management, supervision, finance, school law, leadership, and research with equal attention, however curriculum and instruction were addressed in a more limited fashion and with a theoretical, not practical, approach. The authors called for better balance between traditional curriculum related to management and a more comprehensive study of curriculum, instruction, student achievement and school improvement (Bottoms et al., 2003).

Many researchers and policy advocates called for programs to have comprehensive, coherent, research based curriculum that connected theory to practice (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Fry, Bottom, O'Neill & Walker, 2007; Hale & Moorman, 2003; Murphy & Vriesenga, 2004). Davis et al. (2005) specifically noted that curriculum content and practice should center on the skills and knowledge essential for promoting successful teaching and learning. In addition, they stated that curriculum should also include ethical leadership practices, practices for distributing leadership through an organization, and the use of instructional technologies for promoting learning. These recommendations were general in nature; other scholars have offered more specific recommendations.

Murphy et al. (2008) stated that many programs, in response to reform calls, simply added some content regarding instructional leadership and the role that principals should play. Considering the widespread call for reform, the number of studies on reform components such as curriculum was relatively low (Murphy, Vriesenga & Storey, 2007). Perhaps the most interesting point of discussion in the literature was whether or not the

curriculum reforms called for would actually produce better principals. As Davis et al. (2005) stated:

> Much of the empirical support for the most popular program components consist of self-reported candidate perceptions and experiences and there is virtually no evidence for how graduates of different kinds of programs perform on the job. In short, the development of principal knowledge, skills and dispositions lacks a strong and coherent research base. As a result, programs are experimenting with…curriculum…without a solid base of empirical research to inform their design (p. 7).

Alignment to program standards. A number of authors asserted that leadership programs should be aligned with the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008; Davis et al., 2005; Darling-Hammond et al., 2007, Fry & O'Neill, 2005; Southern Region Education Board, 2007). The ISLLC Standards were updated, and are now called the Educational Leadership Policy Standards. They were designed to "reflect the new information and lessons learned about educational leadership" (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008, p. 1). The standards were designed to be used by not only universities, but also states, local school systems, and education organizations for a variety of purposes including recruitment, initial certification, staff development, and re-licensure (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008). According to the Council of Chief State School Officers (2008) 43 states have used the ISLLC standards in tact or as a framework for their own standards since their adoption in 1996.

Some scholars offered a contrasting view on the use of the ISLLC standards (ELCC Standards) as being essential to reform efforts. For example, Hess and Kelly (2005) felt the ISSLC standards presented a narrow notion of school leadership and Jackson and Kelley (2003) felt the ISSLC standards merely codified the current practices

in principal preparation programs because universities adopted narrow visions of the broad standards.

Further, SREB (2002) cautioned that using standards in leadership programs could often be a "paper and pencil game" of matching existing practices and course content with the standards (p.16). This was contrasted by the intended use of the standards to design or redesign principal preparation. In a progress check of universities engaging in redesign, only one of 11 universities met SREB's expectation for use of the standards. There was no unanimity in the research about whether use of the ISLLC stardards createed true reform.

Rigorous recruitment and selection criteria. Researchers claimed that rigorous recruitment and selection of candidates for admittance into educational leadership programs was also necessary, as self-selection was often seen as ineffective (Bottoms, O'Neill, Fry & Hill, 2003; Levine, 2005; Southern Regional Education Board, 2007; The Wallace Foundation, 2009). Levine (2005) noted that educational leadership candidates had Graduate Record Exam (GRE) scores among the lowest in fields of education, and the average score on the verbal section and the analytical section fell below the national average by 46 points and 81 points respectively. Murphy et al. (2008) noted that selection of candidates in principal preparation programs was often linked to criteria disassociated with leadership potential such as test scores, grade point averages, and letters of recommendations. They proposed that universities link admissions criteria to their program's foundations and values (e.g., social justice, equity, leadership) and create a handful of ways to recruit and select candidates based on these criteria (Murphy et al., 2008).

Bottoms, O'Neill, Fry and Hill (2003) identified six strategies for improving the quality of principals; the first was to single out high performing teachers using a set of criteria and methods to identify those with leadership competencies and curriculum and instruction knowledge, rather than relying on self-selected candidates. In addition, school systems and universities must work together to move criteria for admission into leadership programs away from grade-point averages, test scores, and recommendations to a shared selection process using leadership criteria and procedures that focused on professional accomplishments and demonstrated leadership (Bottoms et al., 2003; Fry & O'Neill, 2005).

Hale and Moorman (2003), in a discussion of how state policies shaped the talent pool for school administration, noted that states control entry into the field through certification requirements and this limited the overall size and quality of the candidate pool. Gates et al. (2003) reached similar conclusions. The Broad Foundation and Thomas B. Fordham Institute (2003) specifically recommended minimizing regulations that limit the number of candidates in the pipeline, including requiring candidates to have teaching experience. They asserted that school boards should first recruit for essential leadership skills and attributes shown through leadership success, and then provide the specialized, school-specific knowledge later.

Norton (2002) noted that the Southern Region Education Board committed to supporting "school districts in identifying potential leaders with demonstrated leadership ability, knowledge of current curriculum and instruction, and a proven record of high performance" into leadership programs (p. 8). He noted many candidates were people the school district was least likely to deem qualified for leadership positions and that too

many educational leadership candidates do not pursue administrative careers. He asserted that universities and the school districts should look collaboratively at potential candidates using rigorous criteria including the documentation of accomplishments and demonstrated leadership skills.

Real world, problem based applications of learning. Extensive discussion in the reform community centered on programs using problem-based, real world application of learning that occurred in the field (Davis et al., 2005; Fry & O'Neill, 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003). Reform proponents called for a clinical approach to projects that were tied directly to increases in student achievement or other visible outcomes in the school setting (Fry & O'Neill, 2005; Hess & Kelly, 2007). These real-world, problem-based applications of knowledge were studied as part of course content or within the context of internships (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Murphy et al., 2008; The Wallace Foundation, 2008). The internship experience for aspiring principals itself has been the focus of much attention in the reform agenda.

Robust internships with trained mentors. The internship for future school administrators came under increased scrutiny. Researchers have shown that internships often lacked the hands-on experiences that prepared future administrators to lead school improvement and raise student achievement levels (Fry, Bottoms, & O'Neill, 2005). Some researchers focused on the cohort model as a structure for educational leadership programs citing both perceived benefits and drawbacks from cohort use (Barnett et al., 2000; Teitel, 1997; Whitaker et al., 2004). Cohorts were small groups of students that progress through a course of study or a program at the same time and in the same sequence. Cohorts were viewed as a means of developing dispositions among candidates

that were conducive to teamwork, collaboration, and shared purpose. Proponents of reform supported cohorts that allowed for substantial time for candidates to be engaged in leadership opportunities (Jackson & Kelley, 2002; Williams, Matthews & Baugh, 2004).

The aforementioned applications of knowledge should be conducted within robust internships that ideally occurred while the candidate was released from his/her current work responsibilities (Jackson & Kelley, 2002) or when they participated in "paid sabbaticals" (Hale & Moorman, 2003, p. 10). These internships should be supervised by the university and completed under the guidance of a trained, experienced principal mentor who may not necessarily be the principal at the candidate's home school (Browne-Ferrigno, 2004; Jackson & Kelley, 2002; Leithwood et al., 2004; Southern Regional Education Board, 2007). The internships should allow for substantial time engaged in leadership opportunities (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Fry & O'Neill, 2005; Hess & Kelly, 2007; Jackson & Kelley, 2002; Murphy et al., 2008; Williams, Matthews & Baugh, 2004).

Researchers also examined the level and intensity of participation by administrative candidates during their internships. In 2005, the Southern Region Education Board (SREB) reported its findings of a study that surveyed leaders of principal preparation programs in 16 states (Fry, Bottoms, & O'Neill, 2005). The researchers outlined four key findings from the survey. First, internships were not designed to provide a continuum of observing, participating and leading roles to develop skills in the critical success factors. Second, there was disconnection between the confidence of department heads in their programs' effectiveness and the indicators of quality that were identified within the programs themselves. Third, a large majority of

principal preparation programs and local school systems had not taken important steps to develop and maintain effective partnership that provide quality internships. Fourth, principal preparation programs were graduating interns without strong evidence that they were prepared for the job, and as a result states were certifying principals even though the evaluations used during the internships lacked rigor (Fry, Bottoms, & O'Neill, 2007).

Competency based exit criteria. Authors also asserted that completion of internships and programs should be based on exit criteria and reliable measures of performance (Davis et al., 2005; Murphy & Vriesenga, 2004; The Wallace Foundation, 2008). Florida State University's leadership program was highlighted by SREB (2002) as a program utilizing a competency-based assessment tool. This tool had its roots in a program-wide analysis of course content against the ISLLC standards. After realizing the program did not effectively target the key competencies outlined in the standards, the course content was redesigned. They created a 45-minute, web-based assessment that could be used as a 360-degree evaluation tool. The instrument was administered at the beginning of their program and served as a guide for their own development. Students keep a portfolio of their growth in these areas and had to defend the portfolio successfully in order to exit the program. Students also completed a capstone project as another exit criterion (SREB, 2002).

Progress toward Program Design and Redesign

Incorporating the recommended reform components into a design or redesign of an educational leadership program would constitute a significant undertaking for universities. Many universities had taken steps toward that end, although the amount of progress in these efforts varied from program to program and state to state.

Fry and O'Neill (2005), working with the Southern Region Education Board (SREB), called for acceleration in the redesign of university principal preparation programs, stating:

> Current state policies and strategies intended to promote redesign of principal preparation programs have produced episodic change in a few institutions but have fallen short in producing the deeper change that would ensure all candidates would master the knowledge and skills needed to be effective school leaders today (Fry & O'Neill, 2005, p. 3).

Fry and O'Neill (2005) further asserted that a lack of urgency existed among stakeholders for making such fundamental changes in programs, and universities had many entrenched barriers inhibiting them from making the necessary changes on their own. Fry and O'Neill (2005) studied 22 pacesetter universities to determine what progress these programs were making with various redesign components. They found "many universities included in the study did not show meaningful change and had no identifiable sense of urgency to change" (p. 34).

Continuing with an examination of progress in reform efforts, Jackson and Kelley (2002) conducted a study of six educational leadership programs that were labeled as exceptional or innovative by experts in the field. The programs were implementing reform initiatives (e.g., standards, admission criteria, course design, internship rigor) with varying degrees of fidelity. Jackson and Kelley (2002) noted that the "culture of autonomy" at the university level was often a primary challenge to developing and implementing the programs effectively (p. 208).

Tin these programs, the course work included a strong collaboration with local school districts, specifically when course content was being applied in the school setting. Curriculum sequencing varied, but some programs sequenced course work to align with

the key tasks and responsibilities that occurred in the annual cycle of the school year. Internship intensity varied, but the number of field experience hours required ranged from 100 to 1400, with one program having a paid internship. For assessment, five of six programs required an exit portfolio linked to standards of practice and one of these programs required a comprehensive exam (Jackson & Kelley, 2002).

Jackson and Kelley (2002) noted that programs used various measures of effectiveness including: students' perceptions of readiness, positive evaluations, placement in administrative positions (some before program completion), and passing scores on state licensure assessments. The researchers also noted that these program structures required more time and collaboration than traditional programs and a more significant initial investment of resources.

As outlined above, the recommended components were being incorporated and implemented by universities; they varied in description, and programs have used a variety of combinations of components as parts of their reform efforts. Some leadership programs have packaged reform components into the broader structure of the school-university partnership. Partnerships were heralded as a reform component themselves, especially when the other reform components were an integrated part of the school-university partnership design.

Collaborative Partnerships as a Synthesizing Vehicle

Another component deemed critical for rigorous and relevant preparation was the development of collaborative partnerships with school districts and/or non-public organizations and foundations (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Jackson & Kelley, 2002). Partnerships in various forms have been studied and offered as exceptional, innovative, or

exemplary programs that showed promise, although the measure of effectiveness for such programs was limited (Jackson & Kelley, 2003). Many of the components called for by reformers that were outlined in the previous sections were also identified by researchers and policy makers as necessary components of school-university partnerships (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, & Orr, 2007; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Fry et al., 2007; Hale & Moorman, 2003; Fry & O'Neill, 2005). In essence, the components that were recommended to improve principal preparation programs in general were similar to the recommendations for creating effective school-university partnerships.

Hence, school-university partnerships were offered as reform tools within the broader reform context. Institutions of higher education and local school systems have formed such partnerships and have actively incorporated the recommended reform components into these partnerhsips (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, & Orr, 2007; Whitaker, King, & Vogel, 2004). It is simply not enough to be in a partnership; rather partnerships should serve as a vehicle for combining the recommended reform components into an understandable and functioning whole while taking advantage of the unique benefits of schools and universities working together.

Authors have espoused several benefits to leadership programs when they engage in partnerships with local school systems. Davis et al. (2005) noted that school systems benefitted from the intellectual resources of universities while universities benefitted from stronger clinical training. In addition, school personnel helped select candidates for the program, served as mentors, assisted with assessment of candidates, and served as members of the university's advisory committee. Bottoms et al. (2003) asserted schools

and universities needed to partner in order to implement a real world, problem-based curriculum, better link theory to practice, and craft challenging assessments and assignments. The authors further noted that both universities and school systems should allocate resources to that end.

Current Research on School-University Partnerships

A more thorough discussion of the extant research on school-university partnerships was warranted to further narrow the research gap and better articulate the conceptual framework. Although much has been said in the literature about principal preparation reform in general, limited research was available on school-university partnerships. In fitting with the theoretical framework of the study, the preconditions, processes and outcomes of the school-university partnerships will be addressed when reviewing the research on such partnerships.

Storms and Gonzales (2006) conducted a case study on a partnership between California State University East Bay and "a financially and educationally distressed school district" in California that was under state control because half of its schools were in school improvement under NCLB guidelines (p. 38). The researchers offered insight into the preconditions, processes, and outcomes of collaborative partnerships between universities and school districts. The researchers used a variety of data sources over a one year period for this case study including varying types of documents and surveys of several stakeholder groups.

In this case, the preconditions to collaboration included a top down push from the chancellor of the CSU system, who commissioned a task force to explore alternative programs for leadership preparation that would address the challenges of K-12 school

administrators. The resulting task force report set conditions for partnerships to develop throughout the state university system. In addition, work was being done at the CSU East Bay to develop the Bold, Socially Responsible Leadership (BSRL) model of leadership development, including a rubric to define what BCSL meant in a leadership program (p. 36). CSU East Bay had partnered with several school districts in the past, although on a less formal basis. Finally, the district superintendent of the school system saw a need to develop school leaders to fit the school districts' characteristics. These preconditions led to the creation of the partnership that Storms and Gonzales (2006) studied.

As far as the processes of collaboration were concerned, the school district and the university agreed to adopt the BCSL framework for the partnership's focus. The development of the partnership was then guided by three key questions:

1. How can a university build a successful partnership with urban districts that is perceived by the district and university as meeting the needs/goals of both institutions to train school leaders?
2. What design features create a strong credential program partnership with school districts?
3. How do participants evaluate the program? (Storms & Gonzales, 2006, p. 40)

The district superintendent and other school leaders met for months with the university faculty to develop the credential program. The features of the partnership mirrored many of the recommendations for reform of principal preparation programs including: (a) candidates being nominated by district officials and jointly selected by university and school system staff; (b) teaching staff composed of university professors and practitioners; (c) exemplary principals utilized as mentors; (d) use of a clear philosophical

or theoretical basis (i.e. BSRL); and (e) creation of a formalized agreement that addressed roles, responsibilities and resource commitments.

Key personnel were identified as critical to the process of collaboration in the partnership. For example, the university facilitator's role was identified as critical to supporting adjunct instructors and maintaining the focus on BSRL. Top level district leaders were credited for setting a "tone of the value of leadership in school transformation" (Storms & Gonzales, 2006, p. 41).

Looking to outcomes of collaboration, the partnership had a 96% completion rate. In addition, another positive outcome was the creation of authentic projects that were applied in the school setting. These projects were created when university and school system personnel collaboratively planned course content, which was also cited as a positive outcome of the partnership. High involvement by district personnel and their resulting satisfaction were also promising outcomes for the partnerships.

Continuing, other researchers have studied graduate students' perceptions of strengths and weaknesses of school-university partnerships as both a commentary on processes and as a measure of outcome. Whitaker et al. (2004) summarized the data collected over four years from three different leadership development cohorts in leadership programs that were partnering with school districts in Colorado. Cohorts were small groups of students that were in the same courses and course sequence throughout the program. The initial partnership was jointly planned, including curriculum content, by the university and school district with instruction jointly delivered on site to cohorts. Candidates were jointly selected for admission, and their internships were mentored by school personnel and supervised by university professors or school system personnel.

The partnership was replicated in two additional school districts in subsequent years (Whitaker et al., 2004). As a result, students were exposed to a variety of school districts during their program.

The survey instrument used was an open ended questionnaire designed to gather students' perception of the graduate program in the following categories: curriculum, content, quality of instruction, advantages and disadvantages of the partnership arrangement, program delivery, cohort learning, internship component, and quality of advising. Ninety students completed the questionnaire; the results included data from three different partnerships over a four year span.

One precondition to the collaboration was a relationship between a school district administrator and the division director at the university. Another key precondition to the collaboration was a desire to better prepare school leaders and grow the pipeline because of a "shortage of qualified candidates for principalships in the school district" (Whitaker et al., 2006, p. 211).

Students offered perception about various aspects of the processes used in the partnerships. They perceived that the support (e.g., money, time, commitment to partnership) given by school districts varied considerably, and this variance created some negative perceptions among students. In addition, perceptions of internship quality varied depending on the level commitment and support the mentoring principals offered; the perceptions also varied if a student's internship was supervised by university professors (move favorable perceptions) or school system personnel (less favorable perceptions). In general, a higher involvement from district personnel was identified as an area of improvement in the partnering process by students.

Whitaker et al. (2004) presented a number of findings on graduate students' perceptions of the strength and weakness of these partnerships, and many of these perceptions focused on outcomes of the partnership. Perceptions of curriculum quality were generally positive; however perceptions varied by partnership. Students' perceptions of team taught courses (by one university faculty and one school system practitioner) were positive with one student noting that the model provided "a strong mix of theory and practice" (p. 213). The graduate students in all three partnerships favored learning in the cohort model and identified the following as positive impacts of using cohorts: (a) strong bonding with fellow students, (b) helpful professional and personal support, and (c) increased learning and better networking. The authors noted that not one student responded negatively about the cohort model. The cohort model was also identified as the main factor contributing to the quality of advising because advising sessions were done in a group format as students progressed through the program. Whittaker et al. (2004) found that students were very positive about the partnership arrangement in that it provided good networking opportunities, helped them learn about policies and practice of other districts, and exposed them to diverse perspectives. Students were very positive about the internship, which was spread over a two year period to allow students more opportunities to accumulate the required hours.

Whitaker et al. (2004) used graduate students' perception of the program as data for "program self-evaluation for improvement" (p. 209). When treating this data (students' perceptions) as an outcome, positive perceptions from the students supported many of the recommended components of principal preparation reform outlined earlier in the literature review. However, the researchers did not address matters of methodology

including a coding system or data analysis procedures, so the findings appear anecdotal in nature.

In another study, Southern Region Education Board (SREB) reported on a partnership between the University of Rhode Island (URI) and the Providence School Department (2004). This partnership was formed in 2002 and was still in existence as of 2012 (University of Rhode Island, 2012).

A number of preconditions led to this partnership. First, The Providence School Department was part of the Project LEAD, an initiative sponsored by the Wallace Foundation, in which urban school districts partnered with a university to deliver "a new model of leadership that prepares aspiring and practicing administrators to improve student achievement" (p. 1). The partnership purported to be a "new design" of educational leadership, and not a "redesign" of a traditional, university based program (p.1). In addition, the Providence SD also had relationships with several groups involved in principal preparation and education reform including the Institute for Learning (IFL), the State Action for Educational Leadership Project (SAELP), the Southern Region Education Board (SREB), the Education Development Corporation (EDC), and the Wallace Foundation (SREB, 2004). These relationships and the connection to funding, personnel and expertise created significant positive preconditions for the partnership. In addition, new appointments at the superintendent and deputy superintendent levels in Providence brought people to the school district with a clear vision of teaching and learning to raise student achievement. This vision included the adoption of a school reform framework developed by and implemented with assistance from the Institute for Learning (IFL). Another precondition cited by SREB was the rapid and significant

change in demographics of students in the school district including increases in rates of poverty and mobility, as well as increases in enrollment of students in minority and non-English speaking populations (SREB, 2004).

As a result of these preconditions, the processes of collaboration were very formal and involved a variety of stakeholders. Because URI had no educational leadership program at the time, the collaboration could start from a zero-based planning perspective (see Murphy et al., 2008). The planning team was comprised of university, school district personnel, and state certification staff and focused on a comprehensive program of courses designed together to target district specifications. Much of the collaborative process reflected the recommendations for reform of principal preparation programs outlined above. Most notably:

- The program was planned jointly by school district and university personnel as a comprehensive whole aligned to six strands of study and not as a collection of courses.
- Curriculum and content focused on student achievement leadership practices that targeted Providence School District's areas of need.
- Recruitment and selection of candidates were based on expanded and rigorous criteria and not self-selection.
- Courses were co-taught with school district personnel which provided students with authentic, real world school problems of student achievement to solve and balanced research-based and practical content.

- Candidates participated in school-based experiences (27 weeks total with 18 weeks released from current position) for observing, participating and leading activities.
- Instructional plans were adjusted based on candidates' experiences and strengths (SREB, 2004).

One important part of the collaborative process was the transfer of the responsibilities in the partnership from a few people to a much larger group (SREB, 2004).

This formal process produced collaborative outcomes that were highlighted in the report. A formative measure of these outcomes was developed into a questionnaire about program quality and the extent to which participants were having field based experiences that helped them master the school districts' framework for reform. A continuum of *observing*, *participating* and *leading* was used in the questionnaire for participants to characterize their involvement at the school level on these 36 field-based activities (see also Fry, Bottoms, & O'Neill, 2007). Only 19 questionnaires were returned from the 39 participants, and the majority of those came from members of the second year cohort who had only completed half of the program courses and requirements. Therefore, the results of the survey should be viewed with caution and as preliminary in nature.

The participants indicated their involvement level in these 36 activities to be: 38-89% for leading; 5 to 89% for participating; and 37-68% for observing, with participants reporting that some activities were not required. SREB (2004) noted that the prior experiences of participants accounted for higher instances of leading activities when those activities directly connected to participants' backgrounds as literacy or numeracy coaches. Addressing other indicators of program quality and impact, the authors noted

that school district personnel had broadened its pipeline of qualified candidates for administrative positions while the university raised its profile as an urban education leadership program resulting in increased enrollment and more opportunities for scholarly work in the field.

Orr and Barber (2006) compared school-university partnerships and conventional leadership programs on program attributes and how graduates' reported gains in leadership skill development, career aspirations and career advancement. The study utilized surveys of graduate from two cohorts in each of the three programs studied: (a) a suburban school-university partnership program; (b) its conventional counterpart; and (c) an urban school-university partnership. The study was conducted using post-only surveys of recent graduates and other program information (i.e., catalogs, website information, handouts, discussions with program coordinator). The survey tool used a five-point Likert scale and was developed and found valid in an earlier research endeavor. Fifty-four percent of graduates completed the survey and were deemed demographically representative of the total population of all cohorts (Orr & Barber, 2006).

Orr and Barber (2006) identified the elements of a quality program using those outlined in the literature. They included: (a) participant selection; (b) program design; (c) content by number of credits; (d) field experience (length, type of placement and standards addressed); (e) delivery (cohorts and accessibility strategies); (f) mix of faculty and adjuncts; (g) culminating student assessment; and (h) governance structure for program design and delivery (p. 716).

The authors found that graduates of partnership programs rated the program and internship structures higher than graduates of conventional programs. All graduates rated their leadership learning outcomes highly and indicated a modest commitment to the principalship with the majority (68%) advancing into leadership positions (p. 725). Partnership graduates were more committed to the principalship and entered leadership positions more quickly than conventional program graduates. Significant correlation was found between program structure and learning outcomes (.421, $p < .01$) as well as internship quality and commitment to the principalship (.370, $p < .05$), preparedness (.416, $p < .01$) and career advancement (.469, $p < .01$).

Orr and Barber (2006) asserted that outcome of partnership programs were consistent with recommended reforms in principal preparation programs. In essence, internship quality and program support matter. Each candidate's commitment to becoming a principal at the beginning of a graduate program also impacted their commitment at the end of the program and their advancement into an administrative position; this has implications for recruitment to leadership programs (Orr & Barber, 2006).

Sanzo, Myran and Clayton (2011) studied a first year school university partnership between a large university and small, rural school system that was facing significant challenges. Two preconditions led to the formation of this partnership. First, the school system was in an economically disadvantaged area that had a below average per capita income and where 21% of families lived below the poverty line. Twelve percent of homes had no indoor plumbing. The student population was majority minority, and 60% of students received free and reduced priced meals. Two of the three

schools in the system had not met the accreditation standards of the state education agency. The school system had some significant obstacles to overcome, so partnering was one step toward that end. Second, the university and school district were already collaborating in other areas. The original focus of the relationship began in 2004 and promoted quality instructional practices in the classroom. As the initiative progressed, university and district leaders worked on other district initiatives and projects. In 2008, the two organizations were awarded a School Leadership Program five-year grant from the United States Department of Education (US DoE) to create The Futures Program (Sanzo, et al., 2011).

In regard to the processes of collaboration, the Future Program "was developed based upon a critical and in-depth review of existent research and literature regarding educational leadership preparation, as well as the unique needs of the rural school district" (Sanzo, et al., 2011, p. 297). The Futures Program was jointly designed to respond to critics of educational leadership preparation and to authentically bridge the gap between theory and practice. The university and school system personnel used a design-based principles to collaboratively develop the program which included (a) courses that meet ISLLC and state accrediting standards and addressed the needs of the school division; (b) a three-semester internship that provided in-depth, authentic experiences and a strong mentoring approach; (c) an action research component designed to increase assessment literacy and use of data teams; (d) a social justice framework that gave attention to the multicultural and diversity needs of the school system; and (e) ongoing professional development for cohort participants and school system administrators (Sanzo, et al., 2011). Stakeholders established processes that set goals,

developed a data collection system to measure progress towards those goals, created waypoints for identifying program improvement and measuring the overall effectiveness of the partnership.

In the study, the researchers used a design-based research paradigm to collect data from a variety of qualitative sources including

> the Leadership Performance Planning Worksheet (LPPW) for new school leaders, key informant interviews, document analysis of ongoing correspondence between stakeholders and cohort members' work products (plans for various leadership responsibilities), field notes from meetings and training activities, and researcher field notes from researcher debriefing sessions (Sanzo, et al., 2011, p. 298).

They used the following four pillars for successful university-school partnerships (Myran, Crum, & Clayton, 2011) as a lens for analysis of the data:

1. The need to take a developmental view and recognize that new practices take time to develop and transfer to generalizable teaching and leadership practices.
2. The need to find a balance between theory and practice.
3. The need to develop clear shared goals and maintain an effective communication system.
4. The need to develop and support the instructionally focused leadership practices required to shepherd in a new normative structure (Sanzo, et al., 2011, p.299).

The analysis identified several outcomes to collaboration. First, the partnership was able to provide a holistic approach to learning. The course sequence provided an integrative approach, creating a developmental view to leadership studies and application of course content. Students saw the interrelationships among the various courses and were able to apply that knowledge in practice (Sanzo, et al., 2011). Second, the Futures Program built strong relationships between the university and school system personnel.

One component of the Futures Program was the use of school system personnel as trained mentors for the cohort members; this enabled a further strengthening of relationships between the organizations. Third, stakeholders in the partnership were able to provide sustained, meaningful professional development to school system personnel. Sanzo, et al. (2011) noted,

> Sustained, planned, and focused professional development appears to be eliminating the barriers to success in the project. Professional development associated with the project (i.e. mentor training, cohort internship projects, and cohort instructional supervision activities) are conducted in concert with current division initiatives (p.303).

Fourth, the stakeholders in the partnership were able design learning experiences that were realistic, allowing students to see "the time management and prioritizing aspects to quality leadership" (Sanzo, et al., 2011, p. 304). This was achieved in part by pairing cohort members with trained district mentors. Finally, the partnership experience became an introspective process that led to school system personnel seeing "the need for strategic planning and to move beyond the short sighted, test-driven planning that has been typical of the last number of years" and university personnel "who are recognizing the need to narrow the gap between research and practice have focused their scholarship on research that addresses best practice in school leadership, classroom assessment practices, data-based decision making, school-university partnerships and other practice centered areas" (Sanzo, et al., 2011, p 305). The outcomes of this partnership were instructive to any future partnerships.

Gap in the Literature on School University Partnerships

As seen above, school-university partnerships have been studied from a variety of perspectives, including processes and outcomes of partnerships. These partnerships have

not been studied with a specific focus on value creation or value capture, either as processes or outcomes of collaboration. Value creation and value capture have been studied in partnerships between non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and institutions of higher education. Birmingham's (2006) research questions and line of inquiry most closely paralleled the research questions for this study, so they will be outlined in detail below.

Guided by constructs similar to those outlined in this study's literature review, Birmingham (2006) studied how NGOs and universities created and captured value for their own organizations when engaged in partnerships. She studied three partnerships using a longitudinal multiple case study (18-month period) that employed document analysis and in-depth interviewing. Of note, Birmingham defined value capture as "what organizations gain indirectly, what one participant [of the study] called 'serendipitous spin-offs' that accrue to either organization because of the work they've done together" (p. 4). In each of the cases studied, the NGOs were partnering with the universities to build capacity in their personnel. In two cases NGO personnel were acquiring graduate degrees in specialized fields of study directly tied to the NGOs goals (i.e. international development and regional development) and in the third the NGO personnel were acquiring a specific set of financial and economic skills and process understandings (i.e. microfinancing).

Birmingham (2006) reported several key findings related to value creation and capture when NGOs and universities collaborated. First, all three universities reported value creation because they secured increased revenue from tuition, realized significant contributions to their overall mission, increased their credibility with other NGOs, and

accessed practitioners and field data for program enhancement and publishing opportunities. NGOs reported value creation when they gained credibility in the NGO community, created the potential for replication of their efforts, and realized an increased performance of NGO staff (Birmingham, 2006).

As stated above, Birmingham's noted value capture occurred when partnering organizations accrued indirect benefits beyond the intended outcomes of the original partnership design. She found that universities captured opportunities to work with other NGOs and created new degree programs; NGOs replicated collaborative models in other geographic areas, built confidence in their own partnering capabilities, and increased their donor base (Birmingham, 2006).

Birmingham (2006) noted that the partnerships in the study did not always have a clear measure or metric for assessing the value created through the partnerships, which had a secondary effect of partnership members not being able to identify value when it was realized. In addition, she noted that none of the partnerships measured all of the benefits they realized. As an example, Birmingham stated:

> So while they may have valued a benefit they believed resulted from the partnership, this benefit wasn't necessarily how they measured partnership success. For example, an organization's improved ability to partner was considered a value created by the partnership, but an increase in partnership activity or new partner requests was not listed as a success measure (p. 157).

In general, Birmingham (2006) noted that NGOs had better measures of value creation for intended outcomes than the universities.

Birmingham (2006) recommended that both the partnering organizations and the partnership themselves plan for and articulate the value creation they hope to gain through the process of partnering, including opportunities to capture value. In addition,

partnerships should develop a system for measuring value creation and capture a priori and adjust that system as needed. This system should not be a narrow lens, but rather more "holistic" in nature (p. 188). Finally, she offered recommendations for organizations considering collaborating for the first time or for partnerships already into the process. These recommendations were consistent with the literature on collaboration in the social sector.

Birmingham's study applied the value creation and capture concepts to the partnerships between universities and NGOs; this application of traditionally business and economic concepts to the social sector was a valuable step in realizing the benefits of collaborative efforts. The methodology was appropriate for answering the research questions and the sample of participants offered a wide range of perspectives from which to draw data. The attrition rate between both sets of interviews was negligible, which added credibility to the longitudinal aspect of the study.

In summary, the research base on principal preparation reform is growing and school-university partnerships have been the focus of some of that inquiry. Much of that research has focused on the internal outcomes of those partnerships. The value that was created for partnering organizations has not been examined. Specifically, how stakeholders create value through school university partnerships for their own organizations has not been studied. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to determine the following:

- How do stakeholders engaged in school-university partnerships create value for their own organizations?

- How do stakeholders capture value from the school-university partnership beyond the value they intended to create?

Further exploration of the nature of partnerships and collaboration among organizations was warranted to contextualize this study. A broad look at collaboration, both in and out of the education sector, will provide additional insight into the study of school-university partnerships and will contribute to the study's conceptual framework.

Partnerships, Alliances and Collaboration

School-university partnerships were one type of collaborative effort that has developed over the past few decades; however collaborative efforts are present in nearly all areas of society (Austin, 2000a; Doz & Hamel, 1998; Gray 1989; Linden, 2002). A discussion of the literature associated with such collaboration is offered here.

Relevant definitions. Defining collaborative ventures was not easily done, as many definitions and conceptualization existed in the literature. For example, these collaborative efforts were defined as alliances (Doz & Hamel, 1998; Austin, 2000a), joint ventures (Doz & Hamel, 1998), partnerships (Austin, 2000a; Miller, Devin & Shoop, 2007; Ravid & Handler, 2001), cross-sector partnerships (Austin, 2000a), consortia (Gray, 1989) and collaborations (Gray, 1989; Linden 2002). For the purposes of this study, the term partnerships will be used to refer to all such collaborative efforts, while the terms collaborating or partnering will be used to refer to the actions of such partnerships.

In addition, the literature framed the conversation about partnerships in multiple ways, but all conceptualizations could generally be viewed through two broad lenses: partnerships as entities and partnerships as processes. Authors gave consideration to the

structure and manifestation of the partnership as an entity, as well as the collaborative processes that such entities undertake and manage (Austin, 2000a; Devin & Shoop, 2007; Doz & Hamel, 1998; Gray, 1989; Linden, 2002; Miller, Ravid & Handler, 2001).

Why collaborate? Partnerships were becoming more prevalent in today's society for a variety of reasons. Some reasons were societal in nature and purpose while others were rooted in the realities of the economic milieu. Austin (2000a) outlined the "collaborative imperative" (pg. 7) as one driven by both macro level and micro level forces. Macro forces included the political view that government cannot solve all of our problems, the economic need to reign in government spending, and the social reality that problems were more complex. Austin (2000a) also noted the "inescapable interdependence" among organizations, businesses and governments and the "synergies" such interconnectedness creates (pg. 7).

Doz & Hamel (1998) outlined several conditions and dynamics in society that made partnerships essential including: (a) opportunities in the information age required the fusing of skills and resources that single entities did not have; (b) revolutionary changes were occurring in network, not hierarchical form; and (c) uncertainty inherent in the economy allowed partnerships to use their complementary strengths and accelerated learning. Linden (2002) noted that collaboration was driven by the complexity of the challenges we face (e.g., global warming, economics globalization, poverty), the blurring of boundaries among organizations, the move toward networked structures, the pace and scope of technological advances, and the public's demands for performance.

Gray (1989) claimed that partnerships were simply a more viable means to solving conflicts in society and advancing shared visions, especially when centered on

controversial problems involving numerous constituencies. Gray (1989) asserted that partnerships emerge:

- as a response to uncertainty and globalization;
- as a means of producing collective capacity;
- because of economic and technological change;
- through the blurring of boundaries between businesses, government, and labor;
- because of decreased governmental funding; and
- from a decrease in satisfaction of the judicial process for solving problems.

Purpose of collaboration. The imperatives for collaborating varied, as did the purposes or intended goals for partnerships. Doz and Hamel (1998) outlined three distinct purposes (or types) of partnerships. The first purpose was co-specialization in which two or more organizations engage in collaboration to take advantage of the specialized skills of each organization because neither organization could accomplish the goal on its own. For example, a jet engine developer may collaborate with an airframe manufacturer to develop a new, fuel efficient aircraft because neither company could create the product on its own.

The second purpose was co-option in which one company engages in a partnership to gain market share or take the other company out of the partnership marketplace (Doz and Hamel, 1998). For example, a microchip manufacturer collaborates with another microchip manufacturer to gain market share directly or to prevent that manufacturer from gaining market share by teaming up with other smaller competitors. In addition, one company can co-opt another company to gain exclusive

access to a new technology, process, or skill in order to prevent other companies from doing the same (Doz & Hamel, 1998).

A third purpose is organizational learning. In this type of partnership, two organizations work together so that each may learn about the other to enhance their own organization's learning and capacity (Doz & Hamel, 1998). For example, Japanese and American car manufacturers would work jointly to build a vehicle with the intended purpose of the American company learning about Japanese quality control processes and the Japanese company learning about labor-management relations and collective bargaining.

Gray (1989), whose work on collaboration focused heavily on collaboration as a problem solving approach for controversial problems, outlined the purposes of partnerships as, "Collaboration is a process through which parties who see different aspects of a problem can constructively explore their differences and search for solutions that go beyond their own limited vision of what is possible" (p. 5). Through this process she hoped partnerships would achieve the dynamics of collaboration, specifically (a) interdependences of the parties involved, (b) solutions based on dealing constructively with differences, (c) joint ownership of decisions, d) stakeholders assuming collective responsibility for any future direction, and (e) an understanding that collaboration is an emergent process (Gray, 1989, p. 13-14). Linden (2002) believed partnerships were flexible and important tools for gaining results, responding to the changing context of the world, and providing "better service, value and outcomes for customers, stakeholders, and communities" (p. 6).

Design and implementation of collaborative partnerships. The design and implementation of collaborative partnerships has been outlined in a variety of ways, but the process was generally framed as either a timeline over which partnerships evolved through stages and/or a set of features essential to forming and sustaining partnerships (Austin, 2000a; Doz & Hamel, 1998; Gray, 1989; Linden, 2002). The authors asserted that partnerships progress and grow over time and through identifiable stages or phases, referred to as time periods in this study. In addition, the authors identified critical features that must be present for partnerships to be successful (Austin, 2000a; Doz & Hamel, 1998; Gray, 1989; Linden, 2002). As outlined in previous sections, each author approached partnership design and implementation from a different viewpoint or purpose, so the timelines and key features were understandably varied. However, clear themes about the nature of partnership design and development did emerge.

The following is a synthesis that articulates these common themes by connecting the critical features to the time periods through which partnerships evolve. Although critical features of partnerships were linked to these time periods, it should be noted that such a connection is done only for the purposes of highlighting the common themes that emerge among the authors. It should not be assumed that these critical features only occur during the time period with which they are linked, but rather some features can be evident and important to multiple time periods. For example, developing a shared vision was linked by the authors to the early period of any partnership, but shared visions can be altered during later periods of a partnership if the original conditions change. The synthesis of the time periods and the critical features to describe the design and implementation of partnerships is summarized in Table 2 below.

Early period. Austin (2000a), who primarily focused on cross-sector partnerships between business and non-profits, outlined the process of collaboration in partnerships by using a "collaboration continuum" to create a sense of degree for collaboration (pg. 19). At the philanthropic stage of partnerships, the relationship of the business to the non-profit was that of charitable donor to benefactor. For example, the business makes a yearly donation to a non-profit and announces the donation at a press event. Austin (2000a) noted that in order for partnerships to succeed, key stakeholders who have the authority to vector time, money and energy into the partnership must be present and invested at the partnership's inception. In addition, an alignment of mission, strategy, and values must occur between partners in the early period of partnering (Austin, 2000a).

Where Austin's collaboration continuum focused on the stages of development being characterized by the degree of relationship, Doz and Hamel (1998) focused on a more linear sequence of partnership design and development. First, partners should conceive or deliberately set the scope for the partnership and then secure compatibility between the organizations. Similar to Austin (2000a), Doz and Hamel (1998) noted that a common scope and mission must be determined from the outset, but furthered stressed that each partner's contributions to (what one gives) and benefits from (what one gains) the partnership should be clearly outlined, especially when contributions may be unequal.

Gray (1989) defined the early period in a partnership as the problem setting phase (p. 56). Because this framework focused on partnerships as a means of solving controversial problems rather than creating a profit or product, this phase is especially critical to partnership success. She stated that a critical feature of this early period of partnership development must include a gaining of commitments from the parties

involved (Gray, 1989). This is somewhat different from Austin (2000a) and Doz and Hamel (1998) in that Gray (1989) believed one must gain commitments from not only those with authority and resources (e.g., federal government, municipalities, large corporations), but also those stakeholders that held minimal power but could be positively or negatively affected by the partnership's work (e.g. residents, environmental organizations). This inclusive process was a means of legitimizing all stakeholders who have the capacity to participate in the partnership (Gray, 1989).

Finally, Linden (2002) identified the early period in a partnership as the courtship phase (p. 170), when certain basic features must be secured. Similar to previous authors, he articulated the need to get key stakeholders to the table and to develop a shared purpose. Building on these key features, he further emphasized the need to create a sense of urgency as well as identifying a strong, committed "champion" of the partnership (p. 85).

Middle period. Austin (2000a) defined the transactional stage of partnerships as when the non-profit and the business exchange resources in some way. For example, the business not only donates money to the non-profit, but also has its employees serve as volunteers at the non-profit organization throughout the year. In exchange, the non-profits assist the business with building the company's image as a community based business. A critical feature to consider for this stage is the need to start partnerships small and then grow them. The limited relationship between partners was inherent to the earlier philanthropic stage, but when partners move into the transactional stage and begin expanding and integrating their mission and actions, a measured and incremental approach was recommended (Austin, 2000a). Even more critical was the need to build

personal connections and relationships within and between the partnering organizations; these connections and relationships were what binds the partnerships together as they grow and integrate (Austin, 2000a).

Doz and Hamel (1998) focused on critical features associated with the design and initiation steps of partnership development. Significant attention should be given to designing an appropriate "interface" (p. 120) between partner organizations. The interface was described as the areas of operations included in the partnership, the governance mechanisms that would guide the operations, and the personnel, communications and work processes to be used. In essence, this is the "who, what, when, where and how" of the partnership's work. In addition, Doz and Hamel (1998) stressed the need to have measures and mechanisms in place to chart the progress of the partnership so that adjustments could be made to ensure partners continued to receive the intended benefits outlined in the earlier period.

Gray (1989) defined several key features to the direction setting phase (p. 74) of the partnership. First, the partnership must organize and plan its approach to the problem including setting agendas, establishing ground rules, and organizing subcommittees. Second, the partnership must obtain the necessary information to be effective, including a grasp of technical information not always easily understood by all stakeholders. Finally, the partnership must develop options, analyze those options, and decide of a course of action (Gray, 1998). Again, unlike Austin (2000a) and Doz and Hamel's (1998) organizational frameworks, Gray's focus was on solving a problem shared by many constituencies, so the focus here was on developing options with stakeholders who could not necessarily contribute to their implementation.

In the middle period, Linden (2002) advocated that the partnership develop and maintain an open and credible process. Similar to Gray's legitimizing of stakeholders and planning for the work, this open process should be jointly owned and transparent and should result in ground rules and agendas (Linden, 2002). Also critical in Linden's framework was the need to develop and sustain relationships within the partnership; these relationships created an open, trusting and honest dialogue that produced a sense of "entity" among the stakeholders (Linden, 2002, p. 95).

Late period. Austin (2000a) termed the late period of a partnership implementation the integrative stage, when the two organizations engaged in significant collective action and organizational integration. This stage was characterized when the individual purposes, organizational structures, and outcomes of the partnering organizations became more tightly intertwined with one other. For example, key executives from each organization served on each other's board of directors, and joint value was created by the joint work (Austin, 2000a). Critical to this stage was creation of value for each partner; visible and calculable gains must be present for each organization. In addition, the culture of each organization was affected by the culture of its partner, including what was learned through the joint mission and work (Austin, 2000a).

Doz and Hamel (1998) identified the objectives of partnerships in late period as managing the partnership over time and building collaborative advantage through the partnership. They stated that managing the partnership was a complex undertaking that required effort as well as continued value creation for partner organizations. As noted by Austin (2000a), to be successful, key stakeholders in the partnership must continue to learn. In Doz and Hamel's framework, key stakeholders must learn about the operational

environment, the tasks to be performed, the collaborative process, their partner's skills, and the emerging goals of the partnership. This acquired knowledge led to cycles of reevaluation and readjustment (Doz & Hamel, 1998). In addition, partnerships must build collaborative advantage by ensuring specific conditions existed in the partnership including (a) having committed and flexible participants, (b) building capacity for a constructive dialogue and quality communication, (c) ensuring continuity of personnel and accumulation of experience, (d) anticipating tensions, and (d) exercising executive oversight (Doz and Hamel, 1998).

Gray (1989) designated the late period in partnerships as the implementation phase. This phase involved dealing with constituencies and building external support prior to and during implementation. In essence, gaining approval from within and without was important. Similar to Austin (2000a) and Doz and Hamel's (1998) frameworks, Gray (1989) asserted that key considerations during implementation included identifying the required resources, managing the process over time, and evaluating the results. Failure to meet the intended outcomes would likely result in renegotiation and a return to the work completed in earlier stages of the process (Gray, 1989).

Linden (2002) identified the late period of a partnership as the leaving a legacy phase. In this phase, as noted by Austin (2000a) and Doz and Hamel (1998), members of each organization learned from the members of the other organizations; this promoted both individual and organizational growth. Further, successful collaborative partnerships often served as a catalyst for other collaborative ventures (Linden, 2002).

Table 2: Periods of Collaboration Design and Implementation

	Austin, 2000a	Doz & Hamel, 1998	Gray, 1989	Linden, 2002
Early Period	Philanthropic Stage	Conceive and Secure Compatibility	Phase I: Problem Setting	Phase I: Courtship
	Involve "alliance authorizers" Align of mission, strategy, and values	Define common scope and mission Determine contributions and benefits	Gain commitment of parties Legitimize stakeholders Obtain adequate resources	Have shared purpose Get right people at the table Ensure the initiative has a "champion"
Middle Period	Transactional Stage	Design and Initiate	Phase II: Direction Setting	Phase II: Getting Serious Phase III: Commitment
	Build small, then grow Develop personal connections and relationships	Design appropriate interface Measure progress	Organize and plan Gather information Develop options and decide	Have an open, credible process Form and sustain relationships
Late Period	Integrative Stage	Manage and Learn Over Time and Build Advantage	Phase III: Implementation	Phase IV: Leaving a Legacy
	Create value Learn from partners	Manage over time Anticipate tensions Create and capture value	Structure for implementation Build external support Monitor for compliance	Learning occurs across organizations Build other collaborative efforts

Critical to this study was the conceptualization of value as an outcome of school-university partnerships. As noted by authors above, collaboration of any type was designed to produce measureable and observable outcomes of value that could not have been obtained by each partnering organization functioning on its own. Therefore, value in the literature will be addressed.

Value in Context: Toward a Conceptual Framework

Value creation was a conceptualization that has been applied to the field of economics and discussed in terms of profits, inputs, outputs, price, and supply and demand. The term has been applied more broadly to the fields of sociology, ecology, strategic management, organizational theory, human resources management, psychology, and organizational behavior. In addition, the concept of value creation has been viewed through various theoretical lenses in business and human resource management (Lepak, Smith & Taylor, 2007).

Lepak, Smith and Taylor (2007) recognized the difficulty in even defining value creation and the related concept of value capture. They illustrated that definitions of these two concepts vary because they existed in many contexts and at many levels. For example, the concept of value creation in the human resource field when examined at the individual level differed significantly to value creation in the business field when examined at the organization level. This multidisciplinary application of the concepts has created confusion. In addition, value creation and value capture were terms that have been used interchangeably in the literature (Lepak, Smith & Taylor, 2007). Therefore it is critical to define and illustrate the concepts of value creation and value capture within the context of this study.

First, various conceptualizations related to value in the business sector were presented as well as the relationship between those conceptualizations. This was not meant to be an exhaustive exploration of value in the business sector context, but rather a starting point for discussing value in the context of collaboration. Second, conceptualizations of value were explored through the lens of collaboration and in the context of partnerships as these concepts were studied together. The result of this examination was offered as part of the conceptual framework for studying value creation and value capture in school-university partnerships engaged in principal preparation.

Value in the business context. Value in the business sector can be illustrated through several key conceptualizations and the relationship between those conceptualizations. Each of these concepts and the relationships could be discussed in an exhaustive manner using literature from the business sector. However the goal of this part of the literature review was to provide a foundation for the discussion of value in the collaboration context.

Value sources were creators of value (usually in the form of a product or service) and were individual or organizational in nature; in essence sources were businesses (Lepak, Smith & Taylor, 2007). Value targets were those for whom value was created by the value sources. In most business models, the value source and value target are the same; businesses seek to gain as much value (usually defined as profit) as they can for themselves. The more value they create, the more profit they can gain (Lepak, Smith & Taylor, 2007).

Another key conceptualization of value in the business sector was value capture. Value capture was achieved when a product or service is exchanged for money and that

money was distributed through the value creation process. Ideally, a business should capture as much value as possible from the product or service that was exchanged. In this line of thinking, the exchange value (price) should be appropriate to the perceived use value as to convince a purchase by the consumer and that price should not exceed the cost of production (Lepak, Smith & Taylor, 2007).

Each of these value concepts can be applied to partnerships regardless of the partnering organizations (e.g., businesses, non-profits, educational institutions, non-governmental organizations, charities). The conceptualizations of value in the context of partnerships can be viewed more holistically and will be discussed through the lens of collaboration.

Value in the partnership context. Several authors have studied collaborations in various forms and have addressed value as it relates to collaborative work (Austin, 2000a; Doz & Hamel, 1998; Gray, 1989; Linden, 2002). These authors illustrated that value was created through the act of partnering and through the partnerships themselves. They viewed value sources more broadly than was outlined in the business context above. Value sources and value targets could be individuals, groups, organizations, or society at large (Austin, 2000a; Doz & Hamel, 1998; Gray, 1989; Lepak, Smith & Taylor, 2007; Linden, 2002). For example, a governmental body, a citizens' advocacy group, and an environmental non-profit could work in partnership to create a waste management solution that generated revenue for the government, protected neighborhoods from pollution, and improved the habitat for a native fish species.

When viewed through the collaboration lens, value creation can be broadly described in terms of benefits (Austin, 2000a; Doz & Hamel, 1998; Gray, 1989; Lepak,

Smith & Taylor, 2007; Linden, 2002). In the literature, the benefits of partnering were measured with traditional metrics such as increasing cost savings, eliminating redundancies, developing unique products or services, co-opting potential competitors, and increasing market share. However, the benefits of collaboration have also been measured with metrics such as developing personnel, creating synergistic solutions, increasing learning in organizations, solving controversial social problems, and diffusing benefits to society (Austin, 2000a; Doz & Hamel, 1998; Gray 1989; Lepak, Smith and Taylor, 2007; Linden 2002). This much broader view of benefits is integral to the non-profit, education, and philanthropic arenas.

As noted above by Lepak, Smith and Taylor (2007), value creation and value capture were defined differently and were often used interchangeably in the literature. They defined value capture as the process of securing value that has been created. Doz and Hamel (1998) defined value capture as value that is created beyond the original intent of the value sources. Value capture was a more indirect accrual of value rather than a planned outcome; however Doz and Hamel (1998) still asserted that capturing value was an active process. As noted above, Austin (2000a), Linden (2002) and Gray (1989) discussed value creation in various forms; however none of the authors specifically articulated value capture as a separate concept.

For this study, a conceptualization of value in partnerships was offered to integrate the various concepts found in the literature regarding value creation and capture. Each of these conceptualizations had a loose parallel in the business context, and these pairings are noted in Table 3 below. The conceptualizations and terms listed below are not meant to be an exhaustive typology of value creation concepts, but rather a

framework for applying value creation and its related concepts to the examination of school-university partnerships.

Table 3: Value Concepts in Businesses and Partnership Contexts

	Value in the Business Context	Value in the Partnership Context
Value Source	Creator of value; could be an individual or organization; a business	The organizations engaged in a partnership; the partnership as a separate entity
Value Target	Entity for who value was created; in business; this entity is usually also the value source	Can be any entity or individual who captures value whether they are the intended recipient or not
Value Creation	The processes and products of a business's efforts that create profit	Benefits attained that were planned
Value Capture	The receipt of profits from an exchange of monies for a good or service	Benefits realized that were not planned in advance

Theoretical Framework

As outlined above, school-university partnerships were examined within the context of collaboration. Earlier in the literature review, the forces that drive collaboration, the purposes of collaboration, and the design and implementation of collaborative partnerships were examined. Value creation and value capture were discussed as outcomes of collaboration. These examinations were done from a practical viewpoint using literature from case studies presented by a variety of authors as well as literature from the business sector. At this point in the review, a theoretical view of collaboration will be discussed.

Theory in the Interorganizational Domain

Gray and Wood (1991) noted collaboration has been examined through case studies in a variety of settings, and those studies highlighted the "theoretical and practical importance of the topic, identified areas for research, and raised critical questions for theoretical debate and further empirical investigation" (p.5). Gray and Wood (1991) noted that well-developed theories of individual firms or organizations existed, but theory on inter-firm or interorganizational behavior and relationships was very limited. They sought to expand existing theories of organizations into the interorganizational domain in an effort to develop a comprehensive theory of collaboration.

Applying organizational theory at the interorganizational level. The first step toward a more comprehensive theory of collaboration was expanding the use and analysis of organizational level theories out to the interorganizational level (Gray & Wood, 1991). Gray and Wood did so by analyzing nine research articles that used six existing theories of organizations and expanding the focus of those theories to the interorganizational domain. The theories, which were applied to a variety of sociological levels in the nine articles, were (a) resource dependence theory, (b) corporate social performance/institutional economic theory, (c) strategic management theory/social ecology theory, (d) microeconomics theory, (e) institutional theory/negotiated order theory, and (f) political theory (Gray & Wood, 1991, p. 7-10).

Gray and Wood (1991) developed research questions for study at the interorganizational domain level for each of the six theories that had been used at the organization level. For example, in the strategic management/social ecology theoretical

perspective organizations ask, "How can firms reduce threats and capitalize on opportunities within their environment?" (Gray & Wood, 1991, p.8). The researchers applied this theory to the interorganizational domain by asking the question, "How do partners in alliances regulate their behaviors so that collective gains are achieved?" (p.8). They created questions that were at the interorganizational level for all six theories, and then used these new questions to analyze the nine studies included by the researchers.

Three critical issues for understanding interorganizational collaboration. As they examined these theories and their application to the interorganizational domain, they identified three key issues critical to understanding collaborative alliances.

- First, what are the preconditions that make a collaboration possible and that motivate stakeholders to participate?
- Second, what are the processes through which collaboration occurs?
- Finally, what are the outcomes of collaboration?

The authors then created a matrix that illustrated how each study contributed to the development of a more comprehensive theory of collaboration by addressing the issue of preconditions, processes and outcomes outlined above. For example, the articles that focused on strategic management/social ecology theory (Selsky, 1991; Westley & Vrendenberg, 1991) addressed the issue of preconditions for collaboration and outcomes of collaboration, but did not address the processes of collaboration.

Summarizing how each of the six theories contributed to the general theory of collaboration is not necessary for this literature review. However, the authors concluded that none of the theories offered a comprehensive model of collaboration as none fully addressed the issues of preconditions, process and outcomes. The authors indicated that

looking inductively across the articles identified "similarities and differences in the treatment of the preconditions, processes, and outcomes of collaboration" (Gray & Wood, 1991, p. 20). In summary, they noted the application of these organizational theories to collaboration in the interorganizational domain provided "partial—but insufficient—fuel for a general theory of collaboration" (p. 161).

One such theoretical perspective was negotiated order theory (Gray & Wood, 1991; Nathan & Mitroff, 1991; Wood & Gray, 1991). Applying negotiated order theory to the interorganizational domain contributed toward a theory of collaboration significantly in the areas of the precondition and processes of collaboration, but did less to illustrate the outcomes of collaboration (Wood & Gray, 1991). A closer look at negotiated order is necessary.

Negotiated Order Theory at the Organizational Level

The roots of negotiated order theory go back to the work of Anselm Strauss and others at the University of Chicago. Using negotiated order theory called "into question the structural-functional and rational-bureaucratic explanations of complex organizations" (Day & Day, 1977, p. 126) and offered a perspective in which informal processes ultimately shaped the formal processes and vice versa.

Strauss (1978) asserted that much of how an organization functioned was determined by a negotiated order that developed among the member and groups within the organization. These negotiated orders developed even though organizations had a variety of bureaucratic structures under which the people in those organizations function. In essence, the official rules were altered or even subverted by the unofficial agreements that developed among people in the negotiated order of the organization. Strauss noted

that not all the actions that occurred in an organization can be explained by negotiation and other forces did come into play in organizations such as "coercion, persuasion, manipulation and the like" (p. 235). Strauss asserted that negotiations always took place in social settings, and therefore all social settings had some form of negotiated order. He further stated that analyzing any social process should include an analysis of the negotiated order. Strauss noted that some orders are negotiated through formal means, such as collective bargaining sanctioned under the law, whereas other orders are developed through informal processes and agreements that could change frequently. Often analyzed in negotiated orders are the sub processes of negotiation (e.g., kickbacks, tradeoffs, compromising toward the middle, paying off debts) and the structural context within which negotiations occur.

The negotiations context. Adding clarity to the paradigm, Strauss (1978) referred to the negotiation context as the "structural properties entering very directly as conditions into the course of the negotiations itself" (p. 237-238). He outlined the eight structural properties of the negotiation context as

- the number of negotiators, their relative experience in negotiating and whom they represent;
- whether negotiations are one-shot, repeated, sequential, serial, multiple, or linked;
- the relative balance of power exhibited by the respective parties in the negotiation itself;
- the nature of the respective stakes in the negotiation;

- the visibility of the transactions to others; that is, their overt or covert characters;
- the number and complexity of the issues negotiated;
- the clarity of legitimacy boundaries of the issues negotiated; and
- the options to avoiding or discontinuing negotiation; that is, the alternative modes to action perceived as available (Strauss, 1978, p. 238).

Strauss (1978) further explained that the "specific negotiation context cannot be properly analyzed except in conjunction with a clear specification of the relevant structural context" (p. 243-244). In particular negotiation contexts, specific structural properties come into play as conditions affecting negotiations. Over time, some structural properties can cease to impact the negotiations while others can develop or emerge; the new combinations of structural properties create a new negotiations context. Strauss' negotiated order paradigm is illustrated in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Strauss's (1978) Negotiated Order Paradigm

Structural Context Larger and more encompassing than the Negotiation Context (p. 238); characterized by all possible constructs that could impact negotiations, and therefore is a lens for examining negotiations.							
Structural Properties Listed below, these are the specific elements of the structural context (p. 238). These can serve as a theoretical sampling from which possible permeations of the negotiated order can be derived (p. 244).							
Negotiators: Number, relative experience in negotiating, whom they represent	**Type:** One-shot, repeated, sequential, serial, multiple, or linked	**Balance of power:** Exhibited by the respective parties in the negotiation itself	**Stakes:** The nature of the respective stakes in the negotiation	**Visibility:** Visibility of the transactions to others; overt or covert characters	**Issues:** The number and complexity of the issues negotiated	**Legitimacy:** The clarity of legitimacy boundaries of the issues negotiated	**Options other than Negotiation:** The options to avoiding or discontinuing negotiation
Conditions The Structural Properties become conditions when they affect the negotiations; depending on the specific situation, some structural properties will come into play while other will not; these are fluid combinations (p. 243)							
Negotiations Context Created by the combination of Structural Properties that enter into the negotiations as conditions(as well as the saliency of such properties) and therefore affect the negotiations (p. 237-238)							

Strengths and weaknesses of negotiated order theory. When analyzing and critiquing the state of negotiated order theory, Day and Day (1977) noted that:

> Negotiated order theory downplays the notion of organizations as fixed, rather rigid systems which are highly constrained by strict rules, regulations, goals, and hierarchical chains of command. Instead it emphasizes the fluid, continuously emerging qualities of the organization, the changing web of interactions woven among its members, and it suggests that order is something at which members of an organization must constantly work…Organizations are thus viewed as complex and highly fragile social constructions of reality which are subject to numerous temporal, spatial, and situational events occurring both internally and externally. (Day & Day, 1977, p. 132.)

Day and Day (1977) further noted that in this perspective, power was not absolute but rather a concept that must be viewed in connection to other factors. Simply put, negotiated order was the "social context in which relationships are negotiated and renegotiated," and the social order was shaped through the interactions of its participants (Gray, 1989, p. 228).

Day and Day (1977) asserted that negotiated order theory could be used to make significant contributions to the study of organizations. As for the strengths of the perspective, the authors stated that negotiated order theory has pointed out the inadequacies of the purely rational-bureaucratic model espoused by Weber. The negotiated order perspective has added a subjective dimension to the study of real organizations by focusing on the informal interactions and structures within an organization and its subgroups. This is especially evident as the negotiated order perspective accounts for "temporality, the situational context of social action, and the important place of certain contingencies in determining the future course of events" (p. 133).

Day and Day (1977) also noted the theory had weaknesses that needed to be considered. They explained that the perspective has been built around a confined number of case studies within a single organizational domain (health services). They further noted that these studies tended to be descriptive in orientation and relied too heavily on the interpretations of the studies' participants. These two shortcomings may have resulted in the failure to "critically examine the hard realities of power and politics and the influence they exert upon the negotiative process" (p. 134).

Expanding Negotiated Order Theory to the Interorganizational Domain

As discussed earlier, Gray and Wood (1991) used several organizational theories and applied them to the interorganizational domain. One of those theories was negotiated order theory (Day & Day, 1977; Strauss, 1978). They translated the negotiated order theory from the organizational to the interorganizational domain by asking two questions: "How do alliances interact with institutional environments?" and "Are alliances shaped by institutional environments and vice versa?" (Gray & Wood, 1991, p. 141).

One application of negotiated order theory in the interorganizational domain. Wood and Gray (1991) focused on an analysis by Nathan and Mitroff (1991) that used negotiated order theory as a theoretical framework for a study at the interorganizational level. They conducted a case study in 1984 of food manufacturers' interorganizational work developing policies and procedures for dealing with crises related to food tampering.

They noted that "a negotiated order exists when organizations have jointly determined the terms of their future interactions with one another…by agreeing to the 'rules of the game' for their interactions with one another" (p. 164). As noted by Strauss

(1978), this negotiated order can emerge through both formal and explicit means (e.g., agreements, policies, laws) and informal or tacit avenues (e.g., personal contacts, unspoken arrangements, back-channel communications). Citing Day & Day (1977), Wood and Gray (1991) noted that a negotiated order can be impacted by new parties entering into the situation, and therefore the terms of a negotiated order were continually renegotiated, creating a new order.

Using literature on interorganizational relationships, the researchers noted that organizations could be placed in several categories within interorganizational domain ranging from a broad industry level (all food manufacturers) to action sets (organizations who respond to a specific crisis). It is within and among these categories of the interorganizational domain that a negotiated order develops and the agreed upon rules emerge, whether this occurred through deliberate planning or not. For example, negotiated orders may emerge at the industry level for promoting particular products or services while a different negotiated order could develop at the action set level for responding to problems. In addition, the authors noted that smaller negotiated orders may develop within the domain which fragments of the interorganizational negotiated order as a whole; therefore completely unifying the domain may not be possible (Nathan & Mitroff, 1991). The researchers recommended anyone looking at the interorganizational domain should look for multiple negotiated orders.

Preconditions of the negotiated order. When Nathan and Mitroff (1991) applied negotiated order theory to the interorganizational domain, the preconditions of collaboration emerged as the "need for organizations to achieve a shared understanding of and response to the problem" (Wood & Gray, 1991, p.144). This shared understanding

was developed in the problem setting phase of a project to develop procedures and policies related to a product tampering crisis. The interorganizational domain for product tampering included the food manufacturers, the police, the FBI, grocers, distributors, food brokers, health departments, the FDA, consumers, psychiatric experts, trade associations, and the news media (Mitroff & Kilmann, 1984). In this analysis, Nathan and Mitroff (1991) noted that many organizations within the domain were unable to determine when and how other groups would respond to a product tampering crisis or made incorrect assumptions about what they believed those responses would be. This created an overall confusion within the interorganizational domain, and the precondition for a new negotiated order was created when organizations realized the extent of the confusion.

Processes in the negotiated order. This led to the second consideration for collaboration in an interorganizational domain, the processes of collaboration. In Nathan and Mitroff's (1991) account, the process began with a common goal for all parties to agree on a negotiated order for product tampering crises. This process included a mapping of the fragmentation of the current order, defining roles that each organization would play in a crisis, and determining when each organization should enter the crisis response situation. They also noted that the process of creating a negotiated order can develop through less formal means such as interpersonal connections among members of different organizations. Finally, Nathan and Mitroff (1991) cautioned that "without a firm commitment to cooperation for everyone's mutual benefit other contingencies—or motivations related to engaging in interorganizational relationships—could easily override those of cooperation" (p. 178).

Outcomes of the negotiated order. Nathan and Mitroff's (1991) did not directly address the use of negotiated order theory to analyze outcomes of collaboration in the interorganizational domain. Some outcomes were implied in the study, such as bringing clarity to the interorganizational field and increasing effectiveness of responses, but no specific analysis using the theory was offered. As noted earlier, Gray and Wood (1991) identified this as the primary area of weakness when applying negotiated order theory to the interorganizational domain.

Summary

The review of the literature began with the confluence of conditions that led to principal preparation reform including the changing complexity of the principal's role, the perceived shortage of qualified candidates willing to take on the job, the expansion of degree programs offering leadership certification, and the rise in competition to traditional preparation programs. Next, the review was used to outline the reform initiatives and recommendations for principal preparation and to identify the school-university partnership as a vehicle that synthesizes these various reform recommendations.

In order to contextualize the study of school-university partnerships, the review of literature next addressed interorganizational collaboration with a specific emphasis on value creation and value capture in collaborative efforts. A closer look at the theory of collaboration in the interorganizational domain identified preconditions, processes, and outcomes of collaboration as lenses through which school-university partnerships could be viewed. In addition, negotiated order theory was selected as a theoretical framework that could be applied to the interorganizational domain of school-university partnerships.

Conceptual Framework

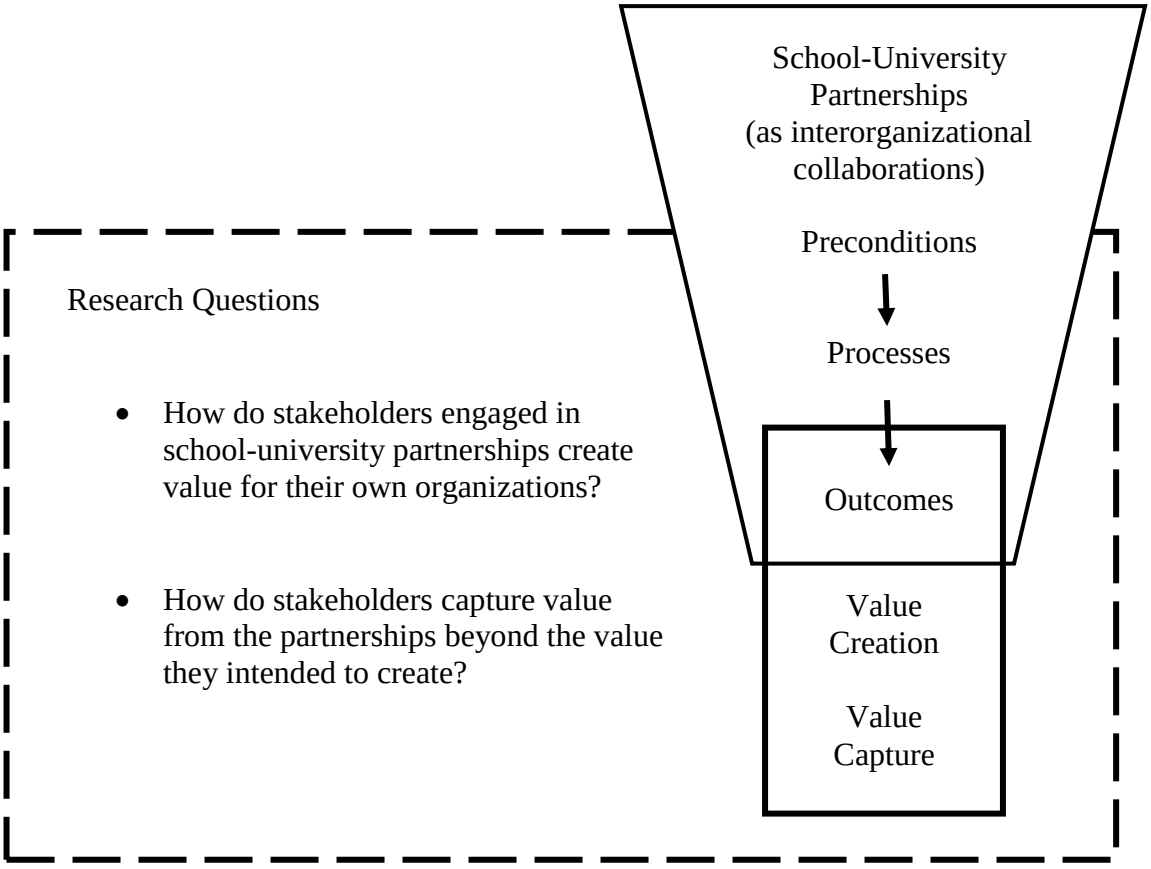
A conceptual framework for the study was created along two lines of thought. First, if school-university partnerships are heralded or even mandated as effective tools for developing school leaders, then what is known about them? This analysis was viewed through literature about the preconditions, processes and outcomes of such partnerships (Gray & Wood, 1991). A review of the literature to that end produced only limited empirical knowledge. Value creation as an outcome has been studied in collaborative partnerships (Birmingham, 2005), but not with school-university partnerships. Therefore the research gap for the study was identified.

The conceptual framework that guided the study was a combination of the negotiated order theory and the conceptualizations of value creation and value capture. Gray and Wood (1991) identified three key issues critical to understanding collaborative alliances. First, what are the preconditions that make a collaboration possible and that motivate stakeholders to participate? Second, what are the processes through which collaboration occurs? Finally, what are the outcomes of collaboration? They noted that negotiated order theory was instructive when examining preconditions and processes of collaborative alliances, but was less applicable when examining outcomes. Therefore, to better guide the study of school-university partnerships, the outcomes of collaboration were operationalized using the concepts of value creation and value capture.

The conceptual framework guided many aspects of the study including: (a) the design of interview, document analysis, and observation protocols; (b) coding process and codes; (d) lines of analysis and interpretation; and (e) the organization of findings, interpretations and recommendations. While there were significant benefits in using such

a conceptual framework, there were also limitations. Most critically, the framework may have overshadowed the opportunities for inductive analysis of the data. As Creswell (2007) noted, "the logic that a qualitative researcher follows is inductive, from the ground up, rather than handed down entirely from a theory or from the perspectives of the inquirer" (p. 19).

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework



Chapter 3: Methodology

Overview

This inquiry was a multiple case study investigating value creation and value capture in organizations engaged in school-university partnerships. The study was guided by a Constructionism epistemology because interpretations of how organizations gained value were sought from interview participants, documents and observations. The theoretical framework for the study was negotiated order theory.

The following research questions guided this study:

- How do stakeholders engaged in school-university partnerships create value for their own organizations?
- How do stakeholders capture value from the school-university partnership beyond the value they intended to create?

Epistemology

Constructionism is "the view that all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context" (Crotty, 1998, p. 42). Humans construct meaning, but they have a world with which to engage; the world and its objects and phenomenon are partners with humankind in constructing meaning (Crotty, 1998). Constructionism states that because multiple meanings can be ascribed to the same object or phenomenon, then there are no true or valid interpretations of the object or phenomenon. Some interpretations are more useful, more widely accepted, or are more liberating, but none is more true or valid than the other. Using Constructionism as a paradigm of inquiry, this

study sought interpretations from key stakeholders as they engaged in the work of school-university partnerships for the purpose of preparing future principals and administrators.

Theoretical Framework

The study was informed by the literature on interorganizational collaboration; the preconditions, processes, and outcomes of collaboration were central to this study of school-university partnerships. Specifically, negotiated order theory was used as the theoretical framework for studying the research questions (Strauss, 1978). This theoretical perspective served as a tool for inquiry and analysis of the preconditions, processes and outcomes of the interorganizational domain of school-university partnerships with a specific focus on value creation and capture.

Research Procedures and Design

Multiple case study methodology. This study examined how stakeholders in organizations involved in school-university partnerships created value for their organizations. The research focused on the how and why of these partnerships within an existing context. This research focus was best served using a multiple case study methodology. Case study "involves the study of an issue explored through one or more cases within a bounded system (i.e., a setting, a context)" (Creswell, 2007, p. 73). According to Yin (2009) case study is the preferred methodology when "(a) 'how' and 'why' questions are being posed, (b) the investigator has little control over the events, and (c) the focus is on contemporary phenomenon within a real life context" (p. 2). The strength of case study research is that it allows researchers to study holistically and maintain the characteristics of real-life events (Yin, 2009). Multiple case study designs create evidence that is considered more compelling and robust, and the overall study is

viewed as stronger in design than single case studies (Yin, 2009). In addition, multiple case study design can show several perspectives on the topic of inquiry (Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2008). These three partnerships were studied from a between-site perspective by looking for similarities and differences in data related to the preconditions, processes, and outcomes of each partnership. The three school systems all partnered with the same institution of higher education. Accordingly, the partnerships were studied using a within-site perspective within the institution of higher education as it engaged with the three local school systems (Creswell, 2007).

Sampling. Three school-university partnerships were identified for study. As noted earlier, each school-university partnership was composed of one college and one local school system working together to prepare future school administrators. However, the three partnerships involved different local school systems but they partnered with the same college. The sample was purposefully selected to provide multiple perspectives and allow for both within- site and between-site analyses. The review of the literature did not yield any studies using a sample composed of three school-university partnerships that paired the same institution of higher education with three different local school systems; therefore a study of this type of sample was unexplored.

The college and local school systems will be referred to by pseudonym throughout the case study report (i.e., Samuel College, Bernard School System, George School System, and Douglas School System). Participants will be identified only by the institutional pseudonym and a numerical designation (e.g., George 1, Douglas 4, Samuel 3). Many participants held dual roles as related to the study. For example, some participants were adjunct instructors with the college and principals with the school

systems. In other situations, participants had only one role, which if identified in the case study report, would reveal the identity of the person who participated in the study. Therefore, in the interest of maintaining confidentiality, the institutional pseudonym and a numerical designation will be used for all participants.

Access to all institutions was obtained for the study. The majority of the interviews were conducted from June 2012 to March 2013. The snowball sampling technique proved effective because saturation was reached at all institutions but one. At the conclusion of each interview, participants were asked to identify key stakeholders in either their institution or the college who would be able to offer valuable insight into the partnerships. Saturation was reached when participants in each institution could no longer identify potential interviewees who were different than those people who had already participated. No new participants were identified at Samuel College or in either the George or Douglas School Systems. One potential participant was identified by stakeholders in the Bernard School System, but he declined to be interviewed because of his schedule.

In total, 24 participants were interviewed from among the four institutions. Six participants were initially identified because of their roles in the organizational hierarchy of the partnerships. Because a snowball sampling technique was used, the remaining 18 participants were identified when the initial participants identified key people who would have knowledge of the partnerships and could offer data that would inform the research questions. Table 5 below shows the number of participants in the study from each institution.

Many participants in the study had dual roles and therefore offered two or more perspectives on the partnership. For example, one participant served as an adjunct instructor in both the Samuel College campus program and a Samuel College partnership while also serving in the upper administration of one of the school systems. This participant could draw on a variety of experiences to offer three different perspectives related to the study. Therefore this person was listed as a participant, but contributed three perspectives to the totals listed below. A participant was also considered to have multiple perspectives when his/her role changed during the time she was involved in the partnership. For example, a principal who served as an adjunct instructor and was then promoted into a human resources position would be viewed as having three perspectives: principal, adjunct instructor, and human resources administrator. Notably, several participants in this study could speak to their experiences as adjunct instructors in both the campus program and the partnership programs. These multiple perspectives are shown numerically in Table 5. The total number of perspectives that participants offered in the study was 55.

Table 5: Distribution of Participants and Perspectives in the Study

Organization	Participants	Perspectives
Samuel College	9	17
Bernard School System	4	7
George School System	6	16
Douglas School System	5	15
	Total Perspectives	55

Procedures. In alignment with the multiple case study approach, the study was designed to gather data from a variety of sources (Yin, 2009) including interviews, documents, and observations (Creswell, 2007). The procedures were designed to ensure

a systematic study of the research questions while still allowing a naturalistic approach to the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Data collection occurred in several phases. The first phase of the study involved collecting documents related to the three partnerships. The second phase of the study involved conducting interviews with key stakeholders in the three partnerships. Information derived from the documents collected in the first phase of the study helped inform the protocols used during interviews. Observation of key events in two of the three partnerships occurred in the second phase. The third phase focused on member checks of the findings. The final phase of the study involved the analysis of data and generation of the conclusions and recommendations for the study.

As data were collected, attribute coding (Saldana, 2009) was used to assign demographic, field setting, timeframe and data format information to the data source. The use of attribute coding allowed for efficient searches in the data analysis software which led to finding unanticipated patterns of connection (Bazeley, 2003) and locating evidence of hierarchy or connectivity among codes (Rubin & Rubin, 1995).

Interviews. Interviews were one of the primary data collection methods. Interviews engaged participants as conversational partners in an attempt to reconstruct key events in the history of the partnerships and to gain perspectives of key stakeholders (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Warren referred to interviews as "guided conversations" (2002, p. 85). The approach to interviewing for this study was semi-structured, allowing the interview to maintain topical coherence but still allowing for openness in the data collection (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). As Warren noted (2002), the constructionist epistemological underpinning of qualitative research make standardizing of research tools

such as an interview difficult because the goal is to determine each participants "distinctive meaning-making actions" (p. 86).

Initially, interviews were conducted with key stakeholders identified through the organizational structure of each partnership. A snowball sampling technique was used (Miles & Huberman, 1994), with initial interview participants being asked to identify other key stakeholders who would have information related to the research questions being studied and would be available to be interviewed.

In sum, these individuals were responsible for creating, managing or participating in the partnerships in some manner and had direct knowledge of the workings of the school university partnership within their own organizations, and thus offered credible information about the partnership. As Rubin and Rubin (2005) recommended, the participants were experienced and knowledgeable, offered a variety of perspectives, and created an overall view of the topic. An effort was made to ensure confidentiality and anonymity of participants by using pseudonyms. Further, a conscious decision was made not to identify the positions held by each participant because doing so would have likely revealed participants' identities.

Individual participants were contacted by email and informed of the goals of the study, the procedures to be used, and the time commitment required (see Appendix 2). Permission to conduct the interviews was obtained verbally from each of the participants using the informed consent process (see Appendix 1). Informed consent included information about the purpose of the research, the role of the researcher in the process, their rights as participants, and the steps taken to maintain confidentiality (Warren, 2002,

p.88.). Each interview was conducted at a time and location convenient for each participant and did not exceed 90 minutes in length.

An interview protocol was developed and interview questions were written with the theoretical framework and research questions in mind (see Appendix 3); however the interview design allowed participants to discuss the partnership very broadly to encourage participant generated themes to emerge as well (Creswell, 2007; Warren, 2002). The interview protocol gave consideration to the "linked stages" of an interview relationship as outlined by Rubin and Rubin (2002, p. 114-128). The interview protocol included main questions as well as prompts for probe questions and follow-up questions (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The protocol included all three questions types in an effort to ensure each interview provided depth of inquiry and rich data (Rubin & Rubin, 2002) while allowing for flexibility in the research process (Warren, 2002). In the event that multiple interviews were scheduled on the same day, pauses of at least 45 minutes were scheduled between interviews to allow the researcher to reflect on the initial data emanating from the interviews and to make any adjustments resulting from that analysis (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). A transcriptionist converted the audio recordings of interviews into transcripts within one week of submittal. This allowed an initial analysis of the data to occur while recollections of the interview were still fresh (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The 24 interviews produced 533 pages of transcripts, which were uploaded into Atlas TI data analysis software for use in the data analysis phase.

In an effort to maximize transcription quality, interviews were conducted in an acoustically favorable room, and each audio recording was obtained using a digital recorder. Each transcript was reviewed while playing the original recording and

comparing the text to any notes taken during the interview (Altheide, 1996). As Poland noted (2002):

> we can usefully focus our attention on the trustworthiness of transcripts as research data by examining how faithfully they reproduce the oral (tape) record, while also being mindful of the limitations of these media to portray the full flavor of the interview (p. 636).

Documents. The second method for data collection in the study was document collection. Documents provide "knowledge of the history and context surrounding a specific setting" and can portray "the values and beliefs of participants in that setting" (Marshall & Rossman, 2006, p. 107). For this study, documents were defined as a broad ranging category. (Lofland et al., 2006; Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Rapley, 2006). Forty-three documents (totaling 239 pages of content) related to the educational leadership program and its partnerships were collected during the course of the study. The documents collected from both the institution of higher education and the local school systems included the partnership descriptions, memos of understanding, advertisements, program overview, minutes of a planning meeting, meeting agendas, interest meeting presentations, course schedules, registration documents, admissions interview questions, admissions rubrics, educational leadership program handbook, mentor/intern handbook course assessment information, employment information and job descriptions, enrollment summaries, summaries of information from focus groups conducted with partnership students, program completer evaluations done by students, institutional summary of State Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA) data, longitudinal data for the SLLA, and a National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) recognition report.

Documents were reviewed using a protocol (see Appendix 4), as recommended by Altheide (1996). The protocol was a way to "ask questions of the document" in order to gain information that was "conceptually cogent" (Altheide, 2006, p. 26). As a result, the protocol utilized prompts for reviewing the documents and gathering relevant text or descriptions. The protocol included general information (date and time of collection, from whom and where it was collected), a brief description of its content, and information about its creation including time, manner, institution of origin, and purpose (Altheide, 1996). The researcher promptly conducted pre-coding and initial coding of documents (more specific information on approaches to coding is below).

Observations. Observation was the third data collection method employed in this study. Observations were conducted at events that were identified by interview participants as relevant to the school-university partnerships. Permission to attend, observe and collect data in the various settings was obtained through the informed consent process from the institute of higher education and the local school systems (see Appendix 5). Four observations were conducted during the study timeframe, three at Samuel College and one in the George School System. These events were an adjunct instructor orientation, an orientation for newly accepted students, an orientation meeting for current students beginning their educational leadership internship, and a graduate school welcome event. Data were collected from a variety of sources including the words of participants, the actions of participants, the setting itself, as well as any documents relevant to the situation (Lofland et al., 2006).

Lofland, Snow, Anderson, and Lofland (2006) noted that participant observation "refers to a process in which an investigator establishes and sustains a many-sided and

situationally appropriate relationship with a human association in its natural setting for the purpose of developing a social scientific understanding of that association" (p. 17). Lofland et al. (2006) explained that the investigator's degree of participation can range from direct experience, when the investigator is a full member of the association being studied and interacts and participates accordingly as an insider, to that of a non-member observer who does not engage with the setting. Dewalt and Dewalt (2002) ranged the investigator's role from *nonparticipation* to *complete participation* based on the investigator's degree of membership in the social setting, which ranged from *no membership role* to *full membership* respectively (p. 21). Both Lofland et al. (2006) and Dewalt and Dewalt (2002) noted that the investigator's role and level of distance or entanglement may change throughout the study. For this study, the investigator's role was that of non-member with little to no direct participation in the events.

To ensure consistent data collection during each observation, the researcher used an observation log designed to capture information central to the study as well as important logistical information (see Appendix 6). The observation log included key components that Lofland et al. (2006) identified such as (a) a list of general information (date, time, location, length of observation); (b) a notational key for distinguishing between participants; (c) a section to record ideas, hunches and feelings; (d) an area to address any error, bias or interpretive distortions; and (e) a place to make logistical notes or reminders.

The observation log also served as the researcher's field notes. Field notes are explicit note-organizing and note management strategies (Marshall & Rossman, 2006) designed to ensure systematic observation and reporting. Pre-coding and initial coding

was completed before memories of the observations degraded (Lofland et al., 2006; Rubin & Rubin, 1995).

Data collection and storage procedures. Data collected in digital forms from all sources were password protected and stored on a computer hard drive with a secure web-based backup. Digital data was backed-up onto thumb drives and stored in a locked cabinet. Any documents that were collected and any printed versions of digital information (e.g., transcripts, researcher's notes) were stored in the aforementioned locked cabinet. Data only available in print form was scanned into portable document format (.pdf) and stored on both the hard drive and the thumb drives. As described earlier, data items including transcripts, observation notes, and documents were coded using attribute coding that identifies information relevant to date, time, location, organization and source. Information such as the names of the organizations and participants or any other identifying information was redacted and replaced with pseudonyms prior to publication.

Data Analysis

Data collected from interviews, documents, and observations were coded and analyzed using the approach and procedures outlined below. However, in an effort to be open minded about the research questions and to honor the evidence generated during the study, the data analysis approach was subject to change including the types of data collected, the analytical procedures, and the types of coding, and analytical processes. Any such changes were done in accordance to Institutional Review Board (IRB) guidelines. As Saldana (2009) noted, coding is a "heuristic – exploratory problem solving technique without specific formulas to follow. Coding is only the initial step

toward an even more rigorous and evocative analysis and interpretation… (p. 7)." Therefore, this more open, naturalistic approach to the study was in line with qualitative inquiry approaches (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Rationale and general approach to coding. Data was pre-coded (Saldana, 2009) as soon as possible after collection. Saldana (2009) noted that pre-coding data from transcripts, documents, and field notes can occur by highlighting, circling, bolding and underlining key quotes or passages in the data. Because research was conducted over an extended period of time and memory of events, interviews, and other data sources could fade, pre-coding was done in Atlas Ti when impressions of the data were vivid and fresh.

Next, data was given preliminary codes as a means of beginning the analytical process. The use of initial coding was supported widely in the research as a way of ensuring an open ended approach to the data (Saldana, 2009). Initial coding allowed the researcher "to remain open to all possible theoretical directions indicated by [the] readings of the data" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 46). Initial coding was done using Atlas TI.

First cycle coding. After pre-coding and initial coding strategies were used, further coding of the data occurred in two broad cycles. However, coding was a cyclical act (Saldana, 2009) requiring many interactions with the collected data. Coffey & Atkinson (1996) cautioned that "coding should be thought of as essentially heuristic, providing ways of interacting with and thinking about the data. Those processes of reflection were more important ultimately than the precise procedures and representations that were employed" (p. 30). Therefore, first cycle coding involved multiple engagements with first cycle coding techniques.

During first cycle coding, several coding types were used to meet multiple coding purposes. First, initial coding was revisited in order to refine the preliminary nature of codes used when data were collected. Second, in vivo codes (Saldana, 2009; Strauss, 1987) were used to honor the voices of the participants in the study. Third, structural coding was used to highlight data that related to specific research questions (Saldana, 2009). Because multiple coding types were being used, the use of simultaneous coding was employed (Saldana, 2009).

Second cycle coding. Pattern coding (Miles and Huberman, 1994) was used as the second cycle coding method. Pattern codes helped the researcher find explanations in and make inferences from the entire data set and assisted with refining first cycle coded into a "smaller number of sets, themes, or constructs" (p. 69). This resulted in a more coherent synthesis and a more meaningful analysis (Saldana, 2009). The coded data was organized into broad themes in preparation for further analysis (Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2009).

Use of CAQDAS in data analysis. Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) was used to manage all data collected throughout the study. Specifically, Atlas TI was used in this study. Because all data was assigned attribute coding in the software, the attribute data was searchable by key words and phrases, by codes, by source institution, by data type, by quotation, etc. The software was the tool used for writing and organizing analytic memos throughout the research process. All memos were searchable and retrievable (Saldana, 2009).

Use of analytic memos. Analytic memos were the primary, although not the exclusive tool for analysis of the data during the research process. As Saldana (2009)

suggested, analytic memos were written for a variety of purposes. As the study progressed, the value of such memos became more evident. Memos were effective tools for sorting out many issues including (a) research questions, line of inquiry, or matters of theory; (b) code choices and functions; (c) emerging patterns, themes, connections; (d) problems with the study, ethical issues, and future directions; and (e) any patterns that emerged among memos. Of note, memos should have been used more regularly and deliberately from the beginning of the data collection and analysis phase.

Trustworthiness

Lincoln and Guba (1985) outlined four broad areas of consideration for building trustworthiness in a qualitative study: (a) truth value, (b) applicability, (c) consistency, and (d) neutrality (p. 290). They connected these qualitative concepts to the concepts of internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity that are found in quantitative inquiry. They asserted that qualitative researchers did not need to use traditional, quantitative criteria for validity and reliability as they would not be true to the epistemological foundations of qualitative inquiry. The criteria for trustworthiness provided by Lincoln and Guba (1985) are outlined below along with the specific approaches to be used in this study to address the qualitative criteria for trustworthiness.

Truth value and credibility. Lincoln and Guba (1985) stated that the subjects of study create multiple constructions of their context, and these multiple constructions constitute a reality. A qualitative researcher will have created truth value in a study if he or she has "represented those multiple constructions adequately" and his or her findings and interpretations are "credible to the constructors of the original multiple realities" (p. 296). Therefore, the operational focus of truth value is credibility. Credibility can be

achieved by the way the study is conducted (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This study used the following approaches to achieve credibility and therefore truth value: (a) prolonged engagement in the field, (b) triangulation of data methods, (c) triangulation of data sources, (d) member checking, and (e) reflexivity.

Prolonged engagement in the field. The first approach to building credibility was for the researcher to spend an extended amount of time in the field during the study. Prolonged engagement in the field allowed the researcher to learn more about the culture of the case to be studied, to test any misinformation or distortions originating from both the researcher and the participants, and to build trust and familiarity (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Extended study in the field allowed the researcher to (a) build rapport with participants; (b) identify and verify any patterns, themes or values (Krefting, 1991); (c) confirm patterns seen in relationships; and (d) understand why these relationships were occurring (Johnson, 1997). In addition, Creswell (2007) noted that engagement in the field over a long time will infuse the research with vitality. This case study occurred over a nine month period which allowed the researcher to build rapport and familiarity with stakeholders in each organization.

Triangulation of data collection methods. The next approach to ensuring credibility was triangulation of methods. Triangulation of methods created multiple data flows that could be checked and confirmed against one another (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In addition, triangulation reduced the chance that a single data source could distort the researcher's interpretations and conclusions (Krefting, 1991). Johnson (1997) noted that triangulating methods can help mitigate the weakness inherent in the various methods themselves. Yin (2009) asserted that having multiple methods of data collection was a

fundamental requirement in case study research as it creates "converging lines of inquiry" (p. 115).

As outlined above, the use of data from interviews, observations, and documents provided multiple sources of information for informing the inquiry and providing insight into the partnerships. For example (a) the interviews provide data about key stakeholders' perceptions, values, attitudes, and memories; (b) observations provided evidence related to actions and discourse; and (c) documents and media provided information the partnerships' stakeholders had made overt, visible, or public. However, Maxwell (2005) cautioned that these methods should not be viewed too narrowly in that each method can provide data beyond what is expected on the face. For example, unless participants were asked explicitly, interviews told me what a person *said*, not what they felt. Therefore, triangulation of these data sources was necessary when making any inferences during the study. The triangulation of data collection methods employed in the study built credibility.

Triangulation of perspectives. In addition to triangulating methods, Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommended researchers triangulate their data sources for the same reasons they would triangulate data collection methods. Simply put, multiple interviews were a broader set of perspectives than a single interview and conducting four observations provided more understanding of the setting than conducting one. Having multiple sources from a number of interviews or observations increased the range of data that was collected (Krefting, 1991), expanded the researchers' understanding of what is being studied (Johnson, 1997), and "shed light on a theme or perspective" (Creswell, 2007, p.

208). The range of data collected from multiple data sources were triangulated to build credibility in this study.

Member checking. Member checking is the process of having study participants review the interpretations, analytic categories, or conclusions to determine if they are reflective of participants realities (Krefting, 1991; Lincoln & Guba, 1985) or plausible (Merriam, 2007). Member checking can help clarify miscommunications or misconceptions that the researcher may hold (Johnson, 1997; Maxwell, 2005). Member checks can be both formal and informal and can occur at various stages of the research study including at collection of raw data, during development of themes and interpretations, and after the final report has been drafted (Krefting, 1991; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Yin, 2009). Creswell (2007) explained that he does not present raw data to participants, but rather he provides preliminary analyses with broad themes for them to review; his goal is to elicit their views and have them reflect on the accuracy of his account. Krefting (1991) cautioned that member checking can have unintended negative consequences if participants become troubled by the interpretations of the researcher, or if they limit their participating in the remaining portions of the study after reading some aspect of the researcher's findings. Maxwell (2005) cautioned that participant's feedback is "no more inherently valid than their interview responses"; they are both evidence of the validity of a researcher's account (p. 111).

For this study, member checks were conducted once themes were identified during the data analysis phase and the findings were drafted. Participants who appeared to have the widest knowledge base about the partnerships were selected for member checks of the findings. One participant from each of the three school systems and one

participant from the institution of higher education were selected. Participants who conducted member checks stated that the findings of the study were consistent with their experiences and perspectives, and were therefore believed to be credible. When provided, information gathered during member checks was integrated into the final report.

Reflexivity. Creswell (2005) defined reflexivity to be when "the writer is conscious of the biases, values, and experiences that he or she brings to a qualitative research study" noting that a writer typically "makes this explicit in the text" (p. 243-244). Johnson (1997) furthered this definition by framing reflexivity as an active process of inner reflection. The researcher must be aware of how his or her own background can impact a study. In quantitative studies, reactivity is when the researcher has an influence on outcomes, and the study's design often attempts to compensate or control for researcher influence (Creswell, 2005). However, Creswell asserted that the "goal in a qualitative study is not to eliminate this influence, but to understand it and use it productively" (p. 108-109). Because qualitative research occurs in a naturalistic setting, it is more important for the researcher to determine how he or she is influencing the participant and how this affects the validity of any inferences made (Creswell, 2005). In addition, Krefting (1991) explains that one's background and personal history are part of how one will make sense of the data gleaned during the study.

In this study, the researcher used audio and traditional field journals (Krefting, 1991) and analytic memos to maintain reflexivity. These journals, and the subsequent memos, were vehicles for working out a number of issues throughout the study including those centered on biases, methodology, analyses, and theory. In addition, the researcher

disclosed information about his background and its possible impact on the study in the Managing Bias section below.

Applicability and transferability. Lincoln and Guba (1985) presented an argument about the nature of generalization in regards to qualitative research. Generalization, a key feature of quantitative research methods, is the process of applying the statistical results from a sample to a larger population. In essence, if the result applies to the sample, then it can be generalized to the broader population if certain procedural and statistical condition were met (Johnson, 1997; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In naturalistic inquiry, however, the logic is different. Lincoln and Guba (1985) noted that generalization "is based on a conventional axiom that is rejected by the naturalist paradigm" (p. 297). At best, they note that a researcher can develop a working hypothesis that may be applicable from the sending context (the subject of a study) to a receiving context (a similar group). Stake (1990) referred to this approach as naturalistic generalization. However, the researcher does not know the receiving context and therefore cannot account for transferability; it is only the reader of the research who has enough information about their own receiving context to determine if transferability is appropriate and applicable (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Maxwell, 2005). The researcher's responsibility is to provide enough information about the sending context that readers can make determinations about transferability.

In addition to transferability, Yin (2009) explained that the results in a qualitative study (i.e., a case study) can be generalized, not to a population, but rather to "some broader theory" (p. 43). This generalization to theory is not automatic, and must be tested in multiple cases. This is a primary reason that this study included multiple

school-university partnerships to conduct a cross case analysis (Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2009).

Thick or dense description. To communicate to the reader about the sending context of this study, thick or dense description was used (Creswell, 2007; Krefting, 1991; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Dense background information and descriptive detail on the partnerships and the key stakeholders was available to the reader (Merriam, 2009). Merriam (2009) noted that thick description provided enough information about the "setting and participants of the study, as well as a detailed description of the findings with adequate evidence presented in the form of quotes from participant interviews, field notes and documents" (p. 227). Providing this type of detail was balanced against the requirement of keeping key stakeholders anonymous in the final research report.

Rich data. If thick description is a final goal of the qualitative researcher, then the collection of rich data is a prerequisite to that end (Maxwell, 2005). The use of longer interviews and observations accompanied by verbatim transcripts and extensive observation notes ensured enough rich data was available to create a thick description for the reader (Johnson, 1997; Maxwell, 2005). Johnson (1997) directs the researcher to use what she termed low-inference descriptors when reporting the data.

Consistency and dependability. Another component of building trustworthiness is developing consistency (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Reliability is the hallmark of consistency in quantitative studies and is achieved through replication of studies. In naturalistic, qualitative inquiry, dependability is the approach to achieving the consistency criterion (Krefting, 1991; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Lincoln and Guba (1985) further asserted that qualitative researchers can achieve dependability by meeting the

thresholds of credibility as outlined earlier. Triangulation, which was covered above, was the strategy whereby this is achieved (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Audit trail and methods description. Another approach to developing dependability is to describe the methods of data collection and its subsequent analysis and interpretation to demonstrate how repeatable the study would be (Krefting, 1991; Merriam, 2009). This audit trail is a "detailed account of the methods, procedures, and decision points in carrying out the study" (Merriam, 2009, p. 229). The audit trail for this study included the following categories (a) raw data including documents, interview recordings and transcripts, and observational notes; (b) products of analysis including analytic memos, themes generated from coding; and interpretation and findings; (c) methodological notes including those related to research design, sample, sites, procedures or protocols; and (d) trustworthiness notes including strategies used to build truth value, applicability, consistency and neutrality.

Code-recode. In addition, a code-recode strategy (Krefting, 1991) was used during the analysis phase of the study. Sections of raw data, such as an interview transcript, were coded and then set aside for at least two weeks. The raw data was then recoded, and the results of the recoding were compared against the first attempt. In response, some codes were consolidated and others were split into two, more precise codes.

Neutrality and confirmability. In quantitative research, objectivity is achieved by rigor of methodology (instrumentation and randomization) to create distance between the researcher and the subject of study thereby reducing influence on the study (Krefting, 1991). In qualitative inquiry, the researcher is the primary data gathering instrument and

the data collection occurs in the natural setting (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Objectivity, itself, is counter to the naturalistic paradigm, so neutrality is offered as a qualitative parallel. Neutrality is not achieved by emphasis on rigorous methodology, but rather by emphasis "on the data themselves" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 300). In essence, the researcher must illustrate that the data has confirmability. Confirmability, like dependability, can be achieved through the use of an audit trail, triangulated methods and sources and reflexivity as explained above (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Krefting, 1991).

Case study database. Yin (2009), in his book on case study design and methods, used the traditional quantitative term of reliability. He offered the development and use of a case study database as a strategy for addressing reliability (or neutrality from the naturalistic paradigm). In this study, a case study database was developed and maintained using the Atlas Ti software and included the following components as categorized by Yin (2009):

- case study notes related to interviews, observations and documents;
- case study documents collected during the course of the study; and
- narratives including analytic memos (p. 120-121).

Chain of evidence. Yin (2009) asserted that maintaining a chain of evidence will increase a study's confirmability. He noted that an external observer should be able to connect the path from the questions of inquiry through to the conclusion. The findings and conclusions of the study were supported by the raw data and other documentation contained in the case study database (Yin, 2009).

Managing Bias

Efforts were made to manage any potential bias and any negative impact such bias would have on the study. I was the primary instrument of the research, and as such, my experience was a valuable tool in the inquiry process (Maxwell, 2005). I was a teacher for nine years, served as an assistant principal for four years, and was an elementary school principal of nine years, so I had a personal perspective on principal preparation programs. I was employed by one of the school systems in the study. I received my Master's Degree in Educational Leadership in 2002 from the college examined in this research study. I later served there as an adjunct instructor in the campus program for seven consecutive semesters.

As a result of these connections, I had working knowledge of both the college and one of the school systems and some familiarity with each of the partnerships prior to conducting my research. My relationship with both institutions served as a source of bias during the study as I had many preconceived notions of what I would find during the study. However, I believe my methodology, protocols, and ongoing reflection allowed me to conduct the study with openness to all possible themes. Rather than assume what a vague or broad statement made by a participant meant, I took steps to clarify or restate what was said so the participant could confirm the meaning. I was concerned that I would assume what they meant because of my closeness to the topic or an institution. In the end, my knowledge of each institution allowed me to serve as a data gathering instrument and use my own experiences to guide and inform the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Human Subjects and Potential Ethical Issues

The risks of participating in the study were limited. All participants were fully aware of the voluntary nature of their participation, the research interest, and the scope of the study. The participants were aware that their institutions had approved the study. They were informed that in order to maintain confidentiality, pseudonyms would be used for participants in the study and the associated institutions. They were also aware that data collected in the study were stored in a manner to maximize confidentiality. Participants benefited from the study as it was a reflective for their partnering efforts. The future data and findings were also offered to each institution to provide feedback about the process, preconditions, and outcomes of their efforts, including specific feedback on value creation and capture.

Chapter 4: Findings

Overview

The purpose of this study was to determine how stakeholders engaged in school-university partnerships created value for their own organizations. Using the voices of key stakeholders, the documents originating from the partnerships, and observations of key events within the partnerships as data sources, the line of inquiry in this study focused on what each participating organization took away from the partnerships for their own organizations. This study examined each partnership, not with a singular focus on the partnerships themselves, but rather with a broader look at the partnerships' impact on the participating organizations.

Specifically, the study examined if and how stakeholders in each partnering organization created value for their own organization including how partners defined and measured such value. The study also explored whether and how partner organizations captured value separate from their planned outcomes. This line of inquiry was enriched by studying multiple cases, as the value created and captured by organizations varied across the cases.

This study employed value creation and value capture as a focus on inquiry into school-university partnerships engaged in the business of preparing future public school administrators. As a result, the following research questions guided the study:

- How do stakeholders engaged in school-university partnerships create value for their own organizations?
- How do stakeholders capture value from the school-university partnership beyond the value they intended to create?

The theoretical framework for the study was negotiated order theory within the context of the interorganizational domain, in this case, school-university partnerships. This theoretical perspective served as a tool for inquiry and analysis to examine the preconditions, processes and outcomes of the interorganizational domain of school-university partnerships with a specific focus on value creation.

Prior to a discussion of the findings, a description of the college and its partnerships is provided within a chronological framework. This background information serves as a context for later discussion of the findings. The descriptions of the partnerships and the chronology were synthesized using data from documents and participant interviews.

Description of Partnerships

Samuel College. Samuel College was a private, liberal arts institution in the mid-Atlantic region. The college's graduate program offered multiple degrees in education as well as other fields. The education department offered an educational leadership program as a traditional, campus based program (hereafter referred to as the campus program). The campus program included the master's degree in educational leadership as well as the 18-credit educational leadership certification program; both programs led toward administrative certification through the state education agency. Samuel College also offered the educational leadership programs through its three partnerships with the George, Douglas and Bernard school systems. These partnerships were the focus of this study.

In this mid-Atlantic state, students who obtained a master's degree from an institution accredited by the state's education agency were eligible for the first level of

administrative certification. If they passed the State Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA) they became eligible for the second level of administrative certification. Similarly, those students who already held a master's degree in an education field and obtained the 18-credit certificate in educational leadership were eligible for the first level of administrative certification by the state education agency. These candidates also obtained the second level of administrative certification by passing the State Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA). Samuel College required graduates of its master's degree and certificate programs to pass the SLLA as part of its graduation requirements; therefore all graduates of Samuel College's educational leadership program were eligible for the second level of administrative certification, which was required for being a principal in the state.

History of the Samuel College educational leadership program. The educational leadership program and the resulting partnerships were developed as part of a broader program development initiative in the 1990s. The initiative was led by a vice president at the college and was supported by both the provost and the college president. Program development occurred in many departments throughout the college, but significant development occurred in the education department. One addition to the graduate program in education was the educational leadership degree program.

Samuel College personnel made it clear that the business of preparing quality school administrators was a fundamental part of the graduate school's mission; high standards and high expectations were paramount. If they were going to develop an educational leadership program, they wanted it to be more than economically viable. They wanted it to be reputable and effective. Samuel College 4 shared some of the

perspective that guided the creation of the educational leadership program and, eventually, its partnerships:

> I think those of us in higher education always hope that we are giving value added when we see somebody come in at a certain level and we see them exit with increased skill sets and abilities. And you hope that by doing that that the next generation of people in a school [is] going to be impacted positively because that leader brings a certain perspective to shaping the culture of the school, the vision, the accomplishments, that type of thing. And I think for most of us that's kind of the intrinsic -- I mean that's the hope. I see them come in as first year students and probably no one claps louder when they graduate than I do because I see the difference at the end.

The first step in ensuring this quality program was hiring a capable and well-known program director who could build an educational leadership program of high quality based on national and state standards. The program director was a former superintendent of schools, had worked in multiple school systems in the state, and had received state and national recognition. He was also a consultant to the Educational Testing Service (ETS), the administering body of the State Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA). The new program director worked with faculty and adjunct instructors to build a performance based assessment system that spanned all courses and was driven by the Interstate Leaders Licensure Consortium Standards (ISLLC). In addition, a clear scope and sequence for targeting these standards was created for coursework in the master's and certification programs. He advocated that all students should be required to pass the State Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA) for program completion.

The first partnership. The program development initiative continued at Samuel College, and the graduate program in education grew quickly. As a next step, the college created a partnership with the Bernard School System for the educational leadership

degree. The college wanted to attract students from this very large school system to its program. The college personnel responsible for program development decided that travel distance to Samuel College might have kept students from enrolling in the campus program. As a result, the college offered the educational leadership program as a partnership with classes being offered in Bernard School System. The Bernard School System partnership grew steadily in its first few years and was still growing in 2013.

The second partnership. This success led to the creation of the George School System Partnership. Samuel College saw working with this smaller school system as another possibility for increased enrollment and expanding its program. The partnership offered only the certification program in educational leadership and was running successfully as of 2013.

NCATE accreditation. As the educational leadership program continued, enrollment increased on campus and in both partnerships. The college decided to undergo certification with the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). Samuel College 2 shared that NCATE accreditation was a critical evolution to validating the quality of the education program in general and the education leadership program specifically:

> [the college] president knew what a difference NCATE accreditation would have on the college itself. And we didn't have to go for NCATE [accreditation] at that point. It was required for colleges and universities at a certain size and enrollment. We were under that size and under that enrollment. We volunteered to do it. We were given a sales pitch on that by the provost and by the president, and they said, "We will support this financially and in any other way we possibly can, because we knew how valuable this would be to the college.

Turnover in leadership. Just before and directly undergoing the NCATE process, Samuel's educational leadership program experienced significant turnover at the

director's position. From 2006 to 2009 the program had five directors. Although participants were vague concerning the causes of transition, a variety of reasons for the turnover were offered including the pay was not attractive enough to retain a director, some directors moved to other opportunities, and some directors only intended to stay for a short period of time. Both college and school system personnel expressed concerns about the turnover and its impact on the program and it partnerships. Many participants felt the college eventually weathered this turnover. Samuel had created stability in the educational leadership program director position over the 2009-2013 timeframe.

The third partnership. Eventually, the Douglas School System and Samuel College decided to build a partnership. Douglas was the school system in closest proximity to Samuel. Many of the Douglas School System personnel were already serving as adjunct instructors on the college's campus program. This partnership began in 2009 and ended in 2012.

Bernard School System Partnership. Bernard School System was located in the mid-Atlantic region within short driving distance of the college. It was both the largest and first of the school systems that partnered with Samuel College, and courses began there in the fall semester of 2004. The partnership was led by a partnership coordinator from the Bernard School System who worked closely with the program director for educational leadership at Samuel. The partnership coordinator served as liaison with the college, completed a variety of administrative functions, coordinated the recruitment of adjunct instructors, and served as the academic advisor for students in the partnership.

Partnership structure. The partnership offered both a master's degree program and a certification program. Courses were delivered in a prescribed sequence, and

students took two courses in each of the fall and spring semesters and one course in the summer term. This model was viewed as accelerated because students matriculated more quickly than students who participated in the campus program. The Bernard Partnership used adjunct instructors from the school system (some of whom held doctoral degrees) who were recruited by the partnership coordinator or other adjunct instructors. A reduced tuition rate was negotiated with the school system. In essence, students received four graduate courses (12 credits) for the price of three courses (9 credits).

The school system provided multiple facilities free of charge to accommodate the course delivery. The school system also provided materials and instructional technology for course delivery at no cost to the college. In addition, the school system used its internal communication infrastructure (e.g., interschool mail, email, bulletin boards, meetings) to advertise the partnership program to its employees.

History of the partnership. This was the first partnership created and was led by three different partnership coordinators over the years. The partnership had been very successful in increasing enrollment and continued to grow through 2013. In the fall semester of 2012, seven cohorts were running simultaneously for a total enrollment of 116 students. Master's degree cohorts ran for three years while the certification cohorts ran for only two years. Historically, the partnership would start a master's and certification cohort each fall. However, in fall of 2012, the partnership began offering two master's cohorts and two certification cohorts simultaneously. At that time, the enrollment in the educational leadership program in the Bernard Partnership was almost equal to the enrollment in the Samuel College campus program.

It is important to note that the Bernard School System had its own long standing, two-year internal leadership development program. Once students graduated with their master's degree or certificate in education leadership, they were required to apply to Bernard's internal leadership program. Participants in the program had specific requirements to meet in order to continue to the next phase of the internal leadership program. Once participants achieved the requirements in both years of the program, they became eligible to apply to an administrative position within the Bernard School System. Bernard 2 noted

> [Bernard] is an interesting place to work. They don't depend on anybody else. And they're leery about trusting higher [education]. So in essence, they have developed a professional development program for perspective administrators in [Bernard] to train them over a two year period.

Neither the George nor the Douglas school systems had a similar internal leadership program.

George School System Partnership. The George School System was located within a short driving distance of Samuel College. This was the smallest of the school systems with which the university partnered. As in the Bernard Partnership, the George School System had a partnership coordinator who worked with Samuel College to build and manage the partnerships including acting as liaison with the college, completing a variety of administrative functions, coordinating the recruitment of adjunct instructors, and serving as the academic advisor for students in the partnership. She was the original partnership coordinator and still led the partnership in 2013.

Partnership structure. The partnership only ran the 18-credit certification program in educational leadership for students already holding a master's degree. The courses were delivered in a pre-arranged sequence with students taking courses in the

summer sessions as well. Two cohorts (of 16 students or less) typically ran at the same time, with one cohort being a year ahead of the other. The courses were taught exclusively by school system personnel who served as adjunct instructors for Samuel College, most of whom did not hold terminal degrees. All adjunct instructors were recruited by the partnership coordinator or other adjunct instructors. The courses were held in local school system facilities at no cost to the college, and the school system provided materials and instructional technology as additional in-kind contributions. In addition, the school system used its internal communication infrastructure (e.g., interschool mail, email, bulletin boards, meetings) to advertise the partnership program to eligible employees.

History of the partnership. The partnership was created after the success in the Bernard School System Partnership and served as an additional program expansion for the college. There were several other educational leadership graduate programs available from other institutions in the area, although the school system did not officially partner with those institutions. At that time, the school superintendent had a close professional connection with key personnel in the educational leadership department at Samuel College. Samuel personnel approached the upper administration of the school system about partnering, and the school system identified a coordinator, approved the partnership, and began offering courses in the summer of 2005. Enrollment was steady throughout the partnership, and the partnership was still functioning in 2013.

Douglas School System Partnership. The Douglas School System was located in closest proximity to Samuel College. This school system served about 50% more students than the George School System, but only about one-quarter of the students

served by the Bernard School System. The Douglas School System had two people who held the partnership coordinator position concurrently; the co-coordinators worked with Samuel College in the same fashion as the partnership coordinators in the Bernard and George Partnerships. They acted as liaisons with the college, completed a variety of administrative functions, coordinated the recruitment of adjunct instructors, and served as the academic advisors for students in the partnership.

Partnership structure. The partnership offered both the master's degree program and the 18-credit certification program. The courses were delivered in a pre-arranged sequence with each course lasting eight weeks. This model was viewed as accelerated because students matriculated more quickly than students who participated in the campus program. Two cohorts (of 11 students or less) ran at the same time, with one cohort being a year ahead of the other. The cohorts offering the 18-credit certification program were smaller, with only 5-6 students in each cohort. Similar to the George School System Partnership, the courses were taught exclusively by school system personnel who were recruited by the coordinators. Some of these adjunct instructors held doctoral degrees. The courses were held in local school system facilities at no cost to the college, and the school system provided materials and instructional technology as additional in-kind contributions. In line with the other partnerships, the school system also used its internal communication infrastructure (e.g., interschool mail, email, bulletin boards, meetings) to advertise the programs throughout the school system. There were several other educational leadership graduate programs within 30 miles that were offered by other institutions.

History of the partnership. The partnership was the last to form and the first to dissolve (this will be explored more fully later). The school system and the college engaged in a partnership for about four years. Courses began in January 2009, and the partnership was discontinued in the spring of 2012.

Prior to the partnership's inception, the school system had conducted a survey of teachers. Douglas 1 shared, "one of the things that came out very glaring and was real important to our employees is that they had some flexibility and some options with regards to pursuing higher education." Several options were considered including a hybrid program that utilized both on site classes and online learning opportunities, a cohort model, and an accelerated cohort model. Eventually Samuel College and the Douglas School System agreed to form a partnership.

Findings

Data from interviews, observations and documents were analyzed using the process outlined in Chapter 3. A number of themes emerged from the data and each are discussed below. The themes have a high degree of connectivity, and the interrelationship of the themes will be interpreted in Chapter 5.

Both negotiated order theory and value creation were frameworks that guided the study. Therefore, these concepts guided the overall organization of the reporting of the findings. First, the preconditions of the partnership will be discussed. Second, the findings related to the processes of the partnerships will be addressed. Finally, the outcomes of the three school-university partnerships in the study will be discussed. As stated previously, the research questions that guided the study were:

- How do stakeholders in organizations engaged in school-university partnerships create value for their own organizations?
- How do stakeholders in organizations capture value from the school-university partnership beyond the value they intended to create?

Therefore, value creation and value capture will be the foci for exploring the outcomes of school-university partnerships.

Notably, some themes that emerged in the data were not easily categorized in this chapter. For example, in collaborative efforts such as school-university partnerships, the creation of processes themselves could be viewed as outcomes. In this study, the college developed a separate registration process for managing the cohort model when it began its first partnership with the Bernard School System. However, once that process was developed, implemented and vetted, the cohort registration system then became an outcome that could be applied to new partnerships. The difficulty in categorizing themes will be noted and discussed throughout the case study report.

In addition, the study allowed for within-site and between-site analyses. The goals, design, processes and outcomes in each of the three partnerships were very similar, and this was expected considering each school system partnered with the same college for the same purpose. The reporting of findings within and between sites was done holistically, summarizing and supporting the similarities and common themes that emerged from all partnerships. When a clear difference was apparent between the three partnerships sites or within the college site, the contrast was noted and supported in the section where each theme was discussed or interpreted.

Finally, many participants referred to the partnerships as the *cohort* or *cohort model* during the interviews. Because the three partnerships were organized using cohorts (groups of students moving through the course sequence together), many participants used the terms cohort or cohort program and partnership interchangeably. The partnerships (cohorts) were separate and apart from the campus program.

Preconditions of the Samuel College Partnerships

Gray and Wood (1991) applied negotiated order theory to the interorganizational domain, and suggested that preconditions for collaboration exist before collaboration will occur. The data from participants suggested that clear preconditions were present that led to the formal creation of partnerships. The preconditions included the financial difficulties of the college, the need for the school systems to build their pools of qualified candidates, the connectivity between the college and the school systems, and Samuel College's growing reputation in the region.

Financial challenges for Samuel College. Samuel College approached program development in general and the educational leadership program specifically to generate revenue for the college. Officials at the highest levels of the college supported the program development initiative, which was a clear indication of its importance. The memorandums of understanding (MOU) were signed by the provost, dean of the graduate school and on one MOU, a vice president of the college. Samuel 4 shared that the college president "asked me if I would work with him on program development…so I worked with [Samuel 6] and we talked about the possibility of partnering with [Bernard] to offer our educational leadership program [there].

According to Samuel College 6, the college needed additional revenue to support its undergraduate programs. He asserted

> Well, what was happening at the time was [the college wasn't] getting enough people in the undergraduate program to sustain it. So what happened was they were looking other avenues of - and sources or money. So the provost at the time [explored] ways to grow the money in the organization. And I was the only one willing at the time to move forward with [the partnerships]. And so quite frankly, it was viewed as a cash cow. It's still viewed as a cash cow.

Samuel College 4 reinforced this perspective when she explained the first partnership "evolved because of a declining enrollment from [Bernard] students coming into the partnership. [P]revious to that time [a Bernard retiree] was the program director for ed. leadership, and coming from [Bernard], I'm sure had considerable influence on enrollment." Once he left the college, Samuel 4 "identified that we were in fact losing market share from [Bernard] and put together a proposal to offer the educational leadership program [there]… as a cohort model with differential pricing." The Samuel College personnel implemented the partnership to draw in students from this large school system. When asked whether partnerships were created in part to increase revenue, Samuel College 3 shared, "Oh, absolutely. Let's not forget the obvious."

Few qualified candidates within school systems. One of the primary preconditions that led to the partnerships was concern among school system personnel about not having enough qualified candidates to assume the principalship and other leadership roles. This was a common concern expressed by school system personnel in all three cases. There was genuine and urgent concern that the school system would not have the number and quality of candidates available to fill vacant positions.

George 1 echoed this concern and shared, "We don't have a very big bench right now. And we need to help people to become leaders in our system and understand what

this system expects. And so that was, I think, one of the reasons to start [the partnership]". Similarly, George 5 stated, "what led to [the partnership] originally was that they did not have a very large bench of administrators to pull from, so they thought that they would sort of grow their own, train their own." George 3 also understood the partnership was created to "grow people from within the county into the administrative roles." George 6 explained, "[the partnership] came about as a grow your own program for administrators because we didn't feel like we had a strong pool; we felt most of our [administrative] applicants were coming from [outside the George system]." George 2 noted the reason for starting the partnership was clear when [Samuel College 6] met with [the associate superintendent of schools] at the time

> [because] she was very interested in having us groom our own teachers as administrators, so we could follow through the instructional practices and the programs that are currently in [the Douglas School System] to really enhance our principle of leadership and enhance the instructional understanding that our principals had so that they could really move our schools forward.

Douglas officials also felt quality succession was in jeopardy. This sentiment was reflected in the comments of Douglas 1:

> Look[ing] at succession planning, leadership succession...I realized was that within a matter of three to five years, if we did not respond to and develop some highly qualified leaders, then we would be in some serious trouble with regards to having the right people in leadership positions.

Douglas 3 used basic economic language to describe the situation, "It's my understanding that there was a real demand for people who were qualified to step into leadership roles, and supply wasn't meeting demand." Douglas 5 shared her thoughts about the school systems' need for starting the partnership with Samuel College:

> I think when you look at the demographics of the administrators…you realize there are quite a few people who could be retiring in the next couple years. How

> do we build a pool of potential administrators that's deep, that have good experiences?

Bernard 1 shared a driving force for partnering "from [Bernard School System's] point of view, we needed administrators." Bernard 2 explained, "there was a need for administrators" because "six or eight years ago there was a lot of people retiring."

Samuel College 4 shared that college personnel were aware of the lack of qualified leaders available to take on principalships nationwide through "any number of different [research] reports." She stated, "there was certainly demand for competent leaders" and this was one factor that led the college to expand its educational leadership program at the college. The demand existed; they wanted to capitalize on this and increase supply.

The school systems, colleges and universities in the state were also being prodded along by directives from the state education agency for all school systems in the state to begin succession planning. Samuel College 5 explained:

> the history I think and the initiation of [the partnerships], and again [Samuel 4 and 6] could tell you this for sure, but [the state] said to colleges you need to establish programs that are going to start to train future administrators…because when these baby boomers all retire, we don't have people to fill those positions. So that was the initial impetus for the cohorts.

Similarly, Samuel College 3 shared, "motivation for these cohorts…was the state report."

The leaders of the state led succession initiative published a document designed to assist school systems with succession planning. The document's authors stated:

> Unfortunately, because of the large numbers of school leaders who are eligible to retire and the numbers each year of those who choose to do so, leadership succession is becoming an imperative for all systems. In fact, at its August 2005 meeting, the [state board of education] declared the principalship a critical area of shortage.

In the document, the authors offered several strategies for building successful succession including, "Partnerships with colleges and universities to assure the alignment of leadership development experiences with the [state's leadership framework]."

In addition, the state recommended that school systems replicate the success they were having with the Professional Development School (PDS) model of teacher preparation. The "leadership development school" was described as "a combination of graduate course work, action research, and a wide variety of practical, hands-on leadership experiences (e.g., an internship) under the careful guidance of an outstanding instructional leader." The authors of the state document cited the national trend toward this type of program design as additional support for conducting succession planning in this manner. In essence, state education officials were identifying, promoting and supporting the development of school-university partnerships as critical tools in succession planning (citation of state report withheld to maintain anonymity in the study).

Connectivity among key negotiators. Another precondition that led to the partnerships was the connectivity among key personnel in the school systems and the college. Participants shared that many of the school system personnel who were involved in the partnerships had roots with Samuel College. Six participants identified themselves as graduates of the Samuel College educational leadership program. Five of the Samuel College participants identified themselves as former school system employees in one of the three partnering school systems. A review of the faculty directory showed that 11 of the 18 faculty members in the Samuel College education department were former employees of the partnering school systems.

Bernard 3 indicated, "it was my understanding that several [Bernard] administrators worked at [Samuel College] and were adjuncts or whatever in different capacities. And because of the connection with the administrators who were [Bernard] staff, I think [the partnership] just evolved over time." George 1 noted how the connections between key people in his school system and the college led toward the creation of the partnership:

> the [associate superintendent of schools] felt very strongly about building leadership capacity within our own system. And she looked at a couple of different [colleges and universities]. So she had contacted [Samuel College 6] to form a partnership. And because I think her relationship with [him] was pretty strong and he was a very assertive type person who had lots of things going on and had been a superintendent – [Samuel] was the [college] that was chosen.

Douglas 1 attributed much of the smooth start to the partnership was

> because of my position with [Douglas] and also my relationship with [Samuel College]. And so I was already heavily involved in the graduate program [there]. And so there was some credibility from both sides, with me as a broker.

Participants frequently expressed statements of familiarity during interviews, although they may not have made explicit statements about the interconnectivity of the organizations. As examples, the phrases below were used during interviews and in the pre and post interview discussions with the researcher, and were evidence of the underlying familiarity across organizations

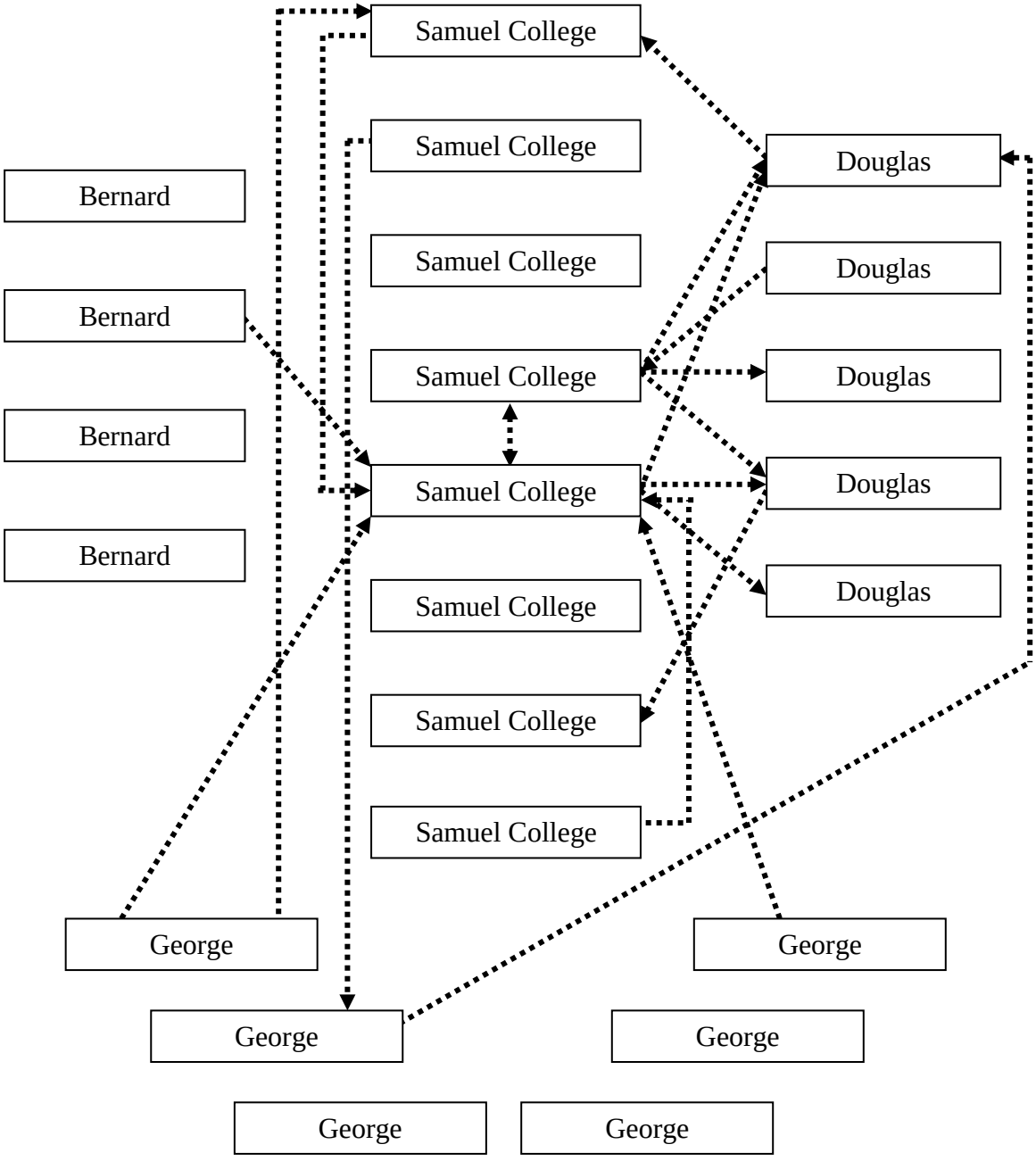
- "of course, we knew him very well already"
- "they had worked together before coming to [Samuel College]"
- "he was a principal in [Bernard] before coming to [Samuel]"
- "they worked together in [Douglas] before she went to the [George] school system"
- "he was my supervisor before I took this position"

- "he was my professor at [Samuel] before I started adjuncting"
- "we were in the leadership program together at Samuel"
- "I worked with him before I moved to the state"

This familiarity among key players was critical in allowing the partnerships to grow quickly and with only minor growing pains. The number of interconnections was significant, but varied among the three partnerships. For example, the interconnection between Douglas and Samuel was most significant. No participant indicated that this connectivity had any negative impacts.

A depiction of that interconnection is below in Figure 3. Arrows in the figure indicate a relationship that existed before the formation of partnerships. The figure shows only relationships that were discussed above. An arrow between two people in the same organization indicates a relationship that existed before these two people worked together in the new organization or before partnerships were created. (e.g., served in a school system together before joining the college faculty).

Figure 3: Connectivity in the Samuel College Partnerships (institution/numerical codes were removed to better maintain anonymity of participants).



Reputation of the educational leadership program. The early success of the educational leadership program built Samuel College's reputation in the region quickly and was a key feature of the college's recruitment strategy for the educational leadership program. The pass rate on the SLLA exam for Samuel College students was 100%; this was well known and widely advertised in the region. As noted above, many Samuel College graduates were hired into administrative positions in the three school systems. This success and reputation made the college a logical choice for partnerships. As Douglas 2 shared,

> well, I certainly think that [Samuel College] in and of itself has a great reputation. And so when we thought about who were going to partner with, we wanted to make sure that that reputation and that standing within the [region] was there, and the sense of pride to say we certainly have graduated from [Samuel] was there.

Other participants noted Samuel College's reputation as a critical consideration for the school systems when the decision to partner was made. George 3 noted, "it's good for the [George school system] to say we've got this partnership with [Samuel College]…it's another [positive] we have going for us." George 6 agreed by stating, "it's good for the [George School System] to say… we have this great partnership with [Samuel College]." She further noted, "there's probably some community value there. [Samuel] is thought of as a community kind of college…it's a school that has respect."

The preconditions created an environment that motivated the school systems and the college to partner with one another. The financial difficulties of the college and the need for the school systems to build their pools of qualified candidates were the most critical drivers. However, the connectivity between the college and the school systems and Samuel College's growing reputation in the region created a fertile context for these

partnerships to develop and grow quickly. In essence, the conditions were almost ideal for Samuel College to establish partnerships.

Processes in the Samuel College Partnerships

A second construct of negotiated order theory when applied to the interorganizational domain was the processes of collaboration. Several themes regarding processes were evident in the data. Specifically, many processes critical to the success of partnerships were in place; however stakeholders created or modified some processes as part of the collaborative process.

Key personnel were selected. The process of identifying key personnel to lead the creation and management of all three partnerships was discussed. As noted above, high level college officials charged Samuel 4 and Samuel 6 with program expansion for the educational leadership at the college and supported both throughout the process. Both were dedicated to the mission of building leaders; they were vested. Samuel 5 recalled that Samuel 4 was committed to partnerships from inception to the creation of the last partnership. She stated, "[Samuel 4] really wanted that cohort to be part of the [Douglas] program as well."

Bernard 2 made particular note of how much Samuel College 6 impacted the early development of the program. He asserted, "[Samuel College 6] was a rarity [at Samuel]. He was very organized and had [the partnership design] all laid out." In addition, Samuel College and school system participants who were a part of the partnerships at the beginning spoke to the driving force that Samuel College 6 was for the collaborative efforts in Bernard and later in George. Samuel College 2 explained that he brought "position power" to the college, noting that the college "realized that the program would

need some sort of eye-catching individual who had the position cache, which would lend credence to the quality in the program, led by someone who had insight." Samuel 5 asserted, '"[Samuel 6] was the driving force behind [the partnerships]."

These participants also noted the impact deans of the graduate school had in supporting the development and maintenance of the partnerships. Samuel 3 noted that school system personnel would tell him that "[Samuel College] is the only program where it's not just the [partnership coordinator that we see]. The dean comes down here. Staff from the [Samuel] office comes down here." He continued, "So what's the [Samuel] model? We try to connect with our students at all levels." George 1 noted that during the time when there was turnover in the educational leadership director position, she was determined to have a quality program in George, so she "just communicated with [the Samuel dean] first, and then [the next Samuel dean] if I had a question."

The school systems also assigned personnel to engage in the work of partnering; someone was given this responsibility in each organization, and the college assigned them the title of partnership coordinator. Each partnership coordinator took on the role and committed to making each partnership work. Samuel College 1 asserted that the coordinator in each partnership was a critical part of the success of the partnership. When discussing their role, he stated, "I think there is an investment of the heart on behalf of the people who are in those [coordinator] positions." Samuel College 4 emphasized the critical role of the partnership coordinators as this:

> I think you also have to have an advocate at each one of the organizational levels that's willing to really spearhead what it takes to get something through the politics of every organization. That's why every [partnership] almost needed to have its own [school system] coordinator because there's no way an external person understands the politics of how to get something done, whereas the coordinators don't even understand necessarily how do you get it done at

> [Samuel]. So you have to have I think people who are passionate about it and are leaders in it.

One partnership coordinator was hesitant about receiving the role when it was delegated from a supervisor, but then quickly took on the task. Recounting the experience, this coordinator stated

> I went and met with [the Samuel College director] and decided okay, I mean if I'm being told I have to do it, I'll do it. Well, it was a wonderful opportunity and I'm really glad that it happened that way. But it wasn't any buy-in on my part [at first], to be honest.

As of 2013, this coordinator was still leading the partnership, managing multiple cohorts, and jointly facilitating the year-long internship experience.

Another coordinator began the partnership process as a school system official responsible for leadership development. This person's involvement began when responding to a survey employees had completed about leadership development in the broader school system. Douglas 2 explained that he asked in his role in "[the school system], 'So what if the cohort [with Samuel] was crafted with a [Douglas] flavor?' The next step was going to talk with [Samuel]. So that's basically kind of how the conversation got started."

Another coordinator took over after their partnership was already established, and went on to manage a long period of rapid growth. Samuel College 1 praised her commitment to the partnership in this way:

> I don't know how well you know [her]. [She] is a very exceptional person. She's a [Samuel College] graduate herself. An undergraduate I believe. I think her heart to a large degree is why she has continued with this [even though she retired from the school system].

Samuel 2 noted the contribution of this partnership coordinator, "She has been a real trooper, real trooper. And it's a big enterprise down there. This is no small outfit down there in [Bernard]. It's the big deal. And she's kept [the partnership] moving."

Some Samuel College personnel expressed concern about what will happen when the coordinators of the George and Bernard Partnerships finally decide that their work with the partnership will end. Replacing them was a daunting prospect for the college. In essence, some participants at Samuel College viewed its own program succession as being in jeopardy. Samuel College 6 asserted that "universities are historically very deficient in the area of lead time and turn over. They don't prepare for the transition. There's no preparation for succession." Samuel College 1 expressed this concern about succession:

> It concerns me that when [the coordinator] makes a decision, that you know, it's time for [her] to take a step back. She's such a key person there. People know [her]. She knows people. We'll have to find somebody that knows the system. [The school system] is a separate culture…somebody cannot come in from the outside and hit the road running. You've got to have somebody that knows [the school system].

It was evident that the college and school systems were deliberate when identifying key personnel to lead the partnerships; however the creation and maintenance of the partnership required a larger group of stakeholders.

Interfaces were established. The interface was described as the areas of operations included in the partnership, the governance mechanisms that will guide the operations, and the personnel, communications and work processes to be used. In essence, this is the *who, what, when, where* and *how* of the partnership's work (Doz & Hamel, 1998).

The number of Samuel College personnel involved in creating the first partnership (with the Bernard School System) was larger than in subsequent partnerships. Samuel College personnel worked with the school system to develop the partnership design. Although the contributions of each person varied, the memo of understanding and other documents showed the original partnership interface included the college's educational leadership program director, education department chairperson, graduate dean, upper administration, support staff, as well as the school system's partnership coordinator, leadership department, upper administration, and finance and certification support staff.

The interfaces were directly impacted by the number of interconnections that existed across the four organizations, as outlined in the preconditions section above. Although it was evident that many collegial ties were evident in the interfaces, the formal connections at the interfaces were present as well. Bernard 1 shared that the dean and other key personnel of the graduate school were heavily involved in the development and maintenance of the Bernard Partnership:

> They are wonderful. Oh, I couldn't live without [them]. They keep me straight. I mean we're really tight as far as sharing information and working together. And I think that really is the key is working with other people. I mean I could not do their job and I respect them so much.

Because of the work in the first partnership, the number of personnel involved in the interfaces in later partnerships was reduced. A review of the memos of understanding and other documents for the Douglas and George Partnerships showed the core personnel involved included the school system partnership coordinator(s), the educational leadership program director, the graduate dean, and a small number of support personnel from both Samuel College and each school system. It was evident that the work of

developing processes and products during the creation of the Bernard Partnership allowed the college to reduce the number of personnel required to initiate subsequent partnerships.

As the partnerships continued, the number of personnel in each institution declined in the interface; fewer people were required to maintain the partnerships. Upper level administration in each school system and the college appeared to become less involved as the partnerships continued. The partnerships moved to the maintenance or relationship management phase with the day to day operations of enrollment, registration, course delivery, and other logistical tasks being conducted between the educational leadership director and the partnership coordinators.

The primary role of the partnership coordinators was outlined in a job description as "work directly with the Director of Educational Leadership to maintain the established [memorandum of understanding]" with specific list of tasks each coordinator was to complete "in conjunction with the Director." This working relationship was also described in a document that outlined the educational leadership director's responsibilities:

Coordinate all activities for the cohorts

- Meet regularly with coordinators in the three school systems
- Daily communication with coordinators of the [Douglas] and [Bernard] cohorts; often 5-10 emails/day and/or 1-2 telephone conversations with [Bernard] coordinator; less frequent for [George]
- Forward to coordinators all information for distribution

In addition, the educational leadership director would occasionally meet with all partnership coordinators, as explained by George 2:

> [Samuel 5] or whoever was [director at the time] would actually have us just form a small committee and we would meet to look at either the course offerings and objectives and then the assessments and then just discuss where we were at as a cohort. Usually it was the [Douglas coordinator], the [Bernard] coordinator, [George 1], and myself, just because [she and I] kind of partner together with the internship.

Formal processes were created and codified. At the beginning of each partnership, the college and the school system personnel had a series of exploratory conversations to determine each institution's interest in partnering as well as the feasibility of such an effort. These early conversations included topics such as in-kind contributions of the school systems, physical locations of classes, tuition rates, programs to be delivered (certification vs. master's degree), registration processes, and tuition payment processes. These conversations grew into a more formal agreement, and eventually a memorandum of understanding (MOU) was developed for each partnership and signed by Samuel College and school system officials. Although the MOUs were formal, they were limited in specificity.

The school system and the college discussed and defined the processes that would govern the partnerships. These processes could be described as either established or created processes. Some processes used to govern the partnership were already established in either the college or the school systems; if these processes could be appropriately applied to the partnership structure, then they were used.

For example, the grade reporting system and the online scoring system for assessments were already established for the campus program, so they were applied to the partnership programs. Bernard 2 noted assessment of students' course work

> is the same in [George], [Douglas] and [Bernard partnerships]. And we have Chalk and Wire. We still post [assignments] there and score them. And then [Samuel] has access to that [data]. And they monitor. And we get reports. But they look for consistency between the different [partnerships] and between the counties themselves. We look at that data all the time.

If however, an established process did not fit, a process was jointly developed for the partnership model. As noted in partnership documents, the college and school system developed a new, collaborative process for selecting students for the cohorts.

Samuel College 4 explained that "a lot of processes that had to be developed and put in place. So like any partnership it really had its challenges in terms of developing process, procedures." She shared that developing these new processes did not always go smoothly because "one [difference] would just be internal processes. How do you in fact register and bill and validate? So [Bernard] has its own internal processes; every [school system] does. So having to work within those [processes was necessary]." In fact, she would occasionally need to remind Samuel College personnel who were frustrated by the new processes that the program development initiative was supported in the highest levels of the college. She explained, "I know part of the work that I did [in building the partnerships] was fostered because I was a direct report to the president. So I could say, 'I'm working for [the president] on this one' [when I met resistance]."

A complete listing of the processes utilized in the partnerships was revealed in interviews, documents and observations and is shown below.

Processes already established at Samuel College:

- Grade reporting system
- Email and other communication processes
- Online assessment scoring (Chalk and Wire)

- Adjunct instructor handbook
- Adjunct orientation process
- Internship handbook

Processes jointly created by Samuel College and the school systems:

- Third party billing system for tuition [Bernard]
- Expedited tuition reimbursement process [Douglas]
- System for tracking cohort enrollment
- Process for managing a leave of absence from the cohort
- On-site registration process
- On-site book sales
- Joint selection process of students
- Joint vetting process for adjunct instructors
- Partnership specific paperwork and forms
- Student orientation

Processed already established in the school systems:

- Process for reserving facilities for classes
- Internal communication systems for advertisement of partnerships

The memorandums of understanding (MOU) contained specific agreements for the partnerships including tuition, billing, cohort management, joint selection processes, and course delivery locations. These agreements required several new processes which are outlined below.

Tuition, billing and reimbursement. Samuel College 4 noted that a few processes related to billing and reimbursement had to be created by the college to

facilitate the partnership model. A third party billing system was developed for the Bernard Partnership with the school system paying tuition directly to the college on behalf of its employees. Samuel College 4 explained

> there [were] processes that had to be outlined – [Samuel College] had never done differential pricing at the graduate school structure. It was a third party billing agreement, which meant that [students] only paid the difference between the direct cost that was billed to the county and the difference in [Samuel] tuition.

In regard to the third part billing system, Samuel 8 noted, "Yeah, and I don't think it was a very popular decision here at [Samuel], but it was something we were willing to do."

The other two partnerships used the standard system that billed students directly, however, the Douglas school system worked with the college to receive expedited grade reports so students were reimbursed by the school system more quickly. This allowed students to apply reimbursement funds to the cost of the next course in the sequence. Douglas 1 described the process as this:

> [Students] put out the initial outlay, complete the course, get their reimbursement. We worked it such that, within a pay period, the employee got their reimbursement. And then they could take that reimbursement, turn it right back over to [Samuel] to pay for their next course. And so that was a really good process. And instead of waiting for grade reports from [Samuel], I was able to pull the grade reports, give a list to [Douglas human resources personnel] and to meet all of those requirements [for reimbursement].

Cohort management. Samuel College 7 noted that managing the enrollment of the cohorts had been particularly challenging. She stated, "to be honest with you, [educational leadership] is the most labor-intensive program that we have." She continued, "We're bringing in a lot of revenue for our college and, you know, if we have to do some stuff manually, that's great, but the tracking of the folks in the cohort is what the challenging thing is." Samuel 8 explained:

> We handle all of the application pieces, registration, graduation, everything in [the graduate office]. All of the registrations have to be entered manually because the classes are coded differently. Then we have to contact the [school system], make sure they get billed correctly, okay, this is a group of people in [George], and they should be billed this way. It's very time consuming.

Unlike the standard enrollment process used for the campus program where students registered for classes independently using Samuel's online registration system, the cohort structure required the college to monitor the enrollment of students in the cohorts from semester to semester and class to class to ensure all students stayed together. Samuel 7 noted:

> So you can't just run a traditional admit letter. It needs to be merged in a separate area. And we pre-populate all of their registration forms. So basically, all they have to do is they get their paperwork, they sign it, they get it back to me, I process all their registrations. So it's very, very simple for the student.

College personnel spent time and energy tracking down students who had failed to enroll in the next course in the sequence. In addition, administering the leave of absence procedure, when a student needed to drop out of the cohort, was occasionally problematic. The college did its best to accommodate students by trying to get them into the next partnership cohort, however this was often cumbersome and the potential existed for students to miss a course. Samuel 7 explained further how enrollment and cohort management were challenging:

> [Enrollment in the cohorts] can be a logistical nightmare in this office only because in the past, they've let people kind of float in and out [of the cohorts], even though at every meeting, we stress that once you're in, this is a cohort. It's a closed program. Once you're in, you're in, you don't join another one.

The college eventually notified students that if they dropped out of the partnership program, they would need to complete their certification or master's degree in the Samuel

College campus program. Samuel 6 explained this was done because tuition was offered at a reduced rate:

> And the reason was is because how do you charge the full tuition on campus and make it [less expensive] for the cohorts? You can't drop in and take a course here or drop in and take a course there – you [must] stay locked [in the cohort] and no one can join the cohort [once in progress]. After school starts, no one can join; you can drop out, but you can't join. And so we cut it that way and that was…the overall approach that we used.

On-site processes. The college also developed on-site services as a means of making the partnerships convenient for students. Each memorandum of understanding specifically stated the college and school systems "will facilitate program admission and associated paperwork by conducting on-site registration and information sessions." Samuel 4 explained at the inception of the first partnership, "I would actually go down to the cohort and get all the paperwork to register them, and I would physically register them as a cohort to try to get the billing." As the partnerships continued, many of the registration activities occurred at the school system sites and were managed by the partnership coordinators. Also, books were sold at the partnership locations so students did not have to drive to the campus bookstore. This was one component of the partnerships that made it more convenient for students; services were brought to them. Douglas 1 explained how these on-site processes worked:

> For registration, we did not have [the partnership] students go through the normal registration process. We had the registration process come to our students. So we had the registrars to come to the cohort to register them. Books – we didn't have them go to the bookstore. We would…bring the books to [students], and [they could] pay for them with us. [The coordinators] took care of that.

Joint selection processes. The college and school systems also developed a joint selection process for students and adjunct instructors. College and school system personnel worked together to review applications, interview students, and select

candidates for the partnership programs. This joint work varied in intensity between partnerships.

Unlike the Bernard and George Partnerships, the memorandum of understanding for the Douglas Partnership specifically stated "[Samuel College] and [Douglas] staff will collaborate on the selection process of program participants." Douglas 2 noted that after recruiting for the partnership, college and school system staff "had interviews with candidates, so it was a selection process." Douglas 1 noted the role of school system staff as "heavily involved in the interviewing process for acceptance. We did not accept everyone who wanted to be in the cohort program."

In the George Partnership, joint selection of students was similar to that in Douglas and was described by George 2:

> after the interest meeting, we then have interviews, the screening interviews as well as the written [component]. Then we bring them back in one more time and then that's when [the coordinator] and a committee decide on the applicants with [the Samuel College personnel].

George 1 echoed the joint nature of the selection process by noting, "[Samuel 5] would come and help [with the interviews]."

However, Bernard participants provided less information about the selection process for students during interviews. The memorandum of understanding for Bernard stated, "All [partnership] participants must successfully apply and be accepted to the [Samuel] College Graduate School before entering the program." Bernard 2 affirmed that she was "involved with the selection of candidates…through the application process."

In addition, the college and school system personnel jointly selected the adjunct instructors. Each memorandum of understanding noted that "all courses will be taught by

[Samuel] College instructors or by approved contract staff from [school system] in accordance with [Samuel] College requirements and policies." Each potential instructor was submitted to the college for review and vetting. Once approved, adjunct instructors taught courses in school system locations.

The partnership coordinators actively recruited school system personnel to serve as adjunct instructors. As Douglas 1 explained, "So for every course, what we wanted was to provide systemic leaders to be able to teach the various courses from their perspective so that [students] would, again, fully understand our system." Bernard 2 noted the importance of "securing all the staff. Trying to get qualified instructors. Well, and that's key. I mean people are the programs, as you know." George 2 explained, "[George 1] actually sent out information if anyone was interested in teaching [in the partnership] and then we interviewed with [her] at [Samuel] with their board." Data from interviews and documents revealed that partnership courses were taught almost exclusively by school system personnel.

Finding willing adjunct instructors was not viewed by participants as a challenge in the George or Douglas partnerships. When asked about any challenges the partnership had faced, Douglas participants did not identify securing adjuncts instructors as one. George 2 noted the dynamic in the George Partnership:

> We're always looking to make sure we have the best adjunct faculty and so making sure that we have a balance between elementary and secondary. We've had more of the elementary, although some of us have had secondary experience in the past. So we're looking to branch out, I think [George 1] is look[ing] for some secondary folks interested in teaching some of the courses. We haven't had a lot of turnover in our adjunct faculty. It's very minor over the years.

In the larger Bernard Partnership, the college found it challenging to secure instructors for the number of courses needed for such a large student enrollment. Samuel

College 1 shared that the college can lose some adjunct instructors when they are promoted to upper administrative positions in other parts of the state or nation. He explained the getting enough instructors

> [is] one piece of it. But getting the right people [is critical]. I mean the more I work with these [adjuncts] the more respect I have for them. One of them just was promoted to assistant superintendent in [another state], so that's great for him, but we lose an excellent internship supervisor.

Bernard 4 explained the turnover in this way:

> Well, it's been interesting this year because there's been a lot of transition [within the partnership]. So, of course, [Bernard 1] has been the mainstay for a period of years now, but the folks that have worked with her or partnered with her have rotated in and out rather quickly. So, for example, [an adjunct] comes on as an elementary principal, but is working with high-school interns because the high school person had just left, and [he's] in the position for almost a 12-month period, and then in the summertime right before we're about to get really rolling, he becomes the superintendent [in another state]. Now all of a sudden [Bernard 1] and I [have] to take a little bit more of a leadership role in terms of organizing and getting things in place, and we're scrambling to find a third person to come in during the midst of the year. So we were able to get [Bernard 3] involved.

In each partnership, jointly created processes and existing processes both supported the functioning of the partnerships. Samuel College officials were able to tailor processes to each school system to meet their needs and the needs of their employees.

Measures of success were identified. The college and school systems had informal agreements about what the measures of success would be for the partnership. With the exception of the online assessment system discussed earlier, it appeared that no formal data collection, analysis, and reporting structure was developed to specifically monitor the success of the partnerships *in comparison* to the campus program. However, a variety of measures were identified by participants for measuring the success of the educational leadership program and its partnerships; many of these were long standing measures of success for the college.

The college looked to enrollment numbers and the resulting revenue as primary measures of the health of the partnerships. According to enrollment documents, in 2011 the Bernard Partnership's enrollment for the master's degree program averaged 16.2 students per cohort and the certification program averaged 17.8 students per cohort with multiple cohorts running simultaneously. Samuel 3 explained that the Bernard partnership "is a huge enrollment source for us." The same documents showed the George Partnership had an average of 13.3 students per cohort over a three year period. Samuel 3 noted, "[George partnership] is always very moderate [in enrollment], but it's a cohort that's economically and academically and intellectually sustained, in my opinion."

Over the span of the Douglas Partnership, enrollment for the master's degree program averaged 8 students and the certification program averaged 5.5 students. Lower enrollment was the deciding factor for Samuel discontinuing the Douglas partnership in 2012. Samuel College 7 explained, "the [Douglas Partnership], in particular, the class sizes were extremely small. So the revenue was not really there. Once you're done paying the coordinator." Samuel College 3 characterized the state of the Douglas partnership as, "[Douglas and Samuel] are sort of in a tacit arrangement where we didn't really close [the partnership] but we're not promoting it right now because the enrollment trends were just not good." When asked to identify any other factors that impacted the decision to discontinue the Douglas partnership, Samuel College 3 stated, "I'm sorry. It's just one. Enrollment."

In contrast, many stakeholders in the Douglas School System saw the outcomes of the partnership to be substantively different than the outcomes in the campus program, and therefore saw the partnership as a significant value creator for the school system.

Their perspectives in this regard were reflected more fully in the outcomes discussed below. However, when asked about the discontinuation of the partnership, Douglas 1 offered the following perspective:

> I really think it's because of fiscal reasons. The cohort, to be quite frank, was competition for the campus program. And so they realized that students were coming to the cohort program as an alternative, which pulled students away from the campus program. The partnership from the [Douglas] perspective was thriving and was very valued, but from the [Samuel College] perspective it's really a fiscal issue.

Another measure of success was pass rates on the State Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA). All students were required to pass the test to complete the educational leadership program. Samuel had traditionally prided itself on a 100% pass rate for many years. Samuel 3 noted, "one measure of success, because it's a requirement of our program, is that students take the SLLA. We used to love to say we had 100 percent pass rate. Well, we don't anymore but it's 99 point something." Samuel 4 explained:

> to be able then to give assessment data to a school system that says, you know, these people meet these standards, whether it's an outside professional licensure exam or to the department's way of thinking…so it gave you some evidence to say, "We know what we're doing".

The college and some school system personnel used completion rates as a third measure of success for the partnerships. According to Samuel 1, the completion rates in the partnerships "were in line" with the completion rates for the campus program. Of note, no participants in the study expressed any concern about completion rates in the campus program or partnership programs.

A final measure of success was attainment of administrative position by program graduates. Although no specific data was collected by stakeholders for this measure of

success, the majority of participants felt this to be anecdotally true. George 2 noted, "The only measure that we've used is between [George 1] and myself, [and it] is how many interns have been successful becoming a candidate for an administrative position and then actually becoming an administrator in the county?" George 6 explained that a report to the George Board of Education about the success of the Samuel partnership showed

> Here's how many administrators we've hired and six of these administrators went through the [Samuel] cohort program, or grow your own program. So it was in a way for us to be able to say, 'Look, we've got this grow your own program, we've got this many people that are going through it and we've hired this many, and this many more are walking into teacher leadership roles.'

Participants from the Bernard School System touted the success of Samuel College Partnership graduates in gaining entrance into the internal leadership development program and administrative positions. Bernard 1 felt the partnership "really benefits individuals, whether they're current administrators or students, in getting promotions." She further explained that the school system "would look at the number of people who have moved into leadership positions. We have so many principals who went through the [Samuel partnership] program. And their success levels as far as student achievement [once in positions]."

As outlined above, the college and school system partnerships were affected by the various preconditions that existed. They used many processes that were already established within their own institutions to ensure the partnerships functioned. If a new process was needed to facilitate the partnerships, then the college and school system created one. Stakeholders were also careful to identify and recruit key people to the partnerships. As a result, stakeholders created and captured considerable value for their own organizations.

Outcomes of the Samuel College Partnerships

Continuing the discussion of the context of the negotiated order in the interorganizational domain, the final area of analysis is the outcomes of collaboration (Gray & Wood, 1991). The research questions for this study sought to determine how stakeholders involved in school-university partnership created or captured value for their own organizations, therefore the findings will be reported using value as an outcome.

Value as an outcome. Value, when applied in this study, refers to the benefits obtained by each organization when they partnered (see Table 6). Outcomes of each partnership were placed in two categories: value creation and value capture. Although the outcomes of the partnerships were characterized as either created or captured, some value realized through the collaborative process was difficult to neatly classify. It should be noted that the same value could be identified by study participants as created in one partnership and captured in another.

Value creation. Value creation occurred when stakeholders reached the intended outcomes on the partnership. In essence, stakeholders created the value if they had planned for and expected to achieve such an outcome. Intended outcomes include those that were outlined in the formal memorandums of understanding as well as the goals for the partnerships that were expressed by participants in the study.

Value capture. In contrast, value capture occurred when stakeholders realized benefits that were unexpected or unintended. These were the "serendipitous spinoffs" of the collaborative process (Birmingham, 2005). The defining criterion for value creation was whether participants identified the value as intended. Any outcomes that were realized, but were unintended, were defined as value capture.

Turning to value creation as an outcome, an analysis of the data made it clear that stakeholders in the four institutions were able to meet their intended outcomes through the partnerships. Value creation was achieved. The goals varied between partnerships somewhat and these difference were explored. In addition, the four institutions were also able to capture value beyond the original intent of the partnership. The value captured also varied among partnering institutions. Table 6 shows the value that was created and captured in the four organizations through the partnerships. The table serves only as an overview; each outcome in the table is fully explored below.

Table 6: Value Creation and Capture in Partnerships

	Value Creation	Value Capture
Samuel College	Increased enrollment and revenue Established a cost savings partnership model Infused real world perspectives and applications of learning into content	**Built credibility with stakeholders** **Created replicable model of partnering**
Bernard School System	Added another option for employees Built the pool of qualified candidates for administrative positions Customized course content and experiences	Provided mentoring and career guidance Developed fast movers with quality leadership skills
George School System	Added another option for employees Built the pool of qualified candidates Customized course content and experiences Provided mentoring and career guidance	Discovered vetting process for potential candidates Developed fast movers with quality leadership skills Capitalized on an induction function
Douglas School System	Added another option for employees Built the pool of qualified candidates Customized course content and experiences Provided mentoring and career guidance	Discovered vetting process for potential candidates Developed fast movers with quality leadership skills Capitalized on an induction function

Value creation: Increased enrollment and revenue. Throughout the study, an immediate value created for Samuel College through the partnerships was increased revenue through enrollment gains. This theme was almost universally stated by participants. As mentioned earlier, Samuel College approached the educational

leadership program as a program development opportunity that would generate revenue for the college.

From the outset, Samuel College 6 promoted the idea of a reduced tuition rate for the partnerships. He felt it was way to build the educational leadership program using a bulk enrollment approach. As Samuel 8 explained, the partnerships offered a "discounted tuition rate below the campus rate." Initially, the idea of offering a reduced tuition rate was questioned by some college personnel. Samuel College 6 outlined the approach that he proposed:

> if you increase the numbers [of students], times the tuition, you can [generate more revenue than] the high tuition times the small number. So it's a matter of math. And we did. And so we brought in a lot of money based on low tuition, but a large number.

College stakeholders calculated that whatever the college would lose from the reduced tuition rate, it would gain back through the greater numbers of enrolled students.

Samuel College 2 explained the revenue generation within the broader context of the college's finances stating that the education department "handles 25% of [Samuel's] business. [That's] 12% of the undergrad and 50% of the graduate [revenue]." When asked about what drove the creation of the partnerships, Samuel College 1 shared:

> [Samuel] has an economic interest. The last decade has been a very difficult financial period for [Samuel]. We are rising above the surface now. That's my perspective just attending faculty meetings, and hearing…[the] reports on the general financial status of the institution.

This belief of Samuel College 3 was noted earlier. He explained revenue generation for the college by stating, "[Bernard School System] is a huge enrollment source for us." He continued, "The [George School System] is always very moderate [in revenue], but it's a cohort that's economically and academically and intellectually sustained, in my opinion."

Samuel 5 discussed the significant financial impact the partnerships had on the college's finances:

> It's a great purse for the college…and so getting to the numbers. [Bernard] this fall will have no less than I would say 120 students. So if you do the math, 120 times $800. That's like a quarter of a million dollars per semester that [the Bernard partnership] brings to [Samuel]. Shear revenue…and then same thing in [George].

Applying the tuition rate she used above to college documents showing actual credit count and enrollment, the overall revenue generated by the partnerships was approximately $348,000 per year from the Bernard Partnership, $48,000 per year from the George Partnership, $28,800 per year from the Douglas Partnership. An estimated total when all three partnerships were functioning was $424,000 per year. She further explained that in previous years other colleges and universities were developing partnerships throughout the state that might have pulled enrollment away from Samuel:

> There was great concern above my level [at Samuel]. Because that would have been very important lost revenue for [the college]. Quite honestly, it is my opinion and the opinion of many if it were not for the Education Department, [Samuel] would have closed its doors a long time ago. Because it's such a big moneymaker for the college.

School system personnel were also aware of the revenue generation the partnerships created, with Douglas 3 stating what was reflective of most school system personnel's views, "Well, [Samuel's] in the business of making money, and frankly that's why they have the graduate program in education. It's a big money maker for them." When asked about the benefits Samuel College gained from the partnerships, George 1 stated, "For [Samuel] I think it's the financial piece." Bernard 1 identified most critical the benefit for the college as "Revenue. Absolutely revenue."

Samuel College generated revenue, but is also made steps in gaining more exclusivity for partnering with the Bernard School System. According to Bernard 2, the Bernard school system went from having "five or six partnerships" to only two, one of which was Samuel College. He explained that "[Samuel] College and another [university] dropped their tuition so far that it made no sense for the others [universities] to be involved [in partnerships]. So in a sense was the marketplace controlled itself."

Generating revenue was important to the college and its financial health as an institution. In all three cases, the partnerships generated revenue, but also proved to be a cost saving model of program delivery.

Value creation: Established a cost savings partnership model. The Samuel College partnerships generated significant revenue; however, the college was able to keep the expenditures required for running the partnerships low. This was achieved by (a) using program coordinators to manage the partnerships instead of full time faculty, (b) using adjunct instructors instead of full time faculty, and (c) capitalizing on in-kind contributions of the school system. Each will be addressed in turn.

The educational leadership faculty at the college used partnership coordinators from each school system to build and manage the partnerships. These coordinators were insiders of each school system and could navigate the school system's processes and bureaucracy. As noted earlier and as seen in partnership documents, the coordinator handled not only logistics for the partnership, but also took on the academic advising for students in the partnerships.

Without the partnership coordinators, the educational leadership director at Samuel College or other full time faculty would assume advising responsibilities as was

done for students in the campus program. Coordinators were compensated with a stipend for each cohort they managed. They did not receive any benefits (i.e., health, dental, vision, sick or vacation leave) in their employment. See Table 7 below.

Table 7: Compensation and Workload Comparison for 2011-2012 Academic Year

	Compensation rate	Number of cohorts running simultaneously	Advising load
Samuel College Educational Leadership Director	$47,300 + benefits	n/a	79
Bernard Partnership Coordinator	$37,500	5	87
George Partnership Coordinator	$30,000	4	27
Douglas Partnership Coordinator	$10,000	2	30

Note: Data is from Samuel College salary documents

Coordinators were relatively inexpensive when compared to full time faculty. The estimated cost savings shown in Table 8 was based on the supposition that the college would likely hire three full-time faculty members to run the partnerships instead of using partnership coordinators.

Table 8: Cost Savings from Use of Coordinators for 2011-2012 Academic Year

Cost for 3 additional full time faculty (estimated)	Cost of coordinators (actual for 2011-2012)	Approximate cost savings
$141,900 + benefits	$77,500	$64,400 + benefits

Note: Data is from Samuel College salary documents

A second cost saving measure, as highlighted by Samuel College 5, was the use of adjunct instructors rather than full-time, benefitted faculty. She noted, "it's more cost effective [to use adjuncts] because you're not paying benefits." Samuel College 1 reinforced this by stating, "honestly…from your adjuncting, you don't get rich doing that." Bernard 2 explained the cost savings of using adjuncts in this way:

> [The college] pay[s] their instructors as adjuncts instead of full time people. They don't have any benefits to pay. So it's really a moneymaking proposition for them. Which I understand, but if it meets the needs of [Bernard], then it benefits the both of us.

The cost savings for using adjunct instructors was not specifically quantified by any participants. At the time of the study, employment numbers for adjunct instructors and corresponding stipends amounts were not readily available. Therefore, a cost savings could not be estimated for use of adjunct instructors as it was for use of partnership coordinators (as was shown in Table 8).

Samuel College personnel did note that finding and maintaining a strong corps of adjunct instructors was sometimes hampered by the stipend amount offered by the college for each course. Samuel 6 stated, "now the work ethic had to be done by me in terms of finding adjunct professors. I think [the college] could probably support [partnerships] further by increasing the salaries of the adjunct professors that teach these courses." When asked how the partnerships could be improved, he continued on his earlier line of thought:

> The remuneration, the stipend for the adjuncts, to make it worth their time to do it. Sometimes you got the lowest [pay] from the college of all the stipends – I mean of all the salary situations [of the colleges in the area].

Bernard 1 noted this sentiment by stating, "just in talking with people [who teach with other institutions], [Samuel] pays less than some of the other colleges and universities."

Finally, capitalizing on the significant in-kind contributions of the school system ensured that partnerships were low cost. The first in-kind contribution was the college's use of school system facilities for holding classes. Samuel 3 noted the balance the college struck with the partnership model, "There's a tradeoff. [School systems] are providing space and resources to help, and we're providing a different tuition [rate]." A review of the memorandums of understanding stated that the school systems locations for course delivery will be provided "rent free" or for "no fee." As Bernard 2 noted, "[Samuel] has no site costs [for partnership classes]." The partnership coordinators would secure classroom space in local schools or administrative offices every semester. This agreement was outlined in the partnership program descriptions: "[school system] will provide the location for classes to be held and in-kind expenses outlined in the Memorandum of Agreement." Douglas 1 shared, "there were a lot of in-kind services that [Douglas] provided, such as use of the building; all courses were held on [our] property." George 2 also explained the in-kind contribution as, "we're using our own space [for courses]."

For this study, the approximate value of such an in-kind contribution was determined using a market value for business space in those geographic areas (see Table 9 below). Market value for space such as this varied by partnership location and was determined using a commercial real estate website. These calculations are not assumed to reflect the best deals that Samuel College could secure if it had to rent space for its partnerships, but rather they served as a way to approximate the value of the school systems in-kind contributions. The Douglas School System Partnership was not included

in these approximations because Samuel College shifted course delivery back to its campus facilities in 2012.

Table 9: Market Value Approximation of Facility Costs for 2011-2012 Enrollment

Costs (assumes cleaning, maintenance, and security are included in lease costs)	Bernard Partnership Location	George Partnership Location
Cost per sq. ft. of classroom space with presentation technology and internet access	$17/square foot	$9/square foot
Cost per 900 sq. ft. classroom (including restrooms and lounge facility)	$15,300/month	$8,100/month
Number of classrooms needed for academic year (assumes 4 different classes can use 1 classroom each week)	2	1
Total cost per year (monthly rate x number of classrooms x 12 months)	$367,200	$97,200
Total cost savings for 2011-2012 academic year	$464,400	

Note: Data is from local real estate listings.

Other in-kind contributions of the school systems included no-cost communication and advertisement of the partnership programs to school system employees. As Samuel 4 explained, "we were totally dependent on the school system to advertise for the program." The partnership coordinator job description included "advertises partnership program opportunities" as a job responsibility. George 2 explained that the school system would "send out e-mails frequently to say we're looking for a new [partnership] cohort." Samuel 7 shared, "[the school systems] plastered emails and posters all over the place for [the partnerships]."

The primary method of advertising was forwarding an advertisement about the partnership program as a digital flyer to all certified professionals in the three school systems. This saved the college costs on mass advertising. According to the Samuel College duplicating services director (personal communication, September 16, 2013), the educational leadership department would have spent approximately $3,730 if it had printed and distributed the same flyer to the three school systems three times a year for all teachers. This approximated cost assumed the flyers were distributed from the college to schools by hand and that no mailing costs were incurred. For sake of comparison, $3,730 would fund approximately 1.5 adjunct instructor positions.

The school systems also provided two full days of substitute coverage for administrative interns to shadow principals; this was part of a required assignment in the year long internship. Bernard 1 explained, "I think it's a fabulous requirement. The issue we're facing now, and maybe this is another challenge we have, is funding. In the past, [Samuel] paid for a sub three days. Last year they cut it to two. This year? None." Samuel shifted these costs to the school systems.

The daily cost of a substitute varied across the three school systems, but an average cost of $100 per day was used to estimate this in-kind contribution. Based on the credit count and enrollment documents, Samuel College had approximately 55 partnership students participating in the year long internship in 2011. If all interns required substitute coverage for two days, then the total cost would have been approximately $11,000 that year.

The calculations offered above were not meant to represent the actual costs Samuel College would incur if not for the in-kind contributions of the school systems, but

rather a way to illustrate and estimate the value of such contributions. Bernard 2 summarized the benefits of the partnership model by stating quite simply, "There's very little overhead for [the college]." In summary, the low cost of overhead maintained by using program coordinators, adjunct instructors and in-kind contributions of the school system ensured the partnership models saved money.

Generating revenues and building and maintaining a cost saving model were critical to the college and set the conditions for ongoing viability of the partnerships. School system stakeholders also created some clear value as a result of partnering with Samuel College. The first value created was that partnerships were another option for their employees.

Value creation: Added another option for employees. Most of the stakeholders at the college and in the school system shared that the partnerships were designed to be different from the campus based program; this provided an option for employees for obtaining their master's degree of certification in educational leadership.

Douglas 1 shared, "it was real important to our employees that they had some flexibility and some options with regards to pursuing higher education. And so that's where I started pursuing and looking into other alternatives [for degree completion]." Douglas 5 explained some aspiring leaders were

> anxious to get started, they really want to get [the accelerated degree] under their belts and move into an administrative position…maybe [the campus] program doesn't work as well for them so I think [the partnership]'s a nice option; you can do it one of two ways. You have people who want to take a couple of years to get it done [on campus], you have those folks who say you know what I want it done in two [in the partnership].

The Samuel College partnership began as one of many partnerships that the Bernard School System had with institutions of higher education for educational

leadership. According to Bernard 2, the school system had "four or five" partnerships with college and universities at the time its relationship began with Samuel College. In essence, the Samuel College program began as one of many options available to Bernard County employees. Samuel College 3 explained:

> in [Bernard, having partnerships] was part of the fabric of their culture, certainly the convenience of bringing [programs] to locations that were more attractive and offering opportunities for people to enroll in different institutions of higher education. [It] was kind of a shopping mall experience. So what would happen is they would pick a week and they would bring their [higher education] partners in and they would invite [employees] who were interested in their programs to come and learn about the different program offerings [and] shop for the program that was best fit for them.

In the George School System, the partnership was also viewed as a flexible and convenient option for employees. Although guidelines were established in course syllabi and internship handbook approved by the college, the partnerships demonstrated considerable flexibility in the way that class time was managed. The partnership coordinators and adjunct instructors were flexible with student's schedules. School system personnel noted that they worked around students' family life, vacation schedules, and work schedules. George 4 shared her perception of the partnerships' expectations by stating

> [the partnership leaders] really want us to be more flexible than maybe you would find at the campus program. [We were] providing make-up [work] when [students] can't make a class… A little bit more flexibility as far as deadlines. I teach a summer class, so I think mine's even a little bit flexible because you run into people with vacations.

Participants in George provided specific examples to support a notion that the partnership structure was viewed differently by students and drew them into the program. George 5 asserted that this was especially true when students had major life events occurring such as weddings, birth, and vacations. She explained, "none of them [in those situations]

would have joined the [campus program] because [the partnership coordinator] has [told] them we can be very flexible in what we do [in the partnership]…it's sold on that flexibility." George 6 restated a similar perspective she had heard from several partnership students, "I can make the [partnership] cohort work. I don't know if I can handle going to [Samuel] and doing the campus [program]." George 4 shared the school system could reach more candidates because of the flexibility from this type of option:

> The [flexibility] was just something I've had to get used to because I don't know if I'm real flexible person; I'm a rule-follower…So that's just something I've had to wrap my mind around. Which is good, I think – I mean if one of the goals is to create more applicants for the administrative pool, then you know we don't want to cut somebody off just because they can't make a class.

Professors were able to schedule classes around school system events and professional days, use out of class assignments to reduce time spent in class, permit flexible deadlines for assignments, and alter the sequence of assignments. George 6 explained the partnership was

> making it more accessible for people taking the class because we don't start the class until after everybody finishes [work]. We work until 6:30, 7:30 at night kind of thing. We have a pretty flexible schedule doing it this way. I taught the summer course, so I meet whenever they can meet because, of [students getting] married, [on a] honeymoon [or] going on vacation. We really schedule the amount of time that we have to meet based on the needs of the group.

In an observation of an orientation meeting for internship students, a partnership coordinator and adjunct instructor repeatedly stressed that assignment due dates were flexible. They explained that they understood students' work and life schedules may be busier at different times in the internship year, so they wanted students to have flexibility managing their time and workload.

Having a more flexible option for employees that could draw in more candidates was valuable in itself. However, the partnership model was seen as a vehicle for students to experience the real world nature of educational leadership.

Value creation: Infused real world perspectives and application of learning into content. From the college's perspective, adjunct instructors and program coordinators brought real world experience and current perspectives and trends to the classroom in a way that full time professors could not always do. Samuel College 5 illustrated this viewpoint when she noted that the program was

> taught by practicing practitioners. You know, current practitioners. So [Samuel 9] who works at the state level, who better to come in and talk about Common Core or strategic planning, or whatever the topic might be than someone at that level. Or [Douglas 5], [the] curriculum [course], as middle school director, or even when she was a principal. Or you know, the superintendent of [nearby school system], she taught a statistics course… she was the head data person in [Bernard].

To her, this was a high caliber team that brought very real world, practical experience and perspectives and then translated them directly into student learning. Samuel College 5 extended the idea further by explaining that the education department "saw advantage to the number of adjuncts that they have [in educational leadership]. As [an education] department they saw a disadvantage in the number of adjuncts, but for [the leadership] program, they saw [the number of adjuncts] as a strength." Samuel 2 explained having practicing administrators as adjunct instructors

> gives you right away credibility if you have [a school system attorney] from the legal office of the superintendent, who we have had teach adjunct classes before, when you have people [of] that quality talking knowledgably and sharing anecdotes as illustrations… [students] love those anecdotes that are work related because it's their story, it's their life…[instructors have to] make it practical. Practical application is absolutely necessary.

Samuel 6 explained that the college took advantage of the connection with the school systems for making assignments real for students:

> I was able to have a laboratory. The school systems became my laboratory for my master's degree program. In other words, the practice was married strongly with the research. Yeah, and I mean in the laboratory was right there in the [school] system. So that was a big value for [Samuel]. And I could see that a lot of the students became energized with that, as opposed to having maybe artificial assignments-type things to do.

The college's leaders clearly valued the real world perspectives brought into classroom by the adjunct instructors and were able to create that value through the partnerships. The partnership leaders conducted focus groups in two partnerships to gain feedback from students on a variety of topics. A review the summary documents of these two focus groups were reviewed for this study. The documents showed students in the partnerships offered examples of the real-world applications of learning found in course assignments provided by adjunct instructors:

> compared with other programs, [the partnership] is so hands-on; very impressive in terms of practical experiences rather than just learning about theories, scenarios. This is the program's real strength. For example, instead of just hearing about school board meetings, we attended one.

Another student in the focus group noted "[an important component of the program is] requiring, through the internship, actually following through on a project, taking on a leadership role."

Survey results from program completers were collected for examination. Many graduates of the three partnership programs shared this perspective in these surveys. One student stated, "A major strength of the program is the instructors who teach the courses. The instructors have school-based experiences as administrators [in George] and are able to share the theory, but also give the practical side too." The value of hearing the

practical perspectives of adjunct instructors was also reflected in comments made by another student:

> The strengths of the Educational Leadership Program are having many courses taught by leaders in [Douglas] who know the ins and outs and the policies of the county. It really helps make the information that we are learning relevant. The courses themselves are great and the discussions and class experiences were generally good.

This belief was also shared by some interns from the Bernard partnership as well, with a graduating intern reflecting on an exit survey that "most instructors were very knowledgeable and [had] real experiences to share with us to expand our understanding."

The stakeholders in the college and the school systems shared the goal of having real world learning and applications occurring in the classrooms of the partnerships. The school system stakeholders pushed that goal slightly further by ensuring that the partnership experiences truly customized the content and experiences to their own school systems.

Value creation: Customized course content and experiences. All three local school systems utilized the partnerships to customize course content and leadership experiences to ensure students in the partnerships received a program that had, as Douglas 1 termed it, the "flavor" of the school system in which they worked. Samuel 4 explained the customization goal

> in terms of the organizational perspective, I think the tight alignment between [the partnerships] and how the [school system] chooses to do something is a very powerful flavor to the [partnership] cohorts. So you're really training people for the system in which they're going to function as opposed to maybe a more global approach, oftentimes based on the philosophical beliefs of the [schools system] leadership, what it chooses. So I think that's definitely a value-added--a customization.

According to school system personnel in all three partnerships, customization was part of the stated goals of the partnership, although the degree of customization varied between courses and partnerships. Participants contrasted the customization with a more global approach to content delivery that occurred in the campus program at Samuel College. Bernard 3 noted:

> [The campus program] is a little more global. And so I think that's just a challenge instructionally to how do we take the coursework, the rubrics, all the things that candidates need to be successful to meet [Samuel]'s requirements and how do we make them align with what we want [in Bernard]. I say this because I also teach on campus that's an open enrollment. It's not for any cohort. And I do teach the [course] differently [there].

The partnership model was a structure that allowed for such a customization to occur. Partnership documents indicated that the classes were taught at the school system by school system employees in cohorts composed only of school system employees. Therefore, instructors could utilize school system materials to illustrate key educational leadership concepts, invite in guest speakers from within the school system, and base class discussions solely on their school system.

For example, when discussing teacher evaluation in a supervision course, each school system used their own teacher evaluation materials, forms and processes to illustrate the course content about teacher evaluation. Samuel College 4 explained the customization of content:

> In terms of the organizational perspective I think the tight alignment between [Samuel College] and the school systems…adds a very powerful flavor to the cohorts. So having these wonderful adjuncts who come in and say, "Okay, we want to use the Baldridge Award, so this is our conceptual framework [for teacher evaluation]." Or for [another system] it's, "Okay, now we're using the Charlotte Danielson model of evaluation." So you're really training people for the system in which they're going to function as opposed to maybe a more global approach, "Well here are the different theories the school systems [are] going to pick,"

> oftentimes based on the philosophical beliefs of the leadership. So I think that's definitely a value-added [in the partnerships].

Samuel College 6 asserted that each partnering school system had to complete the required performance activities, but they "could do it based on where the [school system] was at that point in time; [they could] customize the activities within the [courses]."

Local school system personnel such as Douglas 4 noted that the partnership allowed school system leaders to "have a hand in leadership training and development, specifically for our needs." Similarly, Douglas 5 noted the school system desired "to meet the need [in Douglas] so we're trying to tailor [the partnership program]." Douglas 3 offered a slightly different view when he shared that if customization was a primary goal of the partnership, then key stakeholders could have done a better job to that end. He stated:

> I don't know that we made use of the model to the extent that we could have. Let's organize this program so that we want to ensure that this is what we're doing in this class, and this is what we're emphasizing in this class. I think we really could have put more of a spin on [our school system], and it was really left up to individual teachers to do that on their own. And maybe the assumption was since it was being taught by [our] administrators that would happen naturally. I think if I were in charge of the program, I would have made more of an effort to coordinate [content and assignments] to ensure that that was happening.

The goal of customization was evident among the views of personnel in the George School System. George 1 explained that customization was an intended goal of the partnership and was part of the recruiting process. She noted, " that's one of the things that we share with people…who come to our interest meeting, is that [the partnership] is the opportunity for you to understand what our expectations are and to know how to become a leader in [the George] system." George 3 noted that partnership graduates, after obtaining a school system administrative position, often thanked her for

using school system materials, processes and information as part of the coursework. She explained, "I've had people come and say, 'You know I'm so glad we did that in the class.' Like when it came to observations, we used our tool.

Because they're so much more familiar with that, stepping into [the job]." George 4 explained, "You have to think that a…new administrator would be…a couple steps ahead of the game if they went through a program that was tailored to [George School System] versus a more generic program, like the [Samuel College] campus." George 2 explained the school system's perspective:

> I think it's very valuable for us as a [school] system but also for our teachers because we can talk about [situations] in a class. We can talk about what they've seen at their schools. We can do scenarios based on real situations within [George].

This customization also occurred in the Bernard Partnership. Bernard 3 affirmed that customization was a goal of the partnership program. Bernard 3 noted, "[Bernard] wants to prepare their candidates to remain [here] and so we try to make sure [the partnership] works for us, within our lingo, within our language, within our professional growth system." Bernard 4 affirmed that partnership instructors used Bernard materials and information in the coursework, but noted that expectations were the same:

> So at the same time [Samuel] does a very good job of delineating specifically within their syllabus what's expected and how they align with the state standards. So although we may add within our discussions, within our activities with the interns, examples or applications that are very [Bernard] specific, we still don't deviate away from the state [requirements].

Customization was evident in the documents collected and during observations in the study as well. For example, in a survey of partnership graduates, a student identified customization as a strength of the partnership program by stating, "the course content is tailored to the school system in which we are employed." During an observation of

Samuel College orientation for newly accepted students in the Bernard School System Partnership, school system and college personnel explained that even though students would complete the same program requirements as the campus program the courses would be taught by leaders from their school system using system materials. This would help them gain a more specific and targeted perspective of their school system during the course work.

The data from participants, documents and observations indicated that stakeholders in all three partnerships created value by customizing the educational experience for each school system while still meeting the overall requirements of the educational leadership program. Stakeholders in all partnerships were quick to point out that even though activities and courses were customized to a specific school system, the expectations for the assignments were the same as in the Samuel College campus program. Douglas 2 stated:

> [in] the campus program and the cohort program, it was the same syllabus, the same activities. [Partnership students] met standards. They were the exact same assessments. Everything. They had to have the same exact requirements [as the campus program]."

Samuel College 5 explained with the partnership students "the curriculum [and] the assessments they must complete are all the same [as the campus program]." But within these non-negotiable requirements, the adjunct instructors had considerable room to customize experiences and content for partnership students.

It was evident that school system leaders had a plan to meet its systemic needs while working within the framework of the educational leadership degree program. One of those most systemic needs was building a pool of qualified leadership candidates.

Value creation: Built a pool of qualified candidates. From the school system perspective, a primary goal of engaging in the partnerships was creating a pool of qualified candidates for the principalship and other administrative positions. Each of the memorandum of understanding stated that the school systems recognized a need to maintain "a pool of highly qualified candidates capable of providing strong instructional leadership." In the data, the need to build the pool of qualified candidates was evident in all four institutions. Participants often expressed the need to develop leaders in order to have a deeper bench of candidates who have the necessary certification to hold an administrative position.

When asked whether the partnerships were in fact meeting the intended goal of building a pool of candidates to meet succession demand, George 1 stated, "We were filling our positions and so it was, I think the assumption [was] the program was effective and we were doing what we needed to do." She further illustrated the goal of meeting succession needs:

> I would say 60 percent of our students have gone on to be principals or assistant principals. And those who've not become principals or assistant principals, there's probably another 15 percent who've been specialists or lead teachers. So we have very few people who've gone through the program who've not been placed in [a] position.

George 2 explained the benefit of building the pool of candidates as, "I think that [George] gains because we have a pool of administrators that we are ready to take off the bench."

When asked about the greatest benefit that Douglas School System has reaped from the partnerships, Douglas 1 asserted, "Successful leadership succession…you can have a leadership succession plan, but if the folks that you are putting in those positions

aren't successful in those positions, then you're just spinning your wheels. But we've been successful in creating leadership succession." Douglas 2 supported this notion, "So, certainly our success is evident in the amount of administrators that have been hired coming out of the [partnership] in the past four years."

Bernard 1 had a similar belief in the success of the Samuel College Partnership (and its other partnerships), sharing that the school system did develop an adequate pool from which to draw. She explained:

> Believe it or not, we have about 200 [candidates] right now in the pool who would like to be principals. So we have a queue. People are waiting in line to be administrators. And there was a time, and I think that's probably when the accelerated [partnership] program started, when we really needed administrators.

When asked about whether the partnerships had reached the goal of building a qualified pool of candidates, Bernard 3 noted that now "there are a lot of candidates. There are 36 in this cohort just from [Samuel]." Bernard 4 drew a sharper distinction between quantity and quality by stating, "[Bernard] wanted, not necessarily deeper pool of applicants, [but] a more highly qualified pool of applicants." He continued, "what we found is there's a lot deeper pool of applicants for the internal administrative training program."

The school systems set a clear goal of developing a large, qualified pool of candidates from which they could find leaders. By all accounts, this goal was reached. However, these candidates had the added benefit of being mentored and guided directly by school system employees.

Value creation: Provided mentoring and career guidance. The memorandums of understanding (MOUs) for each partnership stated that "partnership program would provide students with career guidance through a structured internship and individual career counseling." Structuring the partnerships using cohorts was a critical tool for

fostering a supportive environment that was inviting to candidates. Samuel College and the school system agreed to use the cohort structure in the MOUs, and in an advertisement the college characterized the partnerships' cohort structure as "supporting a true professional learning community." Samuel College 2 highlighted the attractiveness of the cohort structure in the partnerships:

> I think it was considered an effective and efficient way of running the program, the cohort idea. Promise people that they'll have the advantage of working with someone, that colleagues will get to know professionally, and will work with them from the beginning to the end of the program, and you'll finish it, you'll be sure to be finishing it within a certain period of time.

Some participants noted that the sense of community among the students was reported as much stronger than in the campus program. Samuel College 6 shared his perspective on the dynamic that occurred when students were in the partnership cohorts:

> There was seemingly a little bit more of esprit de corps, because the campus program was a drop-in. You may know some students in this class, but you wouldn't know them in another class. So that esprit de corps was not there. Esprit de corps was very high and there was a sense of synergism when you had a cohort. Of the two, I valued the cohort much more than I did the campus program [for these reasons].

Bernard 3 outlined a perspective that viewed cohorts as an advantage for both the school system and the candidates:

> We're building these cohorts, because we think that they make candidates stronger. There's also an emotional element to it because this is stressful for these guys. These are full-time teachers putting a lot of hours. It's draining and when you have people to lean on and say, "We're going get through this," that builds grit.

George 4 explained the support by stating, "[Cohorts] really become a really tight knit group. This last group I had was very inter-dependent and really latched on to each other and really worked well as a group for the most part. Supportive."

Program coordinators and adjunct instructors provided that career guidance and mentoring to partnership students through the cohort structure. This mentoring and coaching was viewed by many as occurring with more regularity and meaning in the partnerships when compared with the Samuel College campus program. **S**amuel College 4 noted that this occurred early on in the partnerships. She explained that adjunct instructors guided students on everything from how to use their portfolio in the employment process to how to gear their projects to better target the school systems' needs "to really capitalize on [the experience]."

From the perspectives of the school systems, the mentoring dynamic in the partnerships was another value gained from partnering. As Douglas 1 shared, the partnership was part of a continuum of support for candidates not only when they aspired to be leaders, but also throughout the process:

> [the partnership] wasn't [only] give people options, get them in the pipeline, get them in positions, and then follow them. It was those things but, throughout those phases, following and supporting them…I think that's the key: not waiting to support them until they get through their program, but supporting them from their aspirations, on through completion, on through being in the [administrative] position.

Douglas 4 noted a very active mentoring approach existed which included finding leadership opportunities for partnership students outside of the coursework: "I'm able to tap these [partnership students] to orchestrate for them additional leadership experiences." This included selecting partnership students to serve on school system committees and task forces. Douglas 5 shared that the adjunct instructors are quite open about the guidance they offer in the partnership, "we're transparent about what we're looking for, we're transparent about the skills that we want to see, [and] we're transparent

about where [students] should be spending [their] time to develop that instructional leadership piece."

The view was similar in the George School System. George 2 described the dynamic as "the coaching piece, that I can see where [the students'] strengths are and where they need to continue to grow, and so I can add [experiences so they] can enhance this skill." George 6 explained partnership students "have somebody coaching [them] along the way [to] move this direction or move that direction…build your resume, that kind of thing." George 4 explained that students in the partnership had an advantage because of the coaching that occurred in the partnership. She stated:

> I think there's probably a couple different reasons for that [advantage]. I think one we probably feel the people who are doing the hiring feel some greater level of comfort with a program that they know is taught by their colleagues, that it's related to the county systems. [The mentoring] would somewhat already put them a step ahead maybe, than somebody that took the campus program.

In Bernard, the belief was reflected by Bernard 1, who noted that adjunct instructors have unique knowledge about the application and interviewing process. She stated, "the [Bernard] adjuncts know the next steps for the people with the [employment] process…they know those [decision makers] and can help guide people." Bernard 3 also explained that adjunct instructors influenced access to the two-year leadership development program by recommending candidates. He noted, "I have a great relationship with human resources and when they're looking at candidates and they see my name on the resume, I do get a lot of calls."

As outlined above, stakeholders created significant value for all organizations and met their intended outcomes. The next type of value to be addressed is value capture. Again, value capture is an outcome that was realized by the school systems or the

college, but was not originally intended. These outcomes were not planned for specifically, but participants identified them as positive outcomes of partnering.

Value capture: Discovered vetting process for potential leadership candidates. Partnership coordinators and adjunct instructors provided the school system a more thorough vetting system for potential administrative candidates. Samuel 5 explained the partnerships "really give [the school systems] opportunity to see and evaluate the future administrators. And you know, that word gets out there. Who should be an administrator, and who shouldn't. They get to see the pickings."

Stakeholders in the George and Douglas school systems explained that adjunct instructors discussed the leadership and employment potential of students in the partnerships. A more thorough vetting process emerged as a result of a series of adjunct instructors working directly with the students in both coursework and the internship. Douglas 4 explained how she discovered this benefit in her role as an adjunct instructor:

> It didn't dawn on me when I first started teaching the class that I would become a corporate spy, and that I would be thinking, 'oh my gosh, this is a great look at the early look [at candidates] I did not anticipate'. I thought I would teach and come home. It's advanced vetting.

Douglas 1 confirmed that adjunct instructors discussed potential candidates and often "they all agree" on the strengths of particular candidates. Douglas 3 illustrated this vetting process and asserted that the vetting of candidates by school system could have been done even more effectively:

> As an [school system leaders], they already had people in the system who were vetting these candidates for them. In other words, in my class while I'm teaching, I'm also getting a sense of who really is prepared to be an administrator. I would say that probably wasn't relied upon enough, but I certainly did have conversations with [school system leaders] a little bit about the quality of my students and what kind of leaders they appeared to be based on classroom

> activities and performance assessments and so on. I'd say that was a benefit. I'm not sure that it was, again, maximized, but clearly it was a benefit.

George 1 shared that this vetting process occurred in her school system as well:

> [George 2] and I do the internship program. It's an opportunity for me to meet individually with students to see them on the job; see them actually functioning in their positions and in leadership capacities. So when you start discussing, questioning, setting up scenarios where they actually have to respond – you realize what they don't have and what they need. I think the internship gives us that benefit of taking a really close look at people.

Students in the George and Douglas partnerships had greater access to key personnel in the local school systems than students in other programs. Some key personnel were decision makers in the hiring process and had worked with partnership students as they progressed through the program. Participants viewed this vetting process as distinctly different and more thorough than the traditional process in which students would complete their course work and internships through the campus program (or at another college or university) and then enter the application and interview process having had limited contact with decision makers in the school system.

Douglas 4 noted the existence of this more thorough vetting process and spoke strongly about the benefit of such a process:

> The personal value I reap from [my role as adjunct], is that I get a first hand, personal look at aspiring administrators and am able to meet them. And because I have met them, I'm able to monitor their progress, to consider them for systemic opportunities such as serving on a teacher leadership or the teacher evaluation committee. This way, I have seen how they interact in a group, I've seen their presentation skills, I'm able, I believe, to make a more informed decision about their readiness to accept a leadership position, because I've seen them in action.

Douglas 5 noted the advantage of having adjunct instructors vetting students in the partnerships because "there are some people that we know coming in, when they show up at the interview, we know a lot about them."

This notion was supported in the George School System when George 2 stated there is a clear benefit of serving as an adjunct instructor in the partnership and getting a better glimpse of students and their capabilities. He stated, "as I told [students in the partnership], usually I'm the same person on the team interviewing them for a position, and I am working with them day to day during the [Samuel] cohort." George 3 spoke to this vetting process in this way, "you get to know a [student] more…to know their work ethic and the value of their work, so that it's not just in an interview that you're meeting them. You know more of what they're about."

The perspective was reinforced by Samuel College personnel, with many admitting that the access to key decision makers and the potential impact on the hiring process is how they "sell" the program to potential students. For example, Samuel College 1 shared:

> I think [students in the partnerships] get the exposure to the decision makers. When [Samuel College goes] out and conducts recruitment meetings or information meetings for potential candidates, that's one of the philosophical dimensions that [we] address very overtly. We are going to put you in touch as a potential administrative candidate with the people who are going to make those decisions. We're going to grow your network. Not only your collegial network with other members of your cohort, but your instructors.

This more thorough vetting process of candidate was seen as a captured value. School system officials also identified that the partnerships created candidates that could move quickly once in leadership positions because of the quality of their leadership skills.

Value capture: Developed fast movers with quality leadership skills. The students in the partnerships were perceived by some participants to be fast movers. Participants felt these students demonstrated and applied their leadership skills and

knowledge more quickly than non-partnership students (including students from other college and university leadership programs).

George 1 described this belief of that partnership students were better prepared:

> I can tell you why I believe that's the case, because [in] interview situations, it is very, very easy to pick out those students who have gone through the [Samuel partnership] program and who [went] through other programs. It's obvious. [Their] responses are better; preparation is better; they're confidence; their understanding of what the system is expecting; and just their overall ability to interview.

George 4 supported this notion by citing an example of a graduate in her school system:

> But I definitely saw – she's risen up and has become a much stronger leader [in the central office]. I've seen her turn into a leader instead of just a curriculum specialist, which is what [her role] was. I think that [success has] happened in other situations as well.

Bernard 1 also supported the belief that partnership graduates were ready to move quickly into administrative roles:

> Principals tell me all the time that when someone has completed the [Samuel partnership] program as compared to some others, they can see the difference in their preparation. So I think they take pride. They feel good that they're a part of that. And I think they feel prepared. So I think it really helps them. I think as far as administrators in [Bernard], they know that they can pretty much count on someone that's coming from [the partnership] to be a strong leader, to do a good job.

Bernard 3 further supported this belief by explaining, "I don't think there's any doubt in my mind that that's why we're building these cohorts, because we do think that they make candidates stronger."

Douglas 1 shared his beliefs about the outcomes for students who went through the partnership program, "we had a significantly higher rate of those candidates graduating from the cohort program moving immediately into administrative positions."

He also compared outcomes for partnership students to those who completed the campus program:

> one of the things that [Samuel did] and what I did as leadership development specialist is followed administrators several years into their administrative experience to determine their success. Our cohort participants, after a few years of graduating from the program and being in an administrative position, were much more highly successful in their [administrative] positions than the campus program graduates.

Douglas 1 went on to illustrate his belief by sharing an example of one graduate's experience upon taking an administrative position:

> Her principal said, who was a very experienced principal within the system, said that she as a beginning administrator was well far advanced in her abilities to perform the role of assistant principal than any other assistant principal that he's ever had. And it's because we took what [Samuel] was requiring her to do and immersed her in [Douglas'] perspective and gave her those leadership opportunities.

Douglas 2 also noted her belief in the preparation of candidates in the partnership:

> Coming out of the cohort, when the assistant principals were hired, they certainly were an asset to their principal coming in…because they didn't have to relearn the way we do things. And [they could] certainly accelerate their leadership positions more quickly, as [was] proven [in our school system].

Participants felt value was captured from these partnership graduates even when they were not immediately placed in administrative positions. For example, partnership students served on school system level workgroups and committees. These committees completed tasks that impacted the school system, not just the individual school. Douglas 4 explained these candidates can impact the school system in a variety of ways:

> such as serving on a teacher leadership or the teacher evaluation committee. I'm able to tap this cohort to orchestrate for them additional leadership experiences which again. This is an advantage we reap from their participation. We are confident in their knowledge and skills so we've used them to support us…in our spring [teacher] screening…interview process for HR. We do send them out on recruiting trips for us as well.

George 1 held a similar perspective of how this value was captured:

> One of the things that I think has happened is that a lot of the people that are in the [partnership] internship have been chosen for committees at a county level. That has come about because, I believe our county values our internship and the cohort process, and has been able to see people grow.

Participants in Bernard noted the impact that partnership interns had on the school in which they worked, including the results of their action research, the projects they did, or the committee work the led. Bernard 1 noted the impact of partnership students was evident in "the action research projects that are required in the internship and the difference that has made in schools." Bernard 3 offered an example of a counselor who went through the partnership program:

> We do a lot with parent outreach. We do a lot with trying to build that capacity of our parents in our communities and I just think the [more] you have people [like her] pulling those programs together, then the better results you have. That's [a benefit] that sticks out at me.

However, a distinction in perspectives in the Bernard system was related to its own two-year, internal leadership preparation program to which all partnership graduates would need to complete before being considered for administrative positions. Bernard 4 noted partnership students were well prepared for the Bernard program because "[the partnership] parallels or it aligns nicely with the [Bernard] internal training program. So what you're getting through the internship is a lot of authentic experiences that, in essence, prepare folks well for the internal training program."

In general, developing fast movers who had quality leadership skills was generally viewed as a benefit for the school systems. However, after exploring the data more deeply, it was apparent that many participants came to believe the partnerships created a hiring advantage for partnership graduates. The hiring advantage was not

necessarily characterized as an unfair advantage. Rather the advantage was attributed to (a) better preparation because of the customized educational experience, (b) key decision makers utilizing the more thorough vetting process of students; and (c) the career guidance and mentoring provided by adjunct instructors throughout the program. Participants in the school systems viewed this advantage as a generally positive outcome.

Samuel College personnel were generally more concerned about any hiring advantage because they were stewards for both the partnerships and the campus program. As noted earlier, participants stressed that the program on the campus and in the partnerships met the same requirements, and the college worked hard to ensure consistency across all program delivery sites. Samuel College 5 expressed his view that

> if students in the partnerships get to know the [decision makers] well, and they know I'm good, when my application comes across the table, human nature is yeah, I want to look at [this student], or I want to look at [that student]. As opposed to someone that they don't know from the [Samuel College] campus program. And [the hiring] really played out just that way. And so I always thought there was almost an unfairness to the [campus students] because they didn't have that visibility [with decision makers]."

Samuel College 1 echoed Samuel College 5's concern in this way:

> I know about who gets hired tells me there may well be [a hiring advantage]… most of the [Douglas] cohort members were hired either as beginning administrators, or in maybe a lead teacher or a resource teacher capacity. Were most of the campus interns [hired]? No. I haven't received word that one was.

Considering these concerns from the college stakeholders, it should be noted that college officials did not overtly sell participation in the George and Douglas partnerships as a hiring advantage to potential students, but it was tacitly communicated to them. As demonstrated earlier, partnership leaders from the college and the school system communicated to students that they would be taking courses directly from school system officials, many of who would be involved in the hiring process, and they would be

getting an inside look at their own school system through the customized experiences and activities. For the most part, this was seen as positive for the college. However, this perceived advantage became problematic for the college when the Douglas Partnership program was viewed by some stakeholders as a direct competition to the campus program.

Douglas 1 and Douglas 2 both noted the recent success of partnership graduates in obtaining administrative and other key leadership positions in the school system. Douglas 1 claimed that "significantly higher rate of those candidates graduating from the [partnership] program [were] moving immediately into administrative positions." Douglas 2 mirrored the view by stating, "Our success is evident in the amount of administrators that have been hired coming out of the [partnership program] in the past four years." Douglas 4 shared that an advantage existed in the partnerships

> because of this vetting process, and because of the knowledge base [partnership students] have…it's mirrored in our [undergraduate professional development schools] because the those interns who complete their student teaching for us, have been handling, manipulating our curriculum during the year, and they've been drinking the Kool-Aid for 10 months before they ever come face to face with us [in an interview], versus someone who was at [another institution] and did their student teaching [in another state].

Douglas 2 offered a unique perspective among school system personnel about the success of partnership students:

> [the coursework was] accelerated and most of these folks came out and went right into applying for an administrative position or a leader position, it was fresh. Students on campus, some of them had been taking classes for five, six years. A class here, a class there. So things have changed in five years in education like everything else. Especially the technology piece.

However, some stakeholders were cautious about the potential negative implications of a more thorough vetting process. George 6 expressed the following

concern that a potential conflict of interest could arise from having adjunct instructors also being key decision makers in the hiring process:

> The other concern that I had…was our folks [were] teaching these classes, and many of them were the same people that were on the interview teams. So there was a sense of could we really be objective about [the candidates]? …as time went on it was perceived that some of these [students] were being recruited to go through [the partnership], and then the same people that were recruiting them were interviewing them I saw that as a huge conflict of interest. [I felt if] we're going to have administration teaching these classes then it should be somebody like…a principal out in a school that doesn't have the direct line authority for interviewing and hiring.

Also offering a note of caution was Samuel College 9, who stated that it would be very concerning for any school system to develop a belief among potential administrative candidates that they "would be able to go into [the Samuel College partnership], take a class with somebody at the top, and get the job." Samuel College 9 further asserted that an objective hiring process would serve as a "check and balance" against any distortions created through the more thorough vetting of candidate by adjuncts from the school systems.

Developing graduates with better leadership skills who could move more quickly once in administrative positions was believed to be an outcome of the partnerships. Participants in George and Douglas shared another value they captured through partnering with Samuel College; they developed an induction program through the partnerships.

Value capture: Capitalized on an induction function. Stakeholders in the George and Douglas school systems came to realize that a unique dynamic emerged because of their efforts to customize the learning experiences and the mentoring they offered. A closer examination of the interrelationships of these two intended outcomes

revealed that the partnerships in the Douglas and George school systems evolved into induction programs for the school system. Beyond a graduate education in educational leadership, the partnership also served as a training or indoctrination vehicle for the school systems.

As Samuel College 1 discussed the complex demands on today's school systems, and noted this complexity also impacts "leadership [development] as well. So it gets more and more complex. So I think to a degree that's probably more than a school system can handle in terms of training their own people. So they look to higher [education]." Douglas 1 reinforced this perspective when he stated that in the Douglas school system "all other aspects of leadership development, from a systemic perspective, has now been dissolved over the past several years [because of budget cuts]". George 2 explained the role of the partnership in induction by sharing

> [Samuel] offered a program to support school systems and I think it's a wonderful program because it provides the flexibility, it provides in-house grooming and training, especially with the staff within the county...so [Samuel] had knowledge [that] this is the type of program we'd like to have [here].

An important distinction between customization and induction should be made. As Douglas 2 noted, the partnerships eventually developed a "flavor" of the school system. The data supported that participants engaged with the day to day workings of the partnership viewed their work as customization, but key personnel in the school system hierarchy viewed it as much more. The partnership served a specific training or induction function that allowed the school system to invest fewer resources for induction once partnership graduates actually obtained administrative positions.

Samuel College 6, who was instrumental in the development of the partnerships, spoke to this perspective:

> Because what I'm hearing from [the school systems is], you get your master's degree, …but at the same time, if we just use our [materials], and our folks, we can also do the training components that you would often have to do if you had to an induction for new administrator that came from out of the system.

Douglas 1 explained the school system was developing potential employees who were, "immersed in the leadership perspectives of [the Douglas School System], so that when they applied for the positions, they already had a wealth of experiences so they could walk into a leadership position and be [able] to perform the responsibilities." Douglas 4 explained that candidates from the partnership "are ready to be hired, we've already provided some training to them." Making a contrast to the Samuel College campus program, Douglas 3 explained the training function in the partnership:

> this idea that we could really do a good job of creating a program to properly assimilate our administrators [was present]. So it's not just a graduate program, but it's really kind of an indoctrination program, in a sense, into what it's like to be an administrator in [the Douglas School System].

Douglas 5 further explained, "we benefit directly, because [partnership students] already received some of the training that we may have given to a new hire [from other programs]."

George School System personnel shared a nearly identical perspective. George 6 discussed the customization of course content as serving a training function. She shared that through the partnership, the school system was

> going to look at creating this program in partnership with [Samuel College], and the hope is as a result of it, and using our own folks to do a lot of the teaching, we can sort of mold these folks to the [George School System] way and have a trained group ready to come out of the gate when we need them. [For example] if I'm talking about negotiations and bargaining units I'm more likely to rely on what I know about how [George] moves through that process, use the contract language here as an example, which then helps folks to understand that better and ultimately be able to use it more effectively if they are hired as administrators.

In contrast, the Bernard stakeholders did not view the partnerships as ever evolving into more than just an option for employees to obtain their degree or certification. Bernard 2 explained that early in the development of the partnership, the first partnership coordinator tried to better connect the partnership to the Bernard system:

> He was – he worked for [Bernard] for many years, retired and then worked for [Samuel]. And I think he had very good intentions of trying to link what was going on with [Samuel] with the [Bernard program]. [He] tried to link with [Bernard's leadership program] and what [Bernard] was trying to do to prepare administrators. I don't think it ever worked out the way [he] really wanted it to.

Bernard 2 viewed the partnership with Samuel College as another option for its employees; in his view, the partnerships were "add-ons" that "never got added to the fabric of [our school system]." Bernard 3 shared what he believed the school systems view was of the partnership, "I don't believe [Bernard officials] look at the cohort with [Samuel] as any type of training. It's one of five things that candidates have to have [to get to be administrators]. It's a certification or degree."

Bernard 2 noted that this might be, in part, because of Bernard's organizational culture. He shared, "[Bernard] is an interesting place to work. They don't depend on anybody else. And they're leery about trusting higher [education]." Bernard 4 reinforced this perspective when he explained that, "[Bernard] can be very insular; we can be very 'state of [Bernard]', [that] we've cornered the market on how to do [leadership] correctly." Bernard 1 supported this view, "But I think there is a culture in [Bernard] that they're better than other systems because they have been recognized nationally for [leadership development]."

The induction function provided through the partnership was a clear value captured by the George and Douglas school systems. The college also captured value

through its partnership efforts. The college built credibility with a variety of stakeholders.

Value capture: Built credibility with stakeholders. A perspective voiced from the college was that the use of adjunct instructors created credibility for the educational leadership program with perspective students, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), and the state education that governs higher education. Illustrating this theme, Samuel College 2 noted:

> [using adjuncts] gives you, right away, credibility if you have someone…from the legal office of the superintendent, who we have had teach adjunct classes before or another attorney, who's…with the Department of Justice; well then you have people who are talking knowledgably and sharing anecdotes as illustrations.

Samuel 5 shared her belief that the partnerships built credibility for the college using a more personal perspective, when she noted that "not one" of her doctoral program instructors "had been a principal." Having practicing administrators heavily involved in the partnerships was essential from her perspective, and had been a central tenet from the inception of the partnerships.

The theme of adjunct instructors providing credibility to the educational leadership partnership was repeatedly affirmed in the document analysis process. On the front end, the college asserted the critical role of the adjunct instructors in its advertisement materials for the partnerships, with one advertisement stating explicitly that "former and current administrators" teach the courses. As noted earlier, the program evaluations completed by students in the partnerships frequently cited the practical background of adjunct instructors, their extensive knowledge of current practice in schools, their understanding of the local school system, their insight on state and national trends, and their passion for school administration as strengths of the partnerships.

Samuel 4 explained why adjunct instructors were used to bring credibility to the educational leadership program and its partnerships:

> I think it was about legitimacy because I think like the professional development school movement, the clinical model -- all of that was about that relevance and rigor. So it was that you couldn't [award] advanced certificates without really showing that you were in fact preparing people for the rigors and the challenges that they would experience.

In surveys of partnership graduates, this theme of credibility was reinforced by comments students made about adjunct instructors including:

- The knowledge base of the adjunct instructors is a strength. They are practitioners for the most part and really know their stuff.
- Courses taught by leaders in [the school system]…helps make the information that we are learning relevant.
- A major strength of the program is the instructors who teach the courses. The instructors have school-based experiences as administrators and are able to share the theory, but also give the practical side too.
- The instructors are knowledgeable and [share] real life situations. Their experiences and stories are meaningful as they put [knowledge] into action for students.

College stakeholders also felt that the college gained credibility with the broader education community in the form of positive reputation. When asked about benefits of partnering for the college, Samuel 3 explained that its reputation grew in the Bernard School System as a result of the partnership:

> I'll start with name recognition. I think we had a more long-standing connection to [Douglas] and [George], and so I'm not sure that our name recognition changed all that much because of these partnerships, but it was positive if it did change. But with [Bernard], I think that would be one [we grew in recognition].

Samuel 4 noted the positive impact the partnerships had on Samuel's reputation:

> what I saw in the cohort programs was the word of mouth, that when you're a competent professional and you're looking for that next credential, particularly like the certification in ed. leadership, you are drawing people who really want to know that if investing the time and energy is worth its value. And I think [partnerships] had a very good word of mouth reputation. People who went through the [partnerships] went on to be administrators, they talked about that program. So that word of mouth was very powerful.

When discussing enrollment growth, Samuel 1 stated, "I think that [the educational leadership program] reputation is pretty much what's driving us now."

In addition to building credibility in the education community, Samuel 4 felt that the partnerships with all three school systems built the college's reputation with the state education agency and the evaluators from The National Council on Teacher Accreditation (NCATE):

> two people from [the state] as part of our NCATE accreditation team visited [the partnership] sites in [George] and [Bernard]. And when we were getting the final report for [the state] and from NCATE, those two people from MSDE…went on and on about the educational leadership program. And they were talking to students as well as faculty there. And that just is a very proud moment for me as a department chair here. [Partnerships students and staff] were the ones who were pushing us over the top [with evaluators], which was really heartwarming.

Samuel College 9 explained that Samuel College reputation in the state benefitted from its partnerships, especially the one with Bernard. He explained, "I would say that with [Samuel], they're working on more of a statewide presence, [with the partnerships] that happens to a greater degree. If they didn't have the cohort in [Bernard], who would know where [Samuel] was?" Douglas 1 noted his work of the Samuel-Douglas Partnership was visible at the state education agency and in other school systems. He explained:

> And I was heavily invested at the state as well, as far as leadership development, and because of some of the things that we started [in the partnership]. I was

> working with other systems to get their leadership development programs developed and off the ground.

Stakeholders at the college assessed the value it was either creating or capturing and sought to expand its program and nurture its growing reputation. Those stakeholders saw an opportunity to partner with other school systems in the area. What they discovered was that their first partnership was a model easily replicated with other school systems.

Value capture: Created a replicable model of partnering. Although not specifically identified as a goal of the first partnership, the college took full advantage of its success and replicated the model with two other school systems. As outlined above, the college officials knew the partnership model generated revenue and was economically viable. As Samuel 6 explained, "we brought in a lot of money based on low tuition but a large number. So it was bringing the money in…that's the context of how it got started [in Bernard], and then it mushroomed to [George]. And then finally we took on a cohort for [Douglas]." Samuel 4 also noted the success of the partnership model:

> Based on the success of [the Bernard] program, we moved to [George]. So that partnership program, at least when I was associated with it, only offered the certificate program. And then from that [success] began some discussions about a [Douglas] partnership.

She pointed out that the Douglas School System was located in the same county as Samuel College, so college officials debated the benefits of offering Douglas a partnership that "would in fact compete with the [campus] program." She shared that leaders at the college concluded that beyond revenue, another rationale for expanding to new school systems was based on the quality of the model:

> the cohort model really is a strong model for programs, particularly programs that deal with leadership, because of the networking, the opportunity to understand the

> [school system], to use adjunct professors that were situated in the [school system]. This is what we believe is the right way to do things.

In essence, the college officials realized they had created and captured considerable value for both the college and the school system.

Once Samuel College proposed a partnership in the George School System, the existing partnership model with Bernard was quickly adjusted to meet the needs in George. The memo of understanding was basically the same as the one from Bernard with some minor adjustments. A review of documents showed that Samuel College made use of the same processes, procedures and paperwork it had developed in the Bernard Partnership. George 1 explained that the college applied what it had done in the first partnership to the George partnership, "There were some [processes] in place; there were the assessments; things that they had been doing on campus. And I think they were also looking at [the Bernard Partnership] at that point [as an example]."

In turn, the memorandum of understanding in the Douglas Partnership was also similar. Many of the same processes in the previous partnerships were used in Douglas. Douglas 1 talked about the ease of establishing a partnership with Samuel:

> There were not many challenges at all. It was very clear what we wanted going into the partnership, and because we were very clear from both the [Samuel] and the [Douglas] perspectives, it minimized any challenges or problems. And anything that did come up, because of my position at the time, we were able to problem-solve and troubleshoot right away.

As an indication of the college's belief in the reliability of the partnership model, as of 2012, stakeholders at the college were looking to replicate the partnership model in a fourth school system. Samuel 7 explained, "Samuel 1 is looking at delving in [this fourth school system]." Samuel 1 explained the thinking:

> to be honest we have a number of folks in our program on campus from [this fourth school system]. Some [local] residents, some not. It's my hope for our program that we could extend to [partnering with that school system].

Samuel 7 added that replicating the partnership model would "put us in competition with [another college], but if you're not dealing with the proximity issue, if you're actually putting people into classrooms in their own [school system], that might not be a problem."

Summary

In the school-university partnerships in this study, stakeholders in all organizations were able to create and capture value for their own organizations. It was apparent that stakeholders not only created value they intended, but also captured value beyond what was a planned. This value creation and capture was organization and partnerships specific, with variance in outcomes evident across and within sites. Using a conceptual framework of preconditions, processes, and outcomes, along with the conceptualizations of value creation and value capture, this study produced answers to the research questions. This same conceptual framework was also used to interpret the findings and offer recommendations.

Chapter 5: Interpretations, Conclusions and Recommendations

Introduction

Using negotiated order theory as a framework for the study was beneficial when applied to the inter-organizational domain of school-university partnerships. Focusing the data collection and analysis on the preconditions, processes, and outcomes of these partnerships resulted in findings that stakeholders of other organizations who were interested in partnering (or were in the process of partnering) would find valuable. Integrating value creation and value capture as conceptualizations for the outcomes further framed the findings and should prove useful for building and maintaining successful partnerships.

The research questions for this study were focused on three school-university partnerships. Specifically:

- How do stakeholders engaged in school-university partnerships create value for their own organizations?
- How do stakeholders capture value from the school-university partnership beyond the value they intended to create?

Information for answering the research questions was evident in the story of these partnerships. The partnerships were analyzed in Chapter 4 using the lenses of preconditions, processes, and outcomes (Gray & Wood, 1991; Wood & Gray, 1991). Value creation and value capture were used to further define the outcomes of collaboration. Clear findings were evident in the data. The findings explained the preconditions that drove the organizations to collaborate, highlighted the processes used by stakeholders to build and maintain the partnerships, and identified the types of value

that were created and captured for each organization. Much is known about how the stakeholders in this study created and captured value for their organizations. Extending the conceptual framework of this study, the findings of this study were interpreted using the lens of the negotiated order theory, and the interpretations were organized according to the preconditions, processes and outcomes of the school-university partnerships.

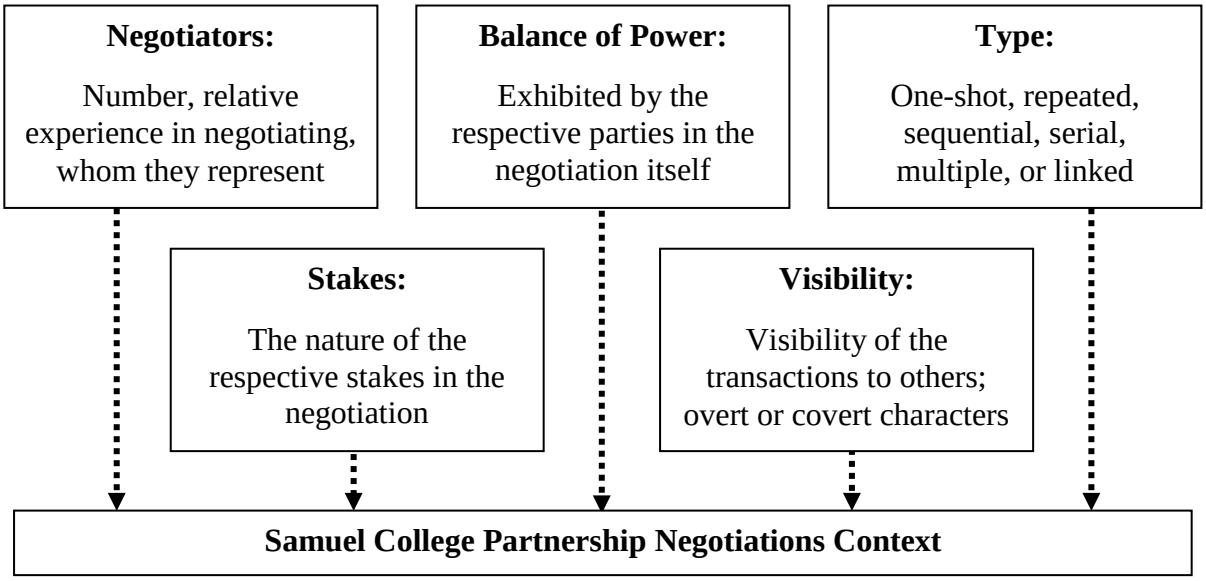
To gain a more comprehensive view of how stakeholders created and captured value, a deeper look at the negotiated order of the partnerships in the study was warranted. Strauss (1978) asserted that any look at the social processes in an organization demanded an analysis of the negotiated order. He noted that negotiations always took place in social settings, and therefore all social settings had some form of negotiated order. Specifically attention was given to what Strauss (1978) termed the negotiation context (see Table 4 for overview).

According to Strauss (1978), the negotiations context was comprised of the structural properties present in a negotiation and affected the negotiations process and outcomes. He further explained that the "specific negotiation context cannot be properly analyzed except in conjunction with a clear specification of the relevant structural context" (p. 243-244). In this study, influence of all structural properties was evident to some degree, however the structural properties that most affected the negotiations context of the school-university partnerships in these cases were (a) negotiators; (b) balance of power; (c) stakes; (d) visibility; and (e) type. To provide clarity, the negotiations context in this study is illustrated in Figure 4 below.

The negotiations context and the resulting negotiated orders provided a framework for identifying specific actions stakeholders took to create and capture value

for their own organizations. The findings about *how* these stakeholders created or captured the value were not always explicitly clear. In any human endeavor, especially one as complex as a partnership that involved many stakeholders over a long period of time, the answer to *how* may not always be simple. In this study, readers could list four or five actions stakeholders took to meet a particular goal or outcome, because these actions were evident in the data and were shared in the findings. On the converse, even though the evidence suggested a specific value was captured through partnering, it was not easy to glean how stakeholders did so.

Figure 4: The Negotiations Context of the Samuel College Partnerships



Specific actions of stakeholders were more apparent when taking a broader view of the findings and the supporting data to interpret the negotiations context and the resulting negotiated orders. Stakeholders developed a negotiated order within each partnership. The three negotiated orders had similarities and differences, depending on the degree to which the five structural properties manifested as conditions in each

partnership. They are interpreted here as they related to the preconditions, processes and outcomes of the three school-university partnerships.

Interpretations of the Preconditions

The context that stakeholders in these organizations were responding to was very complex. Teachers had challenging jobs and busy lives. Leading in modern schools was complicated. Demographic changes were impacting all aspects of education. Political winds changed frequently. Budgets were tight. The skills needed in the globalized, innovation based economy were different than what was needed only ten year ago. Information was growing rapidly and moving quickly.

Stakeholders in the college and the school systems recognized that partnerships could be a model to effectively respond to this complex context and preconditions. The preconditions that led to the creation of the Samuel College partnerships, as outlined in Chapter 4, included the financial difficulties of the college, the concerns about leadership succession in the school systems, the connectivity between the college and the school systems, and Samuel College's growing reputation in the region.

In the literature on collaboration, authors characterized the purposes of collaborating as responding to some type of complex problem (Gray, 1989) or set of conditions in the interorganizational environment (Austin, 2000a; Doz & Hamel, 1998). As Gray (1989) noted, collaboration can target problems when "existing processes are insufficient" and "stakeholders have differing degrees of expertise" (p.10). Austin (2000a) also noted the "inescapable interdependence" among organizations, businesses and governments and the "synergies" such interconnectedness creates (pg. 7). The college and school system stakeholders knew they needed expertise from one another to

develop a response that no single organization could mount on its own, so co-specialization was the initial purpose for the partnerships (Doz & Hamel, 1998).

As Doz and Hamel (1998) explained, a co-specialization partnership occurs when two (or more) organizations engage in collaboration to take advantage of the specialized skills of each organization because neither organization can accomplish the goal on its own. These school–university partnerships responded to the preconditions by taking advantage of the combined strengths of the organizations. However, stakeholders both responded to and capitalized on these preconditions to address their own organizations' needs as well. They did so by taking mutually beneficial actions, championing the cause, and focusing on what was at stake for their own organizations.

Stakeholders took mutually beneficial actions. Stakeholders in all organizations approached the preconditions and the resulting school-university partnerships in a manner that allowed other stakeholders to both provide and receive value. This is not to say that all actions stakeholders took were intended to provide a benefit to the other organization, but rather the actions of stakeholders often did, regardless of intent. This indirect or unintended accrual of value in either organization as a result of their collaborative efforts is what Birmingham (2006) and Doz and Hamel (1998) defined as value capture.

Stakeholders who created the partnerships served as the negotiators of the formal structure and were able to establish goals that were critical to their own organization's interests and needs. Much was at stake for the college and the school systems. The college stakeholders focused on addressing the pressing financial needs of the college, and the school system stakeholders targeted their lack of qualified candidates to ensure

leadership succession. In these cases, the two goals were not incompatible, and they were the priorities that guided the partnership design. Researchers in the field of collaboration have concluded that acting in the interest of one's own organization is essential for the success of collaborative efforts. If one organization fails to reap benefits for itself, its interest in partnering will fade or cease (Doz & Hamel, 1998).

The negotiations at the start of the partnerships could be characterized as one-time in nature and highly visible. Stakeholders created the partnerships through public actions such as planning meetings, declarations of commitments, advertisement of the partnerships, recruitment of students, and management of critical logistics. Stakeholders designed each partnership by developing memorandums of understanding, identifying outcomes, clarifying roles, developing processes, managing logistics, and training personnel. There was some trial and error associated with the partnerships, but much of the negotiation, design and implementation in each partnership occurred within a few months of the initial decision to partner.

Stakeholders for all organizations ensured that the negotiations, and the resulting partnerships, were visible to key constituencies. This was consistent with Linden (2002), who encouraged partnership stakeholders to promote their collaborative efforts to external constituents. School system stakeholders offered the partnerships as a means of meeting leadership succession needs. They promoted the partnerships as a way to reach out to reluctant candidates, get better results, and build stronger leaders. They shared this belief and the resulting partnership model with their internal leadership, which often included the superintendents and Boards of Education. College officials engaged in a program development initiative that spanned multiple departments in the graduate school.

The stakeholders sold the potential impact the partnerships could have on enrollment and the college's overall financial solvency within the college community.

However, both organizations also offered the partnerships as an option for students to get their degree or certification. In these cases, stakeholders visibly promoted the partnerships as a unique option for obtaining an educational leadership master's degree. The stakeholders designed partnership models that were viewed as more responsive to the lives of teachers who were aspiring to be school leaders than traditional preparation programs. As Linden noted (2002) partnerships were flexible and important tools for gaining results, responding to the changing context of the world, and providing "better service, value and outcomes for customers, stakeholders, and communities" (p. 6). Stakeholders created partnerships that provided lower tuition costs, an accelerated structure, mentoring and career guidance, and access to key school system officials who influenced the hiring process.

The stakeholders took advantage of the interconnected nature of their organizations. The negotiators could respond to the preconditions because they were interconnected, empowered, and competent. Described earlier, stakeholder connectivity played a considerable role in creating a negotiations context based on trust, familiarity, and equality. This precondition allowed stakeholders in all organizations to quickly respond to the pressing need of their organizations. Stakeholders approached one another as legitimate in their roles and competent within their areas of responsibility because negotiators from each institution were familiar with one another. This familiarity allowed the stakeholders to progress quickly through the early period of partnering in which stakeholders get acquainted (Austin, 2000a), secure compatibility

with one another, determine the contributions each can make (Doz & Hamel, 1998), and legitimize one another (Gray, 1989).

Although this connectivity existed in all partnerships, it varied in the way it impacted relationships. The George and Douglas Partnerships were much smaller than the Bernard Partnership, which sustained an enrollment almost as large as the campus program. The relationships among stakeholders in the smaller partnerships were characterized as collegial and familial. Stakeholders in these school systems were more interconnected with stakeholders at the college. The negotiators in these school systems and the college worked together very informally. In contrast, the Bernard Partnership was viewed more as a separate organization or entity, almost having a life of its own. The school system was described as unique, insular, and self-reliant. Stakeholders at the college approached this partnership differently. The negotiators in this school system and the negotiators at the college interacted in a more businesslike manner. In each case, the interconnectedness did help stakeholders create partnerships that addressed the needs of each organization.

Stakeholders championed the cause. Champions emerged within all three partnerships (Linden, 2002). The college and the school systems all assigned personnel to engage in the work of partnering; someone was given this responsibility in each organization and this was likely codified somewhere in a memo and an organization chart. However, a much richer dynamic resulted: key stakeholders rose to become champions of the partnership cause. Linden (2002) defined champions as those individuals who have clout and passion for the collaborative effort. In these cases, champions emerged in all of the partnering organizations, and were frequently cited as

key contributors to the development, design, maintenance and evaluation of the partnerships. Stakeholders in each organization demonstrated what Linden (2002) called "collaborative leadership" because they passed down considerable control and autonomy to personnel assigned the task of partnering (p. 145), and this established the conditions in which champions who were passionate about partnering emerged and created such a notable impact.

Samuel College had champions at all levels of the institution, which allowed the program development initiative in the educational leadership program to grow quickly. The early directors of the program were strong drivers of the program's success. As Linden (2002) highlighted, collaborative leaders showed strong beliefs and personal commitment in regard to collaboration. The college personnel tasked with developing the program and its partnerships were dedicated to the mission of building leaders; they were vested. The college rallied to the champions. This enthusiasm was matched in the school systems. The partnership coordinators championed the school-university partnerships in their roles as Samuel College staff and as school system leaders. They were repeatedly credited and complimented by members of the college and school system, and in two cases their potential retirement from the partnerships was seen by many as a critical juncture for the future of the partnerships. They brought passion, vision and energy that sustained the partnerships.

Many participants expressed a concern that failing to find new champions with the dedication and know-how of the current champions could place the partnerships into a period of instability. Linden (2002) asserted that people who are viewed as champions remain engaged with the partnership "for a while" (p. 85). The earlier loss of a champion

at Samuel College did result in a period of instability for the educational leadership program, even if the direct effects on the partnerships were minimized some by the autonomous nature of the partnerships themselves.

Stakeholders focused on what was at stake for their organization. The stakes in the negotiations context were organization specific. As noted earlier, stakeholders in the school systems viewed leadership development and succession planning as most at stake. Stakeholders at the college identified revenue generation and program development as the stakes most critical to them. Stakeholders in all organizations were motivated to partner as a result. Linden (2002) noted that people usually work better together when they have a common project, product, or program to work on that involves "high stakes" (p. 107).

Stakeholders in the George and Douglas School Systems were very concerned about leadership succession. Both systems faced a critical need for qualified leaders to assume administrative positions. They needed to build the pool of candidates quickly and wanted the partnerships to be tailored to their needs. Many teachers within their school systems held administrative certification, but they did not possess the skill set or dispositions that school system officials sought. There was a significant "sense of urgency" among stakeholders (Linden, 2002, p. 117). As discussed in Chapter 4, the Bernard System did not perceive its stakes to be equally high for their system; they needed an option for employees to obtain their leadership degree or certification and be prepared to enter their internal leadership program. To the Bernard School System, Samuel College was one of many options available to employees.

Although the state education agency was pushing for partnerships as a model to better support leadership succession, no law or mandate required partnering. Therefore, no structural imbalance of power was present in the partnerships; neither the college nor the school systems was subordinate to the other, and there were no defined jurisdictions or codified lines of authority. (This type of imbalance might occur in collaborations involving different levels of government where one entity has authority over another or in partnerships among different law enforcement agencies.) In the cases of these partnerships, stakeholders developed school-university partnerships based on what was at stake: leadership succession concerns in the school systems and financial challenges of the colleges. These factors defined the balance of power among the partnering institutions.

Power was generally balanced among stakeholders and institutions involved in the Douglas and George Partnerships. Neither school system had a leadership development program of its own. The stakeholders established the partnerships to not only serve as a path toward certification, but also means of training school system leaders using school system perspectives. They needed the partnerships for induction. On the converse, Samuel College stakeholders viewed both partnerships as a way to build and maintain steady enrollment and income. Because the perceptions of what was at stake in the partnerships were similar in the school systems and the college, the power was balanced.

This was the case until enrollment in the Douglas Partnerships did not meet the college's threshold for sustaining the partnership. The partnership ceased to meet the college's need. At that time, the balance of power shifted to the college, and the

partnership was discontinued. This was decided even after the Douglas stakeholders proposed changes in order to keep the partnership running.

In contrast to these partnerships, the balance of power in the Bernard Partnership was tilted toward the school system. Revenue generation was more critical to Samuel College than leadership succession was to the Bernard School System. Although Bernard valued the partnership, it was not as critical to them as it was to the George and Douglas systems. The school system had its own internal leadership development program, so once candidates received certification through a college or university, the school system could develop and induct school leaders into their school system. This imbalance in stakes gave the Bernard System, to some extent, an upper hand in the negotiated order with the college.

Stakeholders created and captured value by addressing and capitalizing on the preconditions that led to collaboration. They took mutually beneficial actions, championed the cause of partnering, and focused on what was at stake for their own organization. They also took specific actions during the processes of collaboration.

Interpretations of the Processes

Gray and Wood (1991) stated that processes exist in collaborative efforts and negotiated order theory could be instructive in understanding those processes. Processes can be constructed and formalized when organizations collaborate; these are the processes codified in writing and are common in any bureaucratic structure. In contrast, some processes are far less formal and become negotiated by the people who function within the collaborative effort. These processes emerge, and actually may circumvent or subjugate the formal, codified processes (Strauss, 1977). Because these informal

processes are not planned or created, they can only be identified after the process has emerged. In these cases, stakeholders built relationships, fostered autonomy and made adjustments to create and capture value for their own organizations.

Stakeholders built relationships. Stakeholders in all organizations built relationships within and across partnering organizations. These relationships proved critical in developing effective interfaces in all three partnerships. In addition, stakeholders valued the energy and power of relationships. They expressed rapport, respect, admiration, care, appreciation, and awe for other stakeholders with whom they collaborated. The stakeholders built on the connectivity that existed across the organizations; this connectivity helped stakeholders in partnering organizations to have a working understanding of the culture and structure of the other organization. Relationship building was a critical process for creating and sustaining the partnerships.

Austin (2000a), Doz and Hamel (1998), Gray (1989), and Linden (2000) discussed the importance of people in collaborative efforts; each author identified the key role people, and more importantly, the right people play in successful collaborations. Whether it was ensuring there was a champion (Linden, 2002), involving authorizers (Austin, 2000a), gaining commitments from parties and legitimizing stakeholders (Gray, 1989), or designing the best interface (Doz & Hamel, 1998), these authors asserted that people directly impacted the success of partnerships as much or more than designs, processes and products.

In these cases, stakeholders noted the critical contributions that an early director made when building the educational leadership program and the first two partnerships; they framed the early work he did in the context of vision, reputation, and connectivity

and gave secondary consideration to the actual steps he took or the products he created. Even in discussions about creating new procedures, processes and paperwork, the focus was on how effective support staff was at making it happen quickly and with great results. Participants talked less about the new process or product and more about how people responded or acted in order to meet the goals of the partnership.

Stakeholders fostered autonomy. As noted in Chapter 4, stakeholders used established processes or created new ones to support the partnerships. The partnership coordinators from all three partnerships assumed most of the responsibilities for managing these processes. This is partly why partnership coordinators were viewed as critical to the success of the partnerships. Once students were accepted into the cohorts and oriented, the majority of their interactions were with the coordinators, who also served as their academic advisors. Students generally spent little to no time on campus or with campus-based personnel. This critical reliance on the partnership coordinators resulted in conditions under which each partnership could function with relative autonomy. Samuel College personnel would occasionally visit the partnership locations; although this was important, these visits appeared to be as more symbolic as the partnerships progressed.

In all three partnerships, stakeholders generally found conducting the day to day business of the partnership to be rewarding, even if sometimes hectic. The general focus of stakeholders within the negotiated orders was one of maintenance. The program directors focused primarily on quality controls of the program (e.g., monitoring required assessments, admitting students, managing enrollment). The program components that pertained to quality control such as the common assessment reporting system, the

benchmark rubrics, and the requirement of passing the State Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA) were non-negotiable. However, partnership coordinators demonstrated considerable autonomy and engaged in many less visible and insulated actions with all other aspects of the partnerships including selecting adjunct instructors, administering assignments, adjusting deadlines, delivering content, and selecting course materials.

This autonomy led to significant value creation and capture, as seen in the findings. As discussed above, autonomy allowed stakeholders to work strategically in their own interests, but toward a mission and goals that ensured value creation for all organizations.

Stakeholders made adjustments. Doz and Hamel (1998) stressed the need to have measures and mechanisms in place to chart the progress of partnerships so that adjustments can be made to ensure partners continue to receive the intended benefits outlined when the partnerships began. They cautioned stakeholders to anticipate "points of tension" that might arise during the collaborative process, specifically noting that the balance of value between organizations is a tension that should be anticipated within co-specialized partnerships (p. 87).

In terms of process, the college made adjustments to its billing processes, course assessments, and course requirements based on the requests and recommendations of partnership coordinators or school system leaders. The college was especially attentive to the Bernard Partnership because of its impact on enrollment and revenue. The college stakeholders made adjustments when requested by the Bernard School System, and these adjustments were occasionally replicated in the other two partnerships. The college was

quick to make these adjustments because the balance of power within the Bernard Partnership favored the school system, as discussed above.

The formal negotiations between the college and each school system involved an interface consisting of empowered stakeholders, many at high levels in each organization. This formal negotiation was eventually adjusted to a much smaller interface in each partnership, thereby allowing a less formal order to arise. The smaller interface usually involved the educational leadership program director, the partnership coordinator for the school system, the dean of the graduate school, and support staff from the college or school systems. More stakeholders would occasionally enter these negotiated orders when needed (e.g., resolving tuition related issues, administering leaves absence for students, orienting new adjunct instructors). As a result, stakeholders used employees' time wisely. All stakeholders recognized that once the partnerships were established, they could greatly reduce the size and scope of the interfaces. This allowed many college and school system stakeholders to back away from the functioning of the partnerships, preserving their time for other responsibilities within their own organizations. In addition, adjunct instructors functioned with significant autonomy, so little time was spent in meetings as part of their role with the college.

Organizations can collaborate for several purposes. As discussed earlier, co-specialization was the most applicable reason for partnering in these cases (Doz & Hamel, 1998). Stakeholders in the school systems could not achieve their own goals without the contributions of stakeholders in the college, and vice versa. The findings support that this was the case in these three school-university partnerships. Doz and Hamel (1998) also noted that organizations can collaborate for the purpose of co-option,

defined as when one organization engages in collaboration to obtain market share or to get access to a technology, process or skill that it does not possess. The school systems certainly needed the college to award certification, but this was obtained when the partnerships were co-specialized.

Because the type of negotiations used to create the partnerships was one-time in nature, many school system stakeholders then engaged in less visible actions to adjust the negotiated orders of the George and Douglas partnerships. Because of budgetary constraints, neither school system possessed a leadership development program through which they could induct and train new administrators. Stakeholders in these school systems took actions toward developing a school-system specific training and induction program through the partnership; they essentially co-opted the educational leadership program for their own purposes.

As outlined in the findings, stakeholders in these two school systems believed they developed candidates who had quality leadership skills as a result of the customized learning experiences in the partnerships. They mentored those candidates on their career paths and vetted them as potential administrative candidates. The two school systems took the opportunity to move the partnerships from a service delivery model to induction programs. The college paid school system officials as coordinators and adjunct instructors, who in turn used the college's educational leadership program to meet their own goal of leadership development. They were able to create a de facto leadership development and induction program under the auspices of the college.

To be clear, none of the stakeholders identified co-option as a goal or intended outcome, but co-option, in essence, was what occurred. This view was especially

supported when considering the hiring advantage of partnership graduates. In Douglas and George, it appeared that the partnership with Samuel College was linked to accessing administrative and leadership positions in the school system; those new hires were considered to be, at least, partially inducted into the school systems and, at most, fast movers with promising career trajectories.

Many stakeholders at the college would not likely view those less visible actions that resulted in the co-option in a negative manner. The college officials had set mechanisms into place to monitor the overall quality of their program, whether delivered on campus or in the partnerships. The college stakeholders were realizing significant monetary benefits and reputation gains, so if stakeholders at the college were aware of these less visible actions of school system stakeholders, they either overtly or tacitly approved them (Strauss, 1978).

The Douglas and George school systems made this adjustment to meet their most compelling need: leadership succession. Similarly, the Samuel College stakeholders also made adjustments during the partnering process when they were not meeting their most compelling need: revenue generation.

As noted in the findings, Samuel College stakeholders worked closely with school system stakeholders to create a cost savings partnership model that was replicated with other school systems. In 2012, the George Partnership was viewed as stable and steady in regards to revenue, and the Bernard Partnership was growing in enrollment and increasing revenue. However, enrollments in the Douglas Partnership were not as high as college officials required, and they did not see the partnership as economically viable. As Doz and Hamel (1998) predicted in these situations, once the critical benefit to the

college ceased, the partnership was dissolved. As outlined in Chapter 4, the college and school system stakeholders had a tacit agreement that the partnership could be revived if the enrollment trends improved. In addition, some college stakeholders did not view the partnership as substantively different from their campus program and believed the partnership was unlikely to be revived because of the proximity of the school system to the college. In essence, the college stakeholders were using an "individually oriented appraisal system" that Linden (2002) identified as a hurdle to successful collaboration (p. 43).

Linden (2002) also noted that having "differing goals and measures" was another hurdle to collaboration (p. 43). Douglas School System stakeholders had different measures and believed they created or captured value far beyond what was available in the traditional campus program. They knew their enrollment numbers were not as high as other partnerships, but they still believed that the benefits of the partnership model were significant enough to support continuation of the partnership. Doz and Hamel (1998) noted that a valuation conundrum can exist within partnerships. Specifically, partnerships bring together non-traded assets and therefore the contributions of each partner are hard to assess, and much of the value of partnerships accrues outside of the partnership itself. This appeared to be the case in the Douglas Partnership. Benefits to the school system were not visible to college stakeholders because they accrued within the school system.

These disconnected perceptions and the lack of revenue led college officials to opt out of the partnership. Strauss (1978) identified "options other than negotiation" (see Table 4) as another structural property that could enter as a condition into any negotiation

(p. 238). He explained that those who negotiate the order have the option not to negotiate. (*Options other than negotiation* was not listed in the earlier discussion of structural properties, because in these cases it was evident only in regard to the discontinuation of the Douglas Partnership.) In this situation, college officials ultimately acted in their own organization's interests and made the adjustment to discontinue the partnership because the partnership was no longer addressing its most compelling need: revenue generation.

Doz and Hamel (1998) also noted in their discussion of the valuation conundrum that difficulties can arise when the relative value of each partner's contribution shifts over time. This is why they cautioned stakeholders in partnerships to plan for recurring bargains in order to maintain the balance of value. Nathan and Mitroff (1991) cautioned that "without a firm commitment to cooperation for everyone's mutual benefit, other contingencies—or motivations related to engaging in interorganizational relationships—could easily override those of cooperation" (p. 178). In this case, the lack of revenue was a contingency that overrode the motivation for cooperation with Douglas stakeholders.

Samuel College may ultimately regret not renegotiating with Douglas stakeholders. Douglas School System stakeholders, in turn, exercised the option to no longer negotiate with Samuel College. Rather than waiting for Samuel College officials to revive the partnership, Douglas stakeholders decided in 2013 to negotiate and establish a partnership with another college in the interorganizational field. Nathan and Mitroff (1991) noted that multiple negotiated orders may develop within the interorganizational domain which may contribute to fragmenting of the interorganizational negotiated order as a whole. The new partnership was structured in a very similar way to the original

partnership with Samuel College. If this partnership is successful, it may very well draw enrollment and market shared away from Samuel College in the coming years, especially if school system stakeholders promote, support, and sustain the new partnership with the commitment level they had to the Samuel College partnership.

Building relationships, fostering autonomy, and making adjustments were all ways that stakeholders in these school-university partnerships created and captured value during the processes of collaboration. They also took actions to build the value creation and capture; these actions were synergistic in nature.

Interpretations of the Outcomes

Nathan and Mitroff (1991) did not directly address the use of negotiated order theory to analyze outcomes of collaboration in the interorganizational domain. As noted earlier, Gray and Wood (1991) identified this as the primary area of weakness when applying negotiated order theory to the interorganizational domain. In this study, the conceptualizations of value creation and value capture were used for analysis of the school-university partnerships (Doz & Hamel, 1998; Lepak, Smith and Taylor, 2007). When viewed through the collaboration lens, value creation and capture can be broadly described in terms of benefits (Austin, 2000a; Doz & Hamel, 1998; Gray, 1989; Lepak, Smith & Taylor, 2007; Linden, 2002). The findings in these cases showed that stakeholders created conditions for success, had clear standards of excellence, and relied on people to create value.

Stakeholders created conditions for success. As noted above, school system stakeholders engaged in many less visible actions within the partnerships; this was a

result of the one-time nature of the original negotiations used to form the partnerships and the collaborative leadership in each organization.

This autonomy helped school system stakeholders create conditions to meet their leadership succession needs. In the end, partnerships had an impact on the hiring process for administrative positions, especially in the George and Douglas school systems. As stated earlier, one of the intended outcomes for the school systems was to create a pool of qualified candidates available for succession to administrative positions. The school systems were successful in meeting this goal by both pulling in reluctant teachers who demonstrated strong leadership potential and then adjusting the course content to provide a more customized education experience. They actively mentored candidates and provided school system specific career guidance. The creation of a more thorough vetting process was captured by school system officials and was critical to selecting the candidates for administrative positions.

The college stakeholders also created conditions that helped them respond to the financial challenges they faced. The autonomy that was fostered in the partnerships created positive outcomes for the school systems, which in turn supported the growth in enrollment in the partnerships. This resulted in significant revenue generation for the college. The college stakeholders achieved their goal of infusing course work with real world perspectives and practical applications of learning by using adjunct instructors. Stakeholders at the college ensured that school system stakeholders were free to tailor course content as they saw fit, as long as they met the assessment requirements of the college and targeted the national and state level standards that undergirded the program.

This helped build the college's credibility with a number of stakeholder groups including the school systems, potential graduate students, and the state education agency.

The college officials realized that the school systems benefitted from the partnerships and were able to sell the positive outcomes of the first partnership to the second and third school systems. As Linden (2002) noted, successful partnerships can spring off other collaborations. The college stakeholders realized that the partnerships were replicable because of the context of their growing reputation in the region and the connectivity that existed between the college and the two school systems. The stakeholders at Douglas wanted to partner with Samuel College; in this case the school system saw the success of the Bernard and George partnerships and approached the Samuel College officials about partnering. The model was attractive to the school system for many of the reasons outlined above. This expansion generated more revenue for the college and further built the reputation and credibility.

Stakeholders asserted that these conditions created critical differences between the partnerships and the traditional campus program and generated considerable value for their respective school systems. Many of these actions and outcomes were not necessarily shared or reported as part of the formal processes of the partnerships; they appeared to develop as part of the negotiated order. This was indicative of the synergy of co-specialization as well as the co-option that occurred in the Douglas and George Partnerships. Austin (2000a) explained this synergy moves organizations from "generic resource transfer" to "joint value creation" (p. 98). In the traditional campus program, the college brought its certification authority to the table in exchange for enrollment of students and the corresponding tuition reimbursement from the school systems. In the

partnerships, value was jointly created as a new whole that neither organization could have created on its own.

Stakeholders had clear standards of excellence. Stakeholders held high standards for not only their own efforts within the partnership, but also the efforts of other stakeholders. In this context, the term *standard* refers not to any established or codified standards such as the Interstate Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards, but rather the personal and professional standards people held for themselves. Stakeholders used the language of excellence throughout the interview process. There was no sense of settling for what was adequate or acceptable; participants focused on who excelled and what was excellent.

These standards of excellence began with the college leaders who initiated the partnerships. If program development was going to bring in revenue, then the college was committed to the program being of the highest quality. They invested early to ensure that any program bearing the Samuel College name would be of the highest caliber. Even though the college was not required because of its size, stakeholders voluntarily sought NCATE accreditation of its education programs, including educational leadership and its partnerships; they did it because they valued and held high standards. School system leaders who agreed to partner expected only the best. Stakeholders expressed enthusiasm and enjoyment in their work of developing leaders and providing quality instruction and experiences for students. Adjunct instructors talked frequently about how they tried to exceed the minimum expectations outlined in course syllabi, not by increasing workload, but rather by making assignments richer and more meaningful. They sought to make theory come to life for students, mentor rising leaders, give students actionable feedback,

and support the partnership coordinators. The stakeholders supported the vision and goals.

Stakeholders, who held high standards for themselves personally and for the partnership program, expressed frustration when a facet of the partnership was not on par with those standards. For example, school system stakeholders expressed frustration about the significant turnover in the educational leadership program director position at the college. The director was a critical link to the partnerships, so flux in the position was somewhat concerning to school system stakeholders. Stakeholders in the school system indicated that the uncertainty and turnover in the director position impacted timely reviews of the current partnerships, limited the push for innovative practices, and slowed any updates of assignments and assessments.

The impact of personal standards on collaborative efforts was not explored in the literature. The authors in the collaboration literature highlighted the importance of people in partnering efforts, identified the actions they could take in creating and sustaining partnerships, and discussed their role in value creation (Austin, 2000a; Doz & Hamel, 1998; Linden, 2002; Gray, 1989). What was not present in the literature was the impact certain intangible characteristics stakeholders possessed, such as holding high standards, had on partnering efforts. This study suggested that stakeholders held these high standards, and this impacted how the partnerships functioned and the quality of the content and experiences. As a result, the impact of people on value creation and capture was significant.

Stakeholders relied on people to create value. Stakeholders in all organizations created processes and products as part of the partnership design and implementation.

However, stakeholders relied on people to create and capture value. Universally, participants in the study spent a great deal of time talking about other people and how these people made significant contributions that positively impacted the outcomes of the partnerships. When data from the study became evidence for a theme, the data was usually related to the efforts of a person or persons. The stakeholders in this study held the belief that having the right people involved was critical for success.

Each champion projected a level of passion and commitment that created enthusiasm for the partnerships. Champions, as noted above, were critical cogs in the mechanics of the partnerships. But their impact extended beyond smooth functioning of the partnerships. Their enthusiasm translated into tangible gains when coordinators recruited adjunct instructors for the partnerships. Although many examples of this were evident in the findings, the following interpretation is offered as a key illustration of the power of people in collaborative efforts. Adjunct instructors were critical to creating and capturing value for both organizations (see Figure 6 below).

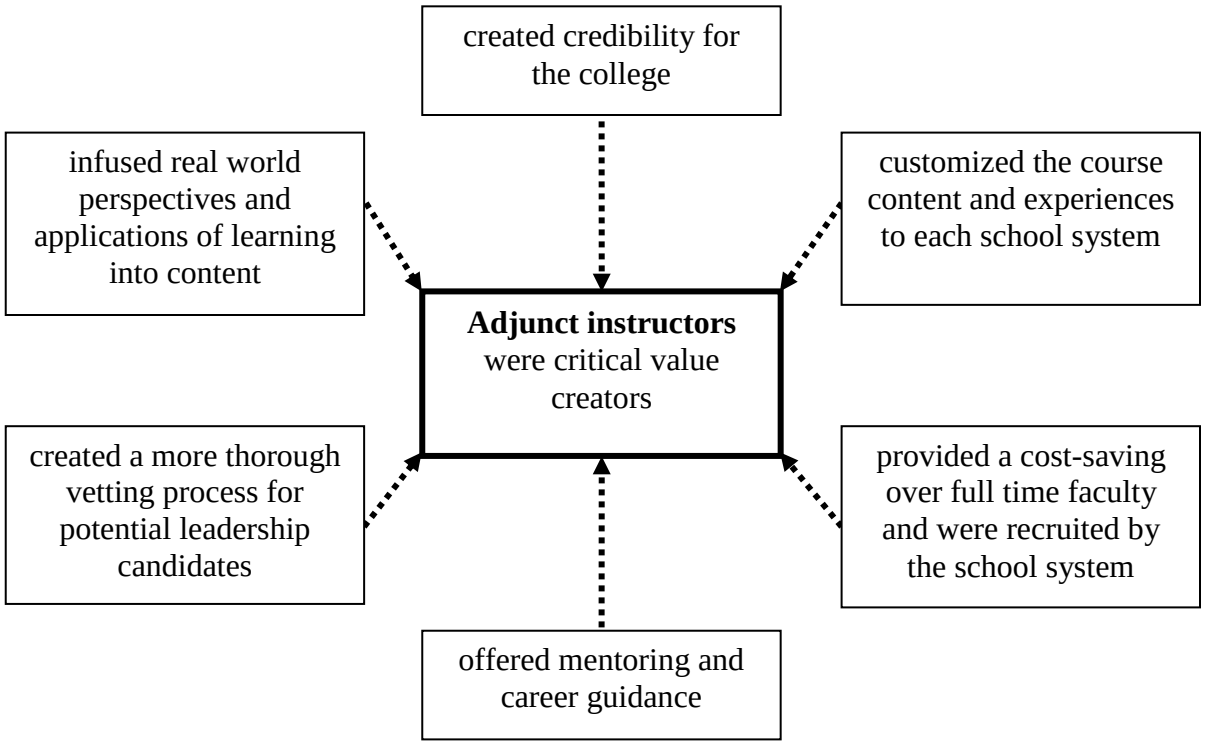
Stakeholders from all three school systems and the college stressed the importance of the adjunct instructors to value creation and capture within the partnership and for each organization outside of the partnership. (The actions of partnership coordinators should be considered equally in this discussion as they served as adjunct instructors within the partnerships.)

First, the adjunct instructors were usually recruited by each of the three partnership coordinators, and the college vetted and approved each potential adjunct instructors selected by the partnership coordinators. This recruitment of quality adjunct instructors by the coordinators was an in-kind contribution of the school system that

resulted in college personnel spending far less time finding staffing for its courses. This contribution was only noted by a few participants, but those participants had firsthand knowledge of the positive impact of this recruiting system for the college. The school system stakeholders took care to ensure the diversity and quality of the school system leaders who were recruited to be adjunct instructors and that the adjunct instructors represented a broad cross section of school system departments and divisions.

Second, stakeholders at the college and the school systems identified areas that adjunct instructors contributed to critical value creation and capture. The college stakeholders asserted that adjunct instructors were important actors for (a) creating credibility for the partnerships, (b) infusing real world perspectives and applications of learning into content, and (c) developing a cost savings way of delivering the program. Following, stakeholders in the local school system felt that adjunct instructors were central to (a) customizing the course content to provide students with a greater understanding of local school system practices, beliefs, and culture; (b) vetting potential administrative candidates; and (c) offering school system specific mentoring and career guidance. Adjunct instructors were central to this multi-faceted value creation and capture.

Figure 5: Adjunct Instructors Were Critical Value Creators



As Strauss (1978) noted, organizations are social endeavors, and therefore a negotiated order exists with each one. Stakeholders in the partnerships were wise to rely on people and relationships rather than over emphasizing the rationalistic bureaucracy of partnership.

The interpretations above used the lens of negotiated order theory to focus on the preconditions, processes, and outcomes of the three school-university partnerships in the study. These interpretations offered additional insight to the research questions:

- How do stakeholders engaged in school-university partnerships create value for their own organizations?

- How do stakeholders capture value from the school-university partnership beyond the value they intended to create?

The findings and interpretations of this study were connected broadly to the literature on collaboration and more narrowly to the literature on school-university partnerships to produce the following recommendations.

Recommendations for School-University Partnerships and Beyond

The recommendations that follow are offered to stakeholders in organizations who may be interested in partnering or are already engaged in partnering. The recommendations relate to school-university partnerships that prepare principals, however many of the recommendations could be generalized and applied to partnerships within the social sectors. The recommendations were organized by preconditions, processes and outcomes.

Recommendations regarding the preconditions of collaboration. The preconditions that exist at inception of collaboration greatly impact the negotiated order with a partnership. Data from this study indicated that specific preconditions drove and supported the creation of partnerships. Therefore, organizations interested in partnering should take time to assess the preconditions that exist prior to taking next steps. A lack of preconditions that favor partnering might be a warning to wait. The preconditions that should be examined prior to a school system and university developing a partnership should include, but not be limited to the following.

Examine the connectivity. The degree of connectivity between the potential partners should be determined. Austin (2000a) and Linden (2002) asserted that building relationships among stakeholders was critical for successful partnering. In these cases,

the interconnectivity of key stakeholders in the college and the school systems supported the collaborative efforts. Connectivity was viewed by study participants as having a significant impact on the success for the partnerships studied.

If an existing interconnectivity between two partnering organizations is present, it can help maintain and solidify partnerships. Linden (2002) asserted that interpersonal relationships and connections were the glue to that held alliances and collaborations together. Partnership designers should consider populating the interface with stakeholders who already have relationships with one another (assuming those relationships are positive) as this will be a helpful precondition for partnering.

In the event that connectivity is limited, the stakeholders in each organization should deliberately devote time to developing relationships. The advantages that stakeholders in these cases experienced as a result of being interconnected should be fostered among stakeholders in other partnerships who have limited interconnectivity. To that end, stakeholders should not only create the vision, goals, and processes of the new partnership, but also identify actions that allow stakeholders to form positive and productive relationships. In essence, stakeholders would benefit from creating the precondition of connectivity before or immediately after engaging in the work of partnering. As Austin (2000a) noted, getting acquainted on a personal level should occur before stakeholders begin to learn about the other organization. Linden (2002) identified a few actions stakeholders could take to help build and sustain relationships:

- Provide for frequent check-ins between stakeholders in partnering organizations
- Model candid communication between stakeholders

- Share requested and unrequested information
- Do careful listening
- Use stories to show what the collaborative effort is about
- Allow time for relationships
- Allow parties to show what they have accomplished

Valuate the economics. Many forces drive stakeholders to engage in partnerships. Most institutions do not have the luxury of an unlimited budget, nor can single organizations effectively respond to complex problems (Doz & Hamel, 1998; Gray, 1989). Stakeholders should assess their current financial situation and determine the economic impact partnering could have on the organization. Both the college and the school system stakeholders in these cases engaged in an economic calculus before partnering. The college was motivated to partner because of pressing financial concerns; it needed revenue. The two smaller school systems had no budget for leadership development, but needed a vehicle to ensure better leadership succession. The partnership became that vehicle when it was co-opted as an induction program by those two school systems. All three school systems determined that partnering would not negatively affect their own budgets.

Organizations interested in partnering should conduct an assessment that includes more than analysis of income and expenditure. Stakeholders should evaluate the rate of return on any resources they commit, but with a lens that looks beyond just dollars and cents. Doz and Hamel (1998) noted that opportunity costs occur when partnering because an organization that creates a partnership may actually prevent itself from doing something else. Colleges and universities should assess the value of their current market

share of educational leadership enrollments as well as the market share of competing programs in the region. Stakeholders should design a model that will give their partnership a competitive advantage over the competition, which would be necessary to gain market share. School system stakeholders should look to partnerships as ways of working smarter with limited resources. Most school systems are under economic pressure; using partnerships to bolster leadership and induction processes should be considered. However, leaders in the school system will also need to assess what monetary and human capital it can spare for the purpose of partnering. School leaders should be tasked with partnering only if a potential return is possible.

Assess leadership succession. School system stakeholders should determine if they have an adequate number of candidates to meet their succession needs, and that the quality and readiness of those candidates is appropriate. DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2003) noted that the increased complexity of the job may be straining those in the principalship, and this may have resulted in a shortage of qualified people willing to take on the role, regardless of how many people actually held administrative credentials. The school systems in this study had completed some level of succession analysis and planning, in part because of a push from the state education agency. Stakeholders should assess the long term costs of placing under qualified candidates into leadership roles against the investment in partnering as a means of building a higher number of qualified candidates in less time. Researchers have demonstrated the significant impact an effective principal can have on student achievement, placing principal leadership second only to classroom instruction among school-related factors for achievement (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). In addition, researchers have found that

leadership makes the most significant impact on schools where it is most needed, noting that there are almost no documented cases of schools turning around without the guidance of a strong leader (Leithwood et al., 2004). Failing to provide all schools with well-prepared, quality principals could prove costly.

School systems should evaluate their own capabilities to effect leadership succession. School systems without the financial or human capital to build and sustain quality leadership development programs focused on induction, mentoring, and succession should consider partnering as a means of creating one. Co-option of an educational leadership program could meet their needs and create and capture significant value for their organization

Colleges and universities should evaluate their efforts in preparing school leaders to face the current challenges in education. This assessment should be focused on current literature in principal preparation. As shared in literature review, school universities have been touted as synthesizing vehicles for the various reforms recommendations (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, & Orr, 2007; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Fry et al., 2007; Hale & Moorman, 2003; Fry & O'Neill, 2005). Working in close collaboration with school systems may provide the practitioner-led, problem-based learning that occurs in the school system setting (Bottoms et al., 2003; Fry & O'Neill, 2005; Hess & Kelly, 2007). In addition, partnerships may be a vehicle in which robust internships could occur (Browne-Ferrigno, 2004; Jackson & Kelley, 2002; Leithwood et al., 2004; Southern Regional Education Board, 2007).

In these cases, the school-university partnerships incorporated many of the reform recommendations into the partnership structure and captured others through the

partnerships themselves. For example, the infusing of real world perspectives and application of learning into the college's content, a key reform recommendation, was done to some extent by using adjunct instructors who used school system materials for class assignments and class content. Other reform recommendations were also addressed within the partnerships including alignment to standards, rigorous recruitment and selection criteria, robust internships with trained mentors, and performance based exit criteria.

This study did not address or assess the implementation of these reform components within the three partnerships, as this was beyond the scope of this study. However the reform recommendations in the literature were viewed as critical to developing better principals, and therefore it is incumbent on colleges and universities to incorporate these components into its partnership efforts as means of ensuring quality leadership succession in the nation's schools.

Determine commitment levels. The openness to partnering by organization members, especially at the higher levels of authority, should be assessed. If key decision makers who have control over personnel and budget are not motivated or supportive of partnerships, then the development of partnerships would likely be difficult. Austin (2000a) noted that in order for partnerships to succeed, key stakeholders who have the authority to vector time, money and energy into the partnership must be present and invested at the partnership's inception. Although much of the work or partnering can be done at the middle levels of an organization, lack of support at the higher levels could derail any attempts to partner. In colleges and universities, support at the dean level or higher would be ideal; it proved to be critical in the partnerships in this study where

support was evident at the dean, vice president and president levels. For school systems, support was evident at the superintendent level with the local school boards having first hand, although not in depth knowledge of the partnerships. In all organizations in this study, the partnerships were advertised, publicized and touted by upper level officials.

Evaluate reputation. School systems and colleges should examine the reputation of the other potential partners. Connecting to a reputable college or school system may build prestige within one's own organization. In this study, participants believed partnering organizations grew their own reputation and prestige with a variety of stakeholders including the business community, families, state education agencies, school system employees, college or university employees, and potential students.

When assessing reputation of colleges and universities, consider how long an educational leadership program has been in existence, its outcomes for assessments such as the State Leaders Licensure Exam (SLLA) or the Vanderbilt Assessment of Leadership in Education (VAL-ED), and its program completion and hiring rates. When considering the reputation of school systems, overall achievement rates for students, reputation of leaders in all areas of the organization, and public image should be considered. In addition, the successes with previous partnerships in the school systems, colleges, and universities should also be considered. Austin (2000a) encouraged stakeholders to identify and utilize people who were already effective at partnering, especially when a new structure was being considered.

However, the intangible factors of reputation should be viewed with caution and certainly not as necessary. In this study, reputation played a positive role in partnership development. In some situations, the complete lack of these intangibles might be the

driving force for a partnership. A school system with low achievement levels may be ideal for partnering with a reputable university. For example, Storms and Gonzales (2006) conducted a case study on a partnership between a California State University East Bay and "a financially and educationally distressed school district" in California that was under state control because half of its schools were in school improvement under NCLB guidelines (p. 38).

Some partnerships may warrant additional partners such as governmental agencies, foundations, and the business community. This was evident in the partnership between the University of Rhode Island (URI) and the Providence School Department (SREB, 2004). The Providence School Department was part of the Project LEAD, an initiative sponsored by the Wallace Foundation, and the Providence SD had relationships with the Institute for Learning (IFL), the State Action for Educational Leadership Project (SAELP), the Southern Region Education Board (SREB), the Education Development Corporation (EDC), and the Wallace Foundation (SREB, 2004).

Similarly, a university or college just building an educational leadership program or seeking to develop its first partnership may benefit from partnering with a strong, visible school system from the outset. This gain in reputation was evident when Samuel College built its partnership with the Bernard School System; the college built its reputation in the region and the state. In the University of Rhode Island (URI) and the Providence School Department partnership (SREB, 2004), the authors noted that school district had broadened its pipeline of qualified candidates for administrative positions while the university raised its profile as an urban education leadership program resulting in increased enrollment and more opportunities for scholarly work in the field.

Capitalizing on reputation should be considered in regard to preconditions. However, Austin (2000a) asserted that organizations must have "mission mesh" with one another; it must make sense to partner (p. 64). Stakeholders should consider other aspects of the potential partner such as how central the collaborative effort is likely to be in the other organization, what common values it may share, and which capabilities it brings to the collaboration.

Consider external forces. External forces for partnering should be examined as well. State education agencies or state laws can drive partnership development, either when recommended as best practice or when mandated by state law. In this study, the state education agency recommended partnerships as best practice; this recommendation helped move all organizations in the direction of partnering.

Stakeholders should identify which other organizations in the region have or are developing partnerships, because not partnering may place an organization at a competitive disadvantage. Partnerships may also feature prominently among organizations outside of education in the region (e.g., health care, government, non-profits, technology). If this is the case, organizations not engaged in partnerships could appear to lack innovation.

In states where partnering is mandated by law, it would be beneficial for partnering organizations to also develop a list of their own driving forces for partnering, as these forces may be stronger motivators for stakeholders within the partnerships. For example, a goal of increasing market share or building a better pipeline of candidates would likely be more motivating to organization members than a state mandate.

Recommendations regarding processes of collaboration. When two or more organizations begin working collaboratively, joint processes and products will likely need to be developed. Processes, when viewed from the lens of the negotiated order, mean those joint activities that will lead to partnership success. In these cases, development of quality processes allowed stakeholders to create and capture value for their own organizations. The following recommendations related to collaborative processes are offered.

Find the right people. The literature on collaboration showed that champions (Linden, 2002, p. 85) were critical to the success of partnerships. Champions focus a great deal of personal and professional effort toward the development and maintenance of the partnership and will push others to support the partnership. Therefore, school systems and colleges or universities should recruit personnel who can serve as champions for new partnerships.

In these cases, champions emerged and made significant contributions to the partnerships and the resulting value creation. This impact of personnel on school-university partnerships was also evident in a partnership between California State University East Bay and a school district in California (Storms & Gonzales, 2006). The researchers noted that key personnel were identified as critical to the process of collaboration in the partnership. Specifically, the university facilitator was identified as critical to supporting adjunct instructors and maintaining the focus on the leadership approach of the program, and top level school district leaders were credited for setting a "tone of the value of leadership in school transformation" (p. 41).

Linden (2002) advocated for a champions to have both clout and passion for the collaborative effort. As noted earlier, these stakeholders must have the authority and support to engage in the partnership (Austin, 2001a; Doz & Hamel, 1998; Gray, 1989; Linden, 2002). However, Linden (2002) further outlined the role of the champions one who must

- articulate the purpose and benefits of the partnership;
- guide others in the process;
- anticipate any hurdles;
- engage in joint problem solving;
- keep people informed and involved;
- focus stakeholders on common ground;
- take risks; and
- provide confidence, hope and resilience to the collaborative effort.

Based on the findings of this study, the ideal candidate would be someone with mid to upper level authority in their own organization, and who has direct connections and positive relationships with members of the potential partnering organization. The level of connectivity, as explained earlier, would lead to greater effectiveness of the champions. As examples seen in this study, school system employees who were graduates of the college or university's educational leadership program would have a degree of familiarity that would be helpful when designing and implementing the partnership. College and university personnel who might be retirees of the school system would have a similar advantage. It was evident from many participants that being alumni

or former employees created a familiarity and loyalty that translated into a commitment and dedication. These champions craved and rooted for partnership success.

If the connectivity and loyalty of the champions seen in this study are not evident in current personnel within the potential partners, developing commitment in current employees for partnering would still be critical. Designating personnel based on job description, creating a position devoted to partnering, or finding personnel who have successfully participated in other partnerships are other routes to developing champions. Of note, champions in this study were given responsibility for partnering in part because of their job responsibilities, but rising to the level of champion was expedited and enhanced by their connectivity with and loyalty to the partnering organizations. However, potential champions can build their connectivity across and within partnering organizations just as they can develop a strong sense of loyalty and dedication to the partnership.

After securing champions, building the interface with success in mind is critical. The interface will be where the critical work of partnering will occur (Doz & Hamel, 1998). A well planned interface, especially if this is the first partnership between two or more organizations, will reap dividends in efficiency and effectiveness. Linden (2002) stressed the need to develop and sustain relationships within the partnership; these relationships create an open, trusting and honest dialogue that produces a sense of "entity" among the stakeholders (p. 95). Austin (2000a) believed that these personal relationships should not be rushed because growth comes from trust building, which takes time.

Each organization will need to identify the critical personnel for the interface. School systems will need personnel with the required authority and budgetary responsibility to be involved from the beginning; Austin (2000a) called these people "alliance authorizers" and noted that their authority would be required to build a successful partnership (p. 51). Local boards of education should be involved in at least a symbolic way; this type of public support will set conditions in which the partnership can move forward. This same level of authority must be accessed on the college and university side as well. A push from the office of the president would be ideal, as was the case in the partnerships studied here. However, a dean may be able to use his/her resources to develop a successful partnership, but this would likely depend of the size of the institution, the authority structure, and the resource allocation within the institution.

All participants who would be critical for a successful collaboration may not be within the department directly involved in the partnership. In this study, the graduate office needed critical support from the college's finance department so a third party billing system could be established. In the local school systems, people from a variety of departments were needed to find physical space in school system facilities for on-site delivery of classes and to develop new processes for tuition reimbursement to support the accelerated course delivery. As Linden (2002) explained, partnership stakeholders need to get the "right people to the table" (p. 85). Partnership leaders from the school system and college or university should use a broad view to identify and invite the personnel needed in the interface; they should err on the side of including more people at the outset. This inclusive process will be critical if supporting departments such as finance, human resources, or facilities are needed to develop new processes and procedures for the

partnership. After the partnership is designed and functioning, the number of people from each institution required in the interface will likely reduce. This was indicated in the data from this study. The interfaces also appeared to involve fewer personnel when the partnership was replicated in other school systems.

Design with purpose. Stakeholders should determine the purpose for partnering. Doz and Hamel (1998) identified several reasons for partnering including co-specialization (taking advantage of each other's strength to accomplish what we cannot on our own), co-option (take a competitor out of the market or gain market share), and learning (to gain capacity from another to help ourselves grow). Co-specialization was the most visible purpose for the school-university partnerships in this study. Stakeholders in each organization had expertise the other organization needed.

However, stakeholders may determine that co-option and organizational learning are additional purposes for partnering (Doz & Hamel, 1998). As noted in the recommendations for preconditions, school system stakeholders may want to co-opt the educational leadership program to become a school system specific leadership development program. In learning partnerships, organizations collaborate to exchange information and build capacity through interactions with the partnering organization. Davis et al. (2005) noted that school systems benefitted from the intellectual resources of universities while universities benefitted from stronger clinical training. As an example, stakeholders in the college or university may be seeking information about how school leaders are implementing the Common Core standards while school system stakeholders may be seeking the latest theory and research on achievement of underperforming

subgroups of students. The purpose of the partnership will greatly affect the design, implementation and assessment phases of the collaborative effort.

The college or university and the school system should then develop a list of intended goals or outcomes for the partnership. Doz and Hamel (1998) noted that a common scope and mission must be determined from the outset, but furthered stressed that each partner's contributions to (what one gives) and benefits from (what one gains) the partnership should be clearly outlined, especially when contributions may be unequal. These outcomes should meet both organizations' needs. One-sided partnerships are more likely to fail (Doz & Hamel, 1998). Partnership goals should be created to address any relevant preconditions. For example, if colleges and universities needed revenue, they should set quantifiable increases in enrollment as a good first step. School systems could initially target increases in the number and quality of administrative certification holders.

Next, stakeholders should determine the content of the program and how such content will fulfill the partnership's goals. The school system and college or university should identify in an overt and observable manner the dispositions, skills and experiences that constitute highly qualified candidates for administrative positions. To produce such candidates, stakeholders should give attention to the reform recommendations for principal preparation programs (see Table 1) as well as lessons learned from exemplary programs and partnerships (Jackson & Kelley, 2003).

In addition, stakeholder should consider designing a program that sets it apart from others; this may give the partnership a competitive advantage. Authors have asserted that many challenges faced in society (e.g., poverty, immigration, discrimination, health crises) are so complex that partnerships are needed to develop complex solutions

(Austin, 2000a; Doz & Hamel, 1998; Gray, 1989; Linden, 2002). One of these complex tasks is producing well prepared, highly qualified administrative candidates to lead teachers and students in a complex society.

Partnerships can look beyond co-specialization and focus on broader societal issues that can be addressed through education and educational leaders. Personnel in the partnering organizations could set goals that go beyond general leadership development to a particular philosophical framework or focus that addresses broader educational and societal goals. Austin (2000a) believed that partnerships not only created value within the partnering organizations, but also created benefits directly for society. As examples, a partnership could have a focus on

- developing leadership among women and minorities;
- promoting social justice in schools;
- improving achievement among traditionally underperforming groups of students;
- leading in challenging urban settings; or
- structuring schools for 21st century learning.

These specialized approaches could pay considerable dividends for society. As an example in practice, Storms and Gonzales (2006) studied a partnership in California in which the educational leadership department implemented a program with the "bold, socially responsible leadership" (or BSRL) model of leadership development, which was instituted to better target poor performing school districts and shape a more critical leadership perspective in administrators who served those districts.

A broader, more specialized approach to educational leadership might require customization of candidate selection, course offerings, course content including theoretical underpinnings, class assignments, internship experiences and placements, and exit outcomes and portfolios. Because of this, stakeholders should consider seeking additional support including the option of partnering with more organizations such as philanthropic foundations, research institutions, professional organizations, governmental agencies, state education agencies, non-profits, religious entities, or policy groups. This more ambitious look will require political will of another magnitude from a number of key stakeholders as the interorganizational domain would be larger, and collaborating with multiple partners could require more resources. However, the fundamental work of partnerships would still apply to such an endeavor.

Next, the partnering organizations will need to plan the way the interface functions. As discussed above, populating the interface with the right people is the first step. The interface is described as the areas of operations included in the partnership, the governance mechanisms that will guide the operations, and the personnel, communications and work processes to be used. In essence, this is the "who, what, when, where and how" of the partnership's work (Doz & Hamel, 1998). Stakeholders should jointly develop expectations in regard to communications, timelines, and roles and responsibilities.

Communication failures can impact the efficacy and efficiency of partnerships which is why the process should be open and credible (Linden, 2002). Personnel in the interface and the partnering organizations should be given clear communication channels and know who should be contacted for what reasons. In essence, the chain of command

and the key communicators should be identified in the design phase of the partnership. Doz and Hamel (1998) noted that building bridges at multiple levels between organizations will increase "bandwidth" and reduce conflict within the partnership (p. 136). Decisions should be made about if and when the interface would meet as whole or whether smaller "modules" within the interface can meet or work separately (Doz & Hamel, 1998, p. 136). The meetings (whether online, in conference calls, or in face to face settings) should be frequent enough that the partnership functions well, but not so frequent that they become merely bureaucratic requirements. Stakeholders should be nimble and responsive to their customers, not beholden to the bureaucracy of the partnership itself. As discussed earlier, this study showed that interfaces can become much simpler as the partnership moves into a maintenance phase.

Key personnel should also agree on critical timelines in the partnerships. First among them should be the length of the partnership. Some partnerships set an indefinite timeline, but others identify a set end, at which an evaluation can be conducted to determine if the partnership will continue. Doz and Hamel (1998) noted that a key aspect of managing partnerships is agreeing to duration. A deliberate decision about the length of partnership will help personnel in both organizations act with purpose and direction and know when to evaluate their efforts. Linden (2002) cautioned the timeline should not be too short, because value in partnerships accrues slowly in the early stages of partnering.

Each person's role and area of responsibility should be clearly outlined within the interface. Although these responsibilities could change, having each person know his/her role and responsibilities from the outset will reduce ambiguity and increase efficiency.

Those in the interface should have a clear idea of their role in the broader partnerships. Linden (2002) described this as helping others "have a line of sight" (p. 113). They should also know what latitude they have within their areas of responsibility. In this study, partnership coordinators understood their roles to include advising responsibility for degree candidates. Each coordinator was assigned students to advise directly on matters of graduation requirements, course selection, conflict resolution, college procedures, etc. In addition, program coordinators also had clear responsibilities related to registration of students and tuition reimbursement. This clear delineation of duties was beneficial; as a result, stakeholders felt the interfaces were organized and successful.

Align all actions to the goals. Stakeholders should identify the actions required to meet the goals of the partnerships. Certainly the development of the interface, as discussed above, would be a critical step in any action plan, but beyond organizing themselves, personnel in the interface would then need to establish the specific action items needed to get the partnership running. Following the tenets of a negotiated order, this is a critical time to consider processes. As discussed earlier, the partnership can utilize existing processes or it may need to create new ones. Based on this study and the literature on collaboration and school-university partnerships, the following action items should be considered.

Secure approvals and set up agreements from both organizations, such as memos of understanding or actual contracts. As noted earlier, this is where the common goals of the partnership can be solidified and documented. Using memorandums of understanding may or may not be an existing process, but getting this type of agreement on paper with

the endorsement of high level officials is important. A signing event could also be an initial step to publicizing the partnership, sharing its goals, and announcing next steps.

Linden (2002) suggested stakeholders create a sense of entity in the partnership. He believed that doing so can lead to a more committed effort and "us" thinking (p. 173). Stakeholders should give the partnership a name and develop an identity beyond either organization; it should look like a unique structure rather than simply an extension of either partnering organization. Creating a logo, producing a publication, opening a new office, or other similar steps will help brand the partnership (Linden, 2002). Branding the partnership is critical, especially if either organization is attempting to benefit from the reputation of the other or if the program has a unique focus beyond educational leadership (e.g., 21st century learning, social justice). The partnership should be marketed as an option so as not to compete against any existing educational leadership programs.

Develop any critical processes related to registration, tuition rate setting, payment or reimbursement, leave of absence procedures for students, physical facilities, advertisement, partnership specific paperwork, or employment of personnel from outside the college or university (e.g., partnership coordinators, adjunct instructors). All of these processes were critical areas of work for the partnerships in this study and were needed to allow the partnership to enroll students and begin classes. Other processes may need to be utilized, adjusted or created depending on the partnering organizations.

Choose and use adjunct instructors carefully. As critical value creators for both the school system and the college, the adjunct instructors should be vetted carefully so they represent a broad spectrum of the educational leadership context. Having adjunct

instructors with elementary, secondary, and central office experience will provide a broad view of leadership for students. In two cases in this study, this broad range of instructors was evident and noted as a strength for the partnerships. In addition to diverse backgrounds and perspectives, adjunct instructors should be selected with attention to their pedagogy and their ability to provide the balance between theoretical and practical content delivery.

One critical consideration is the degree to which the educational experience with the partnership is customized to the local school system. School system personnel should be deliberate in customizing course content and scope and sequence to maximize the training function of the partnership. This is an important recommendation for school systems who have consciously decided to customize content to their school system and use the partnership as an induction vehicle.

To that end, school system personnel should strive for consistency among adjunct instructors. Adjunct instructors should be provided professional learning not only for logistical considerations (e.g., web based assessment systems, college website and email systems, grade reporting procedures, adjunct instructor handbook), but also substantive instructional matters including specific content, class assignments, and materials of instruction. Adjunct instructors in this study had the latitude to use school system materials in courses, tailor the scope and sequence of activities, focus the performance assessments on school specific topics or issues, and steer internship requirements toward school systems goals. School system personnel can elevate customization to the induction level by determining which school system processes, materials, procedures, and programs should be key learning for potential leaders and in which courses they should

be used. Then stakeholders should be deliberate about training of adjunct instructors in regard to the customized scope and sequence. This will allow adjunct instructors to better commit to the vision of the partnership and align their actions accordingly (Doz & Hamel, 1998). This clear scope and sequence and training system would also reduce the negative impacts caused by turnover in adjunct instructors.

This consistency among adjunct instructors could be accomplished by providing them asynchronous, web-based professional development. New adjunct instructors could view an overview of the partnership's mission, goals, and logistical requirements. In addition, adjunct instructors teaching specific courses could review the goals, assignments, and materials of instruction specific to the school system; this would be a level of support above being handed the course syllabus and attending a brief orientation meeting. Using web based professional development tools would allow colleges or universities to create professional development modules for adjunct instructors that could be completed asynchronously. Professional development modules could be created for mission and vision of the partnership, program standards, learning outcomes, required assessments or assignments, online course management tools, or logistical topics (e.g., grade reporting, syllabus requirements, adjunct instructor handbook). Adjunct instructors could view these modules at their own convenience, and the college could monitor for completion. As always, professional development could be delivered at the partnership sites as well.

It behooves the college to compare stipends in any competing educational leadership programs and match, if not exceed, that compensation rate. In this study, the program coordinators served as liaisons to the school systems, advised students, managed

logistics and much more. As discussed in Chapter 4, program coordinators, even when paid well, were a lower cost for the college than full time faculty. In addition, drawing in the best adjunct instructors is critical to creating value in the partnership. Competitive stipends can help maintain a stable pool of instructors that meet the aforementioned diversity and pedagogical criteria, especially in geographical areas where multiple colleges and universities with education programs would compete for instructors. In this study, adjunct instructor pay was seen as a weakness of the partnership, with some participants attributing the lower stipend to weaker adjuncts and/or turnover in the adjunct ranks. This study showed that program coordinators and adjunct instructors were critical value creators; attracting, securing and retaining them is critical.

Provide a responsive model. One discussion that arose in this study showed that students often had reservations about committing to a principal preparation program. Stakeholders should build a program that is responsive to the needs of students to draw in reluctant candidates. As discussed above, Linden (2002) believed partnerships were flexible and important tools for gaining results, responding to the changing context of the world, and providing "better service, value and outcomes for customers, stakeholders, and communities" (p. 6). Findings from this study suggest that tuition costs, matriculation timeline, a cohort structure, student centered services, and modernized course delivery should be addressed.

In this study, many students were drawn to the partnerships because of reduced tuition rates and the accelerated model of course delivery. Offering a reduced tuition rate, in these cases, drew a greater volume of students into the educational leadership degree program; the higher number of enrollments offset any losses resulting from the

reduced rate of tuition. This reduced a barrier to entering the principal preparation programs for some potential leaders. In addition, the reduced tuition rate also kept the school system's reimbursement per employee costs down, which could be a significant motivation for partnering when budgets are tight.

Another barrier for some students was the length of time to matriculate in traditional programs. Students taking the accelerated courses in the partnerships were done within a guaranteed timeframe and sequence. The courses students needed were not guaranteed in any given semester in the campus program, but in the partnerships the courses were guaranteed to be there for students when they needed them. This predefined structure was beneficial to students in the partnerships. A fixed end was always in sight for partnership students.

In this study, partnerships made effective use of the cohorts for supporting students. Each partnership utilized this model, so students moved through coursework with the same set of peers. This was viewed as a valuable feature that fostered a supportive environment for learning, created richer discussions and group work, and built networks for graduates to use when they obtained administrative positions. Replicating these features in any new or existing partnership is highly recommended for creating value for all stakeholders.

To mitigate the challenges of distance, stakeholders should create student-centered services. Utilizing online services for registering for classes, submitting assignments, completing group projects, accessing grade reports, applying for graduation, conferring with instructors would be examples. The college library should offer students digital access to library services such as research databases and the library collection,

provide phone or chat-based assistance directly from library staff, and send books selected from the collection to students' homes by mail. Stakeholders should make partnerships a more attractive choice for school system employees by providing a more convenient and student-centered model for obtaining an educational leadership degree or certification.

Stakeholders should provide modern course delivery using key personnel from local school systems. Doz and Hamel (1998) noted that in order to stay competitive, partnerships may need to redesign when new technologies arise. In the study, stakeholders in the school systems and students in the programs felt that course delivery needed to be modernized. They noted that online programs were perceived as more convenient options for students and were competition to traditional programs. However, many students still valued cohorts and the face-to-face contact with instructors, so partnership stakeholders should develop more hybrid courses that include both seat time and online activities and assignments. This would reduce the long class sessions that resulted from the accelerated course delivery. Technology enhancers such as the cloud, social media, distance learning, and digital texts could be used to create engaging hybrid courses. Students and faculty in hybrid courses could utilize digital conferencing (e.g., Skype, GoToMeeting) and online class management (e.g., Livebinder, Blackboard, Chalk and Wire) for working in small groups, holding question and answer sessions, viewing learning modules, or participating in asynchronous discussions. These courses would likely appeal to potential students, especially those in the rising Millennial Generation, and be seen as a more flexible and modern course delivery model that can better fit into

students' busy lives. Hybrid courses may bridge the gap between programs that are exclusively face-to-face and those that are completely online.

Recommendations regarding the outcomes of collaboration. Stakeholders should determine what value they intend to create and for whom, as well how that value should be measured. Doz & Hamel (1998) noted that organizations that do not plan to measure value as part of their partnership design, may fail to capture all the value their efforts produce. As discussed in the recommendations for processes above, the measures of value creation should be planned jointly as well as separately by the partnering organizations.

Create and capture value actively. The recommendations above are based on the findings for this study and the literature on collaboration, and all should be considered important to creating value. Responding to preconditions and developing quality processes are both critical for creating value. However, creating value is an active process that includes measuring value, capturing value, and renewing value.

Measuring of value created through the partnership is critical. Austin (2000a) stressed the need for partnering organizations to have clear measures for value creation. Linden (2002) agreed, but added that stakeholders in the partnership should be involved in identifying measures and that these measures should be visible and captured frequently. Doz and Hamel (1998) stressed that specific mechanisms should be in place to chart the progress of the partnership so that adjustments can be made to ensure partners continue to receive the intended benefits.

In these cases, there was a difference in what value was expected and what value was assessed. Although some measures of success were identified when partnerships

were formed, stakeholders did not identify clear measures for all of the value they intended to create. The educational leadership program did use the common performance assessments to measure students' outcomes; these were critical and required. Stakeholders identified enrollment, pass rates on the state assessment, completion rates, and obtaining administrative positions as measures of value. Although data on these measures were collected and reviewed, some was collected only anecdotally. Stakeholders in the school systems set a goal of customizing content for the school system, but no systemized way to measure this was created. They also wanted the quality of the pool of certified candidates to be increased; however, no measure of quality was developed. The evidence that partnership graduates were in some way better prepared to lead was cited only anecdotal, not measured.

Stakeholders should therefore define the value they intend to create and measure that value using both qualitative and quantitative metrics. The intended value should be measured frequently in the collaborative process so adjustments can be made to sustain or increase value creation, especially when conditions change. For example, stakeholders could use focus groups or surveys of adjunct instructors, students enrolled in the program, and school system officials to gather critical insight into the success of the partnerships, especially if any new approach to educational leadership was undertaken. For example, a partnership could claim to be focused on 21st century learning, but could run the risk of not employing any 21st century teaching and learning strategies in its own course content. Similarly, they could claim to focus on leadership development among women or minorities, but could have few women or minorities teaching courses or enrolling in the program. Finding measures and showing progress toward those measures

will build momentum for creating and maintaining partnerships. As Austin (2000a) asserted, "the perceived worth of an alliance is the ultimate determinant of, first, whether it will be created, and second, whether it will be sustained" (p. 87).

Capturing unintended value is important as well. Doz and Hamel (1998) asserted that value capture was indirect and hard to define, but should be approached using an active process. In addition to measuring value creation, stakeholders should be vigilant for opportunities to capture value in the partnership that was never intended. For example, a school system and university may partner with a goal of building leadership capacity in women or minorities. The partnership would likely identify enrollment and graduation of women and minorities as a measure of value creation. However, the partnership stakeholders should be deliberately looking for ways to capture additional value such as gains in reputation, impacts on achievement of girls and minorities in schools where graduates are hired, changes in research among college faculty, or changes in the leadership perspectives of non-minority males in the program. Doz and Hamel (1998) cautioned against defining value too narrowly because opportunities to capture value may be missed. Designating key personnel to identify and share any captured value part of their responsibilities would be a good first step. Having stakeholders from different organizations report their value capture to one another would be beneficial as well.

Austin (2000a) cautioned that the value of benefits can erode or depreciate over time, especially when stakeholders become complacent in regard to defining or seeking new value. This may result in one organization feeling it no longer needs the partnership. Stakeholders should periodically review the way they measure value and the types of

value they should strive to create. They may even consider altering or expanding the purpose for the partnerships. For example, a co-specialized partnership may identify cross organizational learning as a new goal and potential benefit, so stakeholders may add specific structures within the partnerships to that end. Professors in residence could consult with school systems stakeholders on induction strategies and induction programs, and school practitioners could participate in the research endeavors of college faculty. Renewing value is critical.

Celebrate accomplishments and respond to failures. Stakeholders should celebrate and highlight the outcomes of partnerships. Public celebrations provide opportunities for a variety of stakeholders to be aware of the partnerships' successes. This will provide energy for sustaining the partnerships as well as momentum for replicating the success elsewhere. Linden (2002) believed creating signs of success and celebrating them created a "constituency for collaboration" among stakeholders. This could be accomplished through press releases, reports to governing boards, via online media (e.g., YouTube, Facebook), or at graduation events. He also suggested that organizations recognize the contributions of individuals who engage in the collaboration (p. 127). Recognizing individuals at particular benchmarks of service, for significant innovations, and for technical or logistical support of the partnership are possibilities. Sharing the successes with key decision makers in both organizations is especially critical; their continued support will be important. Public declaration of success will also build reputation of the college or university or the school system. Linden (2002) believed that publicizing the results that matter to external constituents was important to sustaining collaborative efforts.

Just as important, the stakeholders in the partnerships should be quick to respond to any shortcomings or problems in the partnership. As Gray noted (1989), failure to meet the intended outcomes would likely result in renegotiation and a return to the work completed in earlier stages of the collaborative process; failing to adjust may result in the partnership ending. In this study, one partnership was discontinued by the college on the basis of low enrollment; the partnership was not economically viable. School system stakeholders wanted the partnership to continue, but no consensus was reached between school system and college officials as to how this could be accomplished. Stakeholders must be able to respond to these types of circumstances. For example, a compromise that might have bridged the gap between the college and the school system in this study would be running a partnership cohort every two years. This might have created larger cohort sizes, which in turn would have provided adequate revenue and make the venture economically viable for the college while still meeting the needs of the school system.

Replicate, expand, and sustain partnerships. Linden (2002) noted that successful collaborative partnerships often served as a catalyst for other collaborative ventures. School systems and college and universities should look to replicate and expand partnerships when preconditions warrant. Doz and Hamel (1998) noted that building alliances can give an organization access to unfamiliar markets. Colleges or universities could replicate its partnering efforts in school systems with differing demographics; this is expansion into new territory. They could also expand partnering to different graduate or undergraduate programs. For example, they could partner with a school system to build capacity of its special education or curriculum leaders; in essence, this is opening a new market.

The potential ease of implementing a proven model may be inviting to school system officials; the processes and products of current partnerships may be easily applied to the new partnership, and therefore may require less time commitment from their own personnel. Much would depend on what any other universities or school systems could bring to potential partnerships in terms of expertise or uniqueness, but Austin (2000a) believed a "collaboration multiplier" existed when the success in one collaborative effort builds momentum for another (p. 69).

If an expansion is proposed, stakeholders should assess the political situation in regard to any new school system or college or university, especially as it relates to any existing partnerships. A connectivity existed with the college and its three partnering school systems in this study; a similar connectivity may exist among stakeholders in the new school system where the college or university would like to partner. Connectivity, in this case, may work against a new partnership because of school system personnel's commitment and loyalty to another program or institution. As a result, colleges may need to convince key personnel in the school system to offer its new partnership as another option for its employees, not necessarily a replacement for any existing program or partnership. As an example from this study, one school system partnered with several colleges and universities simultaneously so they could offer a number of options for its employees.

Finding a strong champion from within the new school system, college, or university could influence the political environment and set conditions favorable to any new partners wishing to enter the market. As was evident in this study, colleges and universities can gain clear value in both reputation and revenue because of relationships

with school systems; expanding partnerships may build reputation that could extend to the state or national levels.

The recommendations offered above will help promote longevity and success in partnerships; they are critical to sustaining current partnerships. In addition to those steps, stakeholders should take steps to ensure succession within the partnerships. Stakeholders in this study expressed concern about succession planning in the partnerships. Significant concern centered on when two of the partnership coordinators might discontinue their roles. Many participants noted that the turnover in the educational leadership program director position created a period of instability at the college. This type of instability could result in personnel turnover within the partnerships. Linden (2002) felt "continuity of leadership" was critical to successful collaboration because turnover makes organizations devote energy to orienting newcomers and creates a sense of "starting over" (p. 188). He suggested stakeholders should have a plan for succession before personnel leave the collaborative effort. For example, stakeholders should identify the most critical roles in the partnership and develop a process for selecting and orienting any successors.

Stakeholders should also foster a sense of loyalty to the partnership. This may help with succession as graduates may return to teach in the partnership and school system employees may move to the college or university as full time faculty. This could be a positive cycle for all stakeholders. Many stakeholders in this study had completed their educational leadership degrees from the college campus program and went on to serve as program coordinators or adjunct instructors in the partnerships; others expressed a desire to give back to the program from which they had graduated. Some graduates of

the partnership programs themselves returned to the partnerships as adjunct instructors. This cycle of loyalty was evident when current administrators throughout the school systems recommended the partnership program; word of mouth advertising can be powerful. Fostering loyalty could create a positive cycle for all stakeholders.

The recommendations offered above could be considered by any institution wishing to collaborate for the purpose of preparing school leaders. However, the recommendations could be applied more broadly to partnerships throughout the social sector. In addition to these recommendations for practice, the following recommendations for future research are offered as well.

Future Research

After reviewing the findings, interpretations and recommendations of this study the following areas of future research are recommended.

1.) Although beyond the scope of this study, attention could be given to the interorganizational questions that Gray and Wood (1991) offered as a way of expanding the use of negotiated order theory to the interorganizational domain. Specifically, "How do alliances interact with institutional environments?" and "Are alliances shaped by institutional environments and vice versa?" (p. 141). In these cases, the alliances were the school-university partnerships and the institutional environments were the college and the school systems, as well as any other entities that impacted the interorganizational field (Nathan & Mitroff, 1991). Future researchers could focus on how partnerships are shaped by and interact with their parent organization. In studies on school-university partnerships, researchers could

focus on the negotiated orders within the college of the school systems, including the structural properties that presented as conditions and thus impacted the negotiated orders (Strauss, 1978).

2.) Future researchers could analyze the broader interorganizational domain of school-university partnerships and the collective responses to leadership succession concerns. Nathan and Mitroff (1991) conducted a similar analysis of the food industry in regard to responses to a product tampering crisis. An analysis could include entities such as state education agencies, college and university accreditation agencies, specialized program associations, higher education consortiums, and alternative certification organizations.

3.) In this study, school systems and the college stakeholders were encouraged by the state education agency to partner. Researchers could examine the policies of state education agencies that support partnerships as a means of ensuring leadership succession in schools. In addition to their recommendations for partnerships, an examination of the resources to support such efforts would be helpful, as this may be helpful to state education agencies in forming their own policies.

4.) One area that would warrant future research is the economic impact of educational leadership programs on the financial status of colleges and universities, especially considering the last two decades of explosive expansion of these programs across the nation (Baker, Orr, & Young, 2007).

5.) In this study, participants identified adjunct instructors as critical value creators. Research that focuses on the adjunct instructor might prove

instructive. However, the findings were unclear on what factors and characteristics contributed to their efficacy. Exploring what characteristics make adjunct instructors more likely to create and capture value would be beneficial. Specifically, the role that their own expectations and standards played in their efficacy should be explored. Other factors such as education, role in an organization, and years of experience could be examined, as well as more intangible factors such as leadership philosophy or mentoring beliefs.

6.) Researchers could examine what structures and supports would maximize adjunct instructors' value creation and capture potential in partnerships. Specifically, researchers could explore adjunct instructors' professional learning or orientation experiences, as well as their role in structuring the partnerships, selecting and delivering content, and assessing partnership outcomes.

7.) An assertion was made in these cases that graduates benefitted from the customized partnership experience so much that they demonstrated faster growth once in an administrative position. This accelerated development should be explored. If in fact this phenomenon exists, then school systems could capitalize on partnerships to not only build their pool of qualified candidates, but also systematically accelerate the growth of their assistant principals and principals. In essence, they could shorten the learning curve for new administrators. The research would need to identify the components and characteristics of partnerships that had the most impact on career growth and trajectory.

8.) More effectively assessing the knowledge, skills and dispositions of educational leadership graduates might prove useful for informing program design. Data from proven assessment tools could help colleges and universities select and sequence courses, identify the most critical course content, create relevant class assignments, craft learning experiences, and design internships around real word contexts. For example, the assessment tool such as the Vanderbilt Assessment of Leadership in Education (VAL-ED) might prove helpful. This data could also be used to assist state education or accreditation agencies in their work.

9.) In addition, participants noted partnership and campus graduates had very high pass rate for the State Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA), which was required for both program completion and state certification. One participant questioned whether this assessment was rigorous enough to truly measure the differences in potential administrators, noting that some students completed minimum requirements in the program and still passed the SLLA exam, noting that we "don't hear about [high pass rates] on the MCATs…or the LSATs." Exploration of the correlation between SLLA score and efficacy could be explored.

10.) This study focused on three school-university partnerships that involved one college and three different school systems. As of 2013, two of the three partnerships were stable or growing. One was discontinued in 2012. Researchers could examine partnerships that have failed. Lessons from these failures might be helpful for stakeholders in current or new partnerships to

avoid the pitfalls that led to failure. In contrast, a study of partnerships that have existed more than 10 years could be instructive as well.

11.) In these cases, many adjunct instructors felt they built their own capacity as administrators through the experience of being adjunct instructors. Again, this was not an intended outcome that was measured, but it was a perception held among many adjunct instructors. In essence, adjunct instructors reported that unintentional professional learning resulted from their experiences as an adjunct instructor. This could be explored.

12.) The certification of teachers for administrative positions (via the state education agency) was one critical element that school systems could not replicate through any induction or leadership development program of their own; they needed the college for this. Some school system stakeholders noted that certification was something that was required from higher education, but they left the impression that if the school system had the authority to award certification on its own, it might. As noted in the literature review, state legislatures have passed laws in recent years allowing entities other than college and universities to provide certification for administrative positions. Given this kind of latitude and authority, the data suggests that some stakeholders would likely explore ways to prepare its future administrators using its own leadership program or an expanded version of such a program. Because this interpretation of the data was somewhat speculative, researchers could examine the views of school system stakeholders in regard to providing certification pathways outside of higher education. Study here should be

conducted in areas where alternative certification is guided closely, if not completely, by local school systems or organizations outside of higher education.

13.) This study used negotiated order theory and value creation and capture as a conceptual framework. Because of the limitations of any such framework, a study of school-university partnerships using alternative theories would be an area of future research. Gray and Wood (1991) identified other theories for examining the interorganizational domain, and these could be starting points for a new study (i.e. resource dependence theory, corporate social performance/institutional economic theory, strategic management theory/social ecology theory, microeconomics theory, and political theory). Other theories could be explored as well.

14.) Recommendations related to the conduct of any future studies are also offered. I found using memos helpful for addressing (a) research questions, line of inquiry, or matters of theory; (b) code choices and functions; (c) emerging patterns, themes, connections; (d) problems with the study, ethical issues, and future directions; and (e) any patterns that emerged among memos. In hindsight, I would have used memos earlier in the data collection and analysis process. Memos became increasingly valuable to my thinking as the study progressed, and I suggest that any researcher use them deliberately and regularly from the onset of the research phase in any future studies. In addition, I suggest that future researchers conduct an additional cycle of document analysis. I found that returning to the documents after analysis of

the interviews allowed me to make more connections with the information in the documents; this allowed for more thorough triangulation of the data. After gaining a greater sense of each partnership through interviews, more was revealed in the documents when reviewing them a second time.

15.) A final area of research that is recommended involves perceptions of students in these partnerships. Participants in the study often differentiated between partnership students and campus program students, so exploring how students themselves perceived their affiliation, preparation and experiences would be a logical line of inquiry.

Conclusion

Considering data from participant interviews, documents, and field-based observations, the findings and interpretations have both credibility and truth value (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The findings, interpretations, and recommendations in this study would be applicable to stakeholders from a similar context, but those stakeholders will need to assess this for themselves. Therefore, several conclusions about creating and capturing value through school-university partnerships and collaboration in general are offered.

The findings and interpretations of these three case studies involving school-university partnerships suggested that collaborating was a valuable tool for creating and capturing value for the partnering organizations. Stakeholders in all organizations created value for their own organizations as part of the partnering process. They did so by developing co-specialized partnerships that took advantage of what the partnering organization had that they did not (Doz & Hamel, 1998). This value creation and capture

was realized because of the synergistic nature of collaboration and the key role collaboration plays in solving complex problems or meeting complex goals (Gray, 1989). Stakeholders could have created and captured even more value if they applied key findings from the literature on collaboration.

The stakeholders in these partnerships created and captured value with a relatively low expenditure of time, energy, and money. Stakeholders may not have been as positive about the outcomes of the partnerships if obtaining them required a more significant time commitment, a larger drain on energy, or a greater commitment of money. In all endeavors, there are opportunity costs for stakeholders' time, energy, and money; in general, there was a balance between what was achieved with what was expended in these partnerships. When this balance was maintained, the stakeholders could sustain the partnerships.

Considering the opportunity costs associated with time, energy, and money, just a little more of each would have made these partnerships even better. Participants offered many valuable suggestions for creating and capturing more value for both students in the partnerships and their own organizations. The findings and interpretations identified other improvements that could be made in the partnerships. Some of these changes would require significant increases in combinations of time, energy, and money; others would require very little. Stakeholders will have to evaluate for themselves which changes would likely increase value for their organizations against the potential costs for making such an improvement. Stakeholders could realize results that are more valuable than the additional resources they would commit.

Stakeholders who were interested in creating or reevaluating a school-university partnership may see the findings from this study, the literature on collaboration, the use of negotiated order theory, and the conceptualizations of value creation and capture as useful and instructive. Further, stakeholders beyond those in school-university partnerships may find the results of this study applicable to themselves. As noted earlier, value creation and capture were studied in partnerships with non-governmental organizations and universities (Birmingham, 2006), but other organizations trying to solve complex problems (Gray, 1989) may find these results applicable. For example, non-profit, religious, governmental and business organizations may apply findings from this study to tackle a variety of issues. Critical to their success will be the need to focus on creating and capturing value for their own organizations, determining how they could go about achieving this, and analyzing the negotiated order that will develop within the collaborative venture. This study can be instructive to that end.

References

Altheide, D. (1996). *Qualitative media analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Austin, J. (2000a). *The collaboration challenge: How non-profits and businesses succeed through alliances.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Austin, J. (2000b). Strategic collaboration between non-profits and businesses. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*. *29*(16) 69-97. doi: 1001177/08997640773746346.

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

Barnett, B., Margaret, B., Yerkes, D., & Norris, C. (2000). Cohorts in educational leadership programs: Benefits, difficulties, and the potential for developing school leaders. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 36*(2), 255-282.

Bazeley, P. (2003). Computerized data analysis for mixed methods reseach. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.). *Handbook of mixed methods in social & behavioral research* (pp. 385-422). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Birmingham, B. (2006). *Value creation and capture in non-profit partnerships* (Doctoral dissertation). Retreived from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI 3205352)

Bottoms, G., O'Neill, K., Fry, B., & Hill, D. (2003). *Good principals are the key to successful schools: Six strategies to prepare more good principals.* Atlanta:

Southern Regional Education Board. Retreived from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED478010.pdf

Browne-Ferrigno, T. (2004). Leadership mentoring in clinical practice: Role socialization, professional development, and capacity building. *Educational Administration Quartely, 40*(4), 468-494.

Bureau of Labor and Statistics. (2011). *Education Administrators.* Retrieved from http://www.bls.gov/oco/pdf/ocos007.pdf

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory.: A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cheney, G & Davis, J. (2011). *Gateways to the principalship; State power to improve the quality of school leaders.* Washington, DC: Center for American Progress. Retrieved from http://www.americanprogress.org/issues/2011/10/principalship.html

Coffey, A. & Atkinson, P. (1996). *Making sense of qualitative data: Complementary research strategies.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process.* London: Sage Publications.

Copland, M. (2001). The myth of the superprincipal. *Phi Delta Kappan, 58*(7), 528-533.

Council of Chief State School Officers. (2008). *Educational leadership policy standards: ISLLC 2008.* Washington DC: Council of Chief State School Officers. Retreived from http://www.ccsso.org/Documents/2008/Educational_Leadership_Policy_Standards_2008.pdf

Creswell, J. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., Meyerson, D., & Orr, M. (2007). *Preparing school leaders for a changing world: Lessons from exemplary leadership development programs.* Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Stanford Educational Leadership Institute. Retreived from http://seli.stanford.edu/research/documents/sls_exec_summ.pdf

Davis, S., Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., & Meyerson, D. (2005). *School leadership study: Developing successful principals.* Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Stanford Educational Leadership Institute. Retreived from http://edpolicy.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/publications/preparing-school-leaders-changing-world-case-studies-exemplary-programs.pdf

Day, R. & Day, J. (1977). A review of the current state of negotiated order thoery: An application and a critique. *The Sociological Quarterly, 18*(1), 126-142.

Dewalt, K. & DeWalt, B. (2002). *Participant observation: A guide for fieldworkers*. Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.

DiPaola, M., & Tschannen-Moran, M. (2003). The principalship at a crossroads: A study of the conditions and concerns of principals. *NASSP Bulletin, 87*(634).

Doz, Y. & Hamel, G. (1998). *Alliance advantage: The art of creating value through partnering*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Fry, B., Bottoms, G. & O'Neill, K. (2005). *The principal internship: Can we get it right?.* Atlanta, GA: Southern Regional Education Board. Retreived from http://publications.sreb.org/2005/05V02_Principal_Internship.pdf

Fry, B., Bottoms, G., O'Neill, K. & Walker, S. (2007). *Schools need good leaders now: State progress in creating a learner-centered school leadership system.* Atlanta, GA: Southern Regional Education Board. Retreived from http://publications.sreb.org/2007/07V48_School_leadership.pdf

Fry, B., & O'Neill, K. (2005). *Schools can't wait: Accelerating the redesign of university principal preparation programs.* Atlanta, GA: Southern Regional Education Board. Retreived from http://publications.sreb.org/2006/06V04_Schools_Cant_Wait.pdf

Gajda, R., & Militello, M. (2008). Recruiting and retaining school principals: What can we learn from practicing administrators. *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice, 5*(2), 14-20.

Gates, S., Ringel, J., Santibanez, L., Ross, K., & Chung, C. (2003). *Who is leading our schools?* Santa Monica, CA: RAND. Retreived from http://www.rand.org/pubs/monograph_reports/MR1679.html

Glazier, B. 2000). *The preparation of school principals: A study of the Bank Street College Principals Institute.* Retreived from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI 9968426)

Gray, B. (1989). *Collaborating: Finding common ground for multiparty problems*. (1st ed.) San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Gray, B. & Wood, D. (1991). Collaborative alliances: Moving from practice to theory. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 27*, 3-22.

Hale, E., & Moorman, H. (2003). *Preparing school principals: A national perspective on policy and program innovations.* Washington DC and Edwardsville, IL: Institute

for Educational Leadership and Illinois Education Research Council. Retreived from http://www.iel.org/pubs/preparingprincipals.pdf

Hess, F., & Kelly, A. (2005). An innovative look, a recalcitrant reality: The politics of principal preparation reform. *Educational Policy, 19*(1), 155-180.

Hess, F., & Kelly, A. (2007). Learning to lead: What gets taught in principal-preparation programs. *Teachers College Record, 109*(1), 244-274.

Hickey-Gramke, M., & Whaley, D. (2007). Essential elements and emergent issues for alternative principal licensing: Recommendations for policy design and implementation. *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice, 4*(3), 20-25.

Institute for Educational Leadership. (2000). *Leadership for student learning: Reinventing the principalship.* Washington, DC: Institute for Educational Leadership. Retreived from http://www.iel.org/programs/21st/reports/principal.pdf

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

Jackson, B., & Kelley, C. (2003). *Exceptional and innovative programs in educational leadership (commission paper).* Columbia, MO: National Commission on the Advancement of Educational Leadership Preparation.

Johnson, R. (1997). Examining the validity structure of qualitative research. *Education, 118,* 282-292.

Knowledge is Power Program. (2012). *Lead a new KIPP school.* San Francisco: Retrieved from http://www.kipp.org/schools

Krefting, L. (1991). Rigor in qualitative research: The assessment of trustworthiness. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy, 45*, 214-222.

Leithwood, K., Louis, K., Anderson, S., & Wahlstrom, K. (2004). *How leadership influences student learning.* New York: The Wallace Foundation. Retreived from http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/school-leadership/key-research/Documents/How-Leadership-Influences-Student-Learning.pdf

Lepak, D., Smith, K. & Taylor, M. S. (2007) Value creation and value capture: A multilevel perspective. *Academy of Management Review, 32*(1), 180-194.

Levine, A. (2005). *Educating school leaders.* New York: The Education Schools Project. Retreived from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED504142.pdf

Linden, R. (2002). *Working across boundaries: Making collaboration work in government and non-profit organizations.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Lincoln, Y. & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Lofland, J., Snow, D., Anderson, L. & Lofland, L. (2006). *Analyzing social settings: A guide to qualitative observation and analysis*. Belmont, CA: Thompson Wadsworth.

Marshall, C. & Rossman, G. (2006). *Designing qualitative research* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Maryland State Department of Education. (2009). *Governor's Principals' Task Force Report.* Baltimore, MD: Maryland State Department of Education. Retreived from http://marylandpublicschools.org/

Massachusetts Department of Education. (2009). *District-based preparation programs.* Boston: Massachusetts Department of Education. Retreived from www.doe.mass.edu

Maxwell, J. (2005). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Miles & Huberman. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Miller, T., Devin, M., & Shoop, R. (2007). *Closing the leadership gap: How district and university partnerships shape school leaders*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Mitroff, N. & Kilmann, R. (1984). *Corporate tragedies: Product tampering, sabatoge, and other catastrophies*. As cited in Nathan, M. & Mitroff, I. (1991). The use of negotiated order theory as a tool for the analysis and development of an interorganizational field. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 27*, 163-180.

Merriam, S. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Murphy, J., & Vriesenga, M. (2004). Research in preparation programs in educational administration: An analysis. *Monograph prepared for the University Council for Educational Administration*. Retreived from http://ucea.org/monograph

Murphy, J., Elliott, S., Goldring, E., & Porter, A. (2007). Leadership for learning: A research-based model and taxonomy of behaviors. *School Leadership and Management, 27*(2), 179-201.

Murphy, J., Moorman, H., & McCarthy, M. (2008). A framework for rebuilding initial certification and preparation programs in educational leadership: Lessons from whole-state reform initiatives. *Teachers College Record, 110*(10), 2172-2203.

Myran, S., Crum, K., & Clayton, J. &. (2011). Four pillars of successful university-district partnerships: Implications for educational planning. *Educational Planning, 19*(2), 46-60.

Nathan, M. & Mitroff, I. (1991). The use of negotiated order theory as a tool for the analysis and development of an interorganizational field. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 27,* 163-180.

National Association of Secondary School Principals. (2000). *The Principal Shortage.* Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals. Retreived from http://www.principals.org/

National Association of State Boards of Education. (2004). *Ensuring high-quality leaders for all schools.* Alexandria, VA: National Association of State Boards of Education. Retreived from http://www.nasbe.org/

New Leaders for New Schools. (2012). *Results.* Retrieved from http://www.newleaders.org/impact/results/

Nicolaides, N., & Gaynor, A. (1992). The knowledge base informing the teaching of administrative and organizational theory in UCEA universities: A descriptive and interpretive study. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 28*(2), 237-265.

Norton, J. (2002). *Universities in the lead: redesigning leadership preparation for student achievement.* Atlanta, GA: Southern Region Education Board. Retreived from http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/school-

leadership/principal-training/Documents/Redesigning-Leadership-Preparation-for-Student-Achievement.pdf

Orr, M. & Barber, M. (2006). Collaborative leadership: A comparative study of partnership and conventional programs and practices. *Journal of School Leadership,* 16, 709-739.

Pauls, L. (2005). Another take on "Educating School Leaders". *Inside Higher Ed* Retreived from http://www.insidehighered.com/views/2005/03/21/levine

Poland, B. (2002). Transcription quality. In J. F. Gubrium & J. A. Holstein (Eds.), *Handbook of interview research*: *Context & method* (pp.83-101). Thousand Oaks, CA; Sage Publications.

Rapley, T. (2007). *Doing conversation, discourse and document analysis*. London: Sage Publications.

Ravid, R., & Handler, M. (2001). *The many faces of school-university collaboration: Characteristics of successful partnerships.* Englewood, CA: Teacher Ideas Press.

Rayfield, R., & Diamantes, T. (2003). Principal satisfaction and the shortage of educational leaders. *Connections, 5*. Retreived from http://www.principals.org/portals/0/content/48351.pdf

Rayfield, R., & Diamantes, T. (2004). An analysis of administrator attitudes toward tasks in school administration. *Journal of Instructional Psychology, 31*(3), 253-256.

Robinson, V., Lloyd, C., & Rowe, K. (2008). The impact of leadership on student outcomes: An analysis of the differential effects of leadership types. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 44*(5), 635-674.

Rubin, H. & Rubin, I. (2005). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Saldana, J. (2009). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. London: Sage Publications.

Sanzo K., Myran, S. & Clayton, J. (2011). Building bridges between knowledge and practice: A university-school district leadership preparation program partnership. *Journal of Educational Administration, 49*(3), 292-312.

Shelton, S. (2011). *Strong leaders, strong laws: 2010 school leadership laws.* Washington DC: National Conference of State Legislatures. Retreived from http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/school-leadership/state-policy/Documents/2010-Strong-Leaders-Strong-Schools.pdf

Shelton, S. (2010). *Strong leaders, strong laws: 2009 school leadership laws.* Washington DC: National Conference of State Legislatures. Retreived from http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/school-leadership/state-policy/Documents/2009-School-Leadership-Laws.pdf

Shelton, S. (2009). *Strong leaders, strong laws: 2008 state laws.* Washington DC: National Conference of State Legislatures. Retreived from http://www.ncsl.org/portals/1/documents/Educ/STRONGLEADERSSTRONGSCHOOLS2008.pdf

Southern Region Education Board. (2004). *The Providence School Department and the University of Rhode Island Partnership*. Atlanta, GA: Southern Region Education Board. Retreived from http://publications.sreb.org/2005/05V05_Providence.pdf

Stake, R. (1990). Situational context as influence on evaluation design and use. *Studies in Educational Evaluation, 16,* 213-246.

Storms, B. & Gonzales, S. (2006). A model for successful district-based leadership development partnerships. *Educational Leadership and Administration, 18,* 35-49.

Strauss, A. (1978). *Negotiations: Varieties, contexts, processes and social order*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Strauss, A. (1987). *Qualitative analysis for social scientists*. Cambidge, MA: Cambridge Unniversity Press.

Teitel, L. (1997). Understanding and harnessing the power of the cohort model in preparing educational leaders. *Peabody Journal of Education, 72*(2), 66-85.

The Broad Foundation and Thomas B. Fordham Institute. (2003). *Better leaders for America's schools: A manifesto.* Los Angeles and New York: The Broad Foundation and Thomas B. Fordham Institute. Retreived from http://www.broadeducation.org/asset/1128-betterleadersforamericasschools.pdf

The Wallace Foundation. (2006). *Leadership for learning: Making the connections among state, district and school policies and practices.* New York: The Wallace Foundation. Retreived from http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/school-leadership/district-policy-and-practice/Documents/Wallace-Perspective-Leadership-for-Learning.pdf

The Wallace Foundation. (2008). *Becoming a leader: Preparing school principals for today's schools.* New York: The Wallace Foundation. Retreived from http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/school-leadership/principal-

training/Documents/Becoming-a-Leader-Preparing-Principals-for-Todays-Schools.pdf

The Wallace Foundation. (2009). *Assessing the effectivness of school leaders: New directions and new processes.* New York: The Wallace Foundation. Retreived from http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/school-leadership/principal-evaluation/Documents/Assessing-the-Effectiveness-of-School-Leaders.pdf

University of Rhode Island. (2012). *URI, public schools find 'principal' way to improve administrative performance.* Retrieved from http://www.uri.edu/news/releases/?id=5884

Warren, C. (2002). Qualitative interviewing. In J. F. Gubrium & J. A. Holstein (Eds.), *Handbook of interview research*: *Context & method* (pp.83-101). Thousand Oaks, CA; Sage Publications

Waters, T., Marzano, R., & McNulty, B. (2003). *Balanced leadership: What 30 years of research tells us about the effect of leadership on student achievemnt.* Aurora, CO: Mid-Continent Research for Education and Learning. Retreived from http://www.mcrel.org/products-and-services/products/product-listing/01_99/product-82

Whitaker, K., King, R., & Vogel, L. (2004). School district-university partnerships: Graduate student perceptions of strengths and weaknesses of a reformed leadership development program. *Planning and Changing, 35*(3&4), 209-222.

Williams, E., Matthews, J., & Baugh, S. (2004). Developing a mentoring internship model for school leadership: Using legitimate peripheral participation. *Mentoring and Tutoring, 12*(1), 53-70.

Wood, D. & Gray, B. (1991). Toward a more comprehensive theory of collaboration. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 27*, 139-162.

Yin, R. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Young, M., Crow, G., Orr, T., & Creighton, T. (2005). An educative look to "Educating School Leaders". *UCEA Review, 47*(2), 1-5.

Young, M., Peterson, G., & Short, P. (2002). The complexity of substantive reform: A call for interdependence among key stakeholders. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 38*(2), 137-175.

Appendices

Appendix 1 Informed Consent

Informed Consent Notification

"How Do Stakeholders Engaged in School-University Partnerships Create Value for their Own Organizations?"

GW IRB Number:

Principal Investigator: Jennifer K. Clayton, Ph. D. Telephone number: 757-269-2203

Contact Person: Kevin S. Cuppett Telephone number: 301-964-7449

1. Introduction
   You are invited to participate in a research study under the direction of Dr. Jennifer K. Clayton, of the Graduate School of Education and Human Development, George Washington University (GWU). Taking part in this research is entirely voluntary.
2. Why is this study being done?
   You are being asked to participate in this study because you either hold a position of leadership within a K-12 school or school district or are a university faculty member in educational administration and/or leadership and have a working knowledge of the school-university partnership that is the focus of the study. Please read this form and ask me any questions that will help you decide if you want to be in the study. Taking part is completely voluntary and even if you decide you want to, you can quit at any time. You must be at least 18 years old to take part in this study.
   The purpose of this study is to understand leadership how stakeholders in school-university partnership create value for their own organizations when engaged in such partnerships.
   A total of no more than 30 participants will be asked to take part in this study.
3. What is involved in this study?
   If you choose to take part in this study, you will participate in one interview no longer than 90 minutes in length. The following activities are specifically research related: acknowledging consent verbally, participating in the interview, and identifying documents, media and observation opportunities that may be relevant to the research study. In addition, you will be asked to identify other stakeholders who may have relevant information for the study knowing that I will also be inviting them to volunteer as participants. The total amount of time you will spend in connection with this study is approximately 90 minutes. The interview will be audio recorded. During the interview, I will ask you (a) to describe your experiences with the school-university partnership; (b) to discuss the

preconditions, processes and outcomes of the partnership; and (c) to offer your thoughts, opinions and feeling about the partnership.

4. What are the risks of participating in this study?
   You may feel emotional or physical fatigue during the interview. There is, however, the possible risk of loss of confidentiality. Every effort will be made to keep your information confidential; however, this cannot be guaranteed. You may refuse to answer any of the questions, and you may take a break at any time during the study. You may stop your participation in this study at any time.
5. Are there benefits to taking part in this study?
   You will not benefit directly from your participation in the study. The benefit to the field of educational leadership and leadership preparation that might result from this study is a more accurate understanding of the role of school-university partnerships in leadership preparation and how such partnerships can create value for partnering organizations.
6. What are my options?
   You do not have to participate in this study if you do not want to. Should you decide to participate and later change your mind, you can do so at any time.
7. Will I receive payment for being in this study?
   You will not receive any type of payment for participating in this study.
8. Can I be taken off the study?
   The investigator can decide to withdraw you from the study at any time. You could be taken off the study for reasons related solely to you (for example, not following study related directions from the investigator) or because the entire study is stopped.

9. How will my privacy be protected?
   If results of this research study are reported in journals or at scientific meetings, the people who participated in this study will not be named or identified. GWU will not release any information about your research involvement without your written permission, unless required by law.

   To minimize the risk that your confidentiality will be compromised, all audio recorded contents of the interview will be erased after it has been transcribed. Prior to transcription, I will keep the audio files in a secure location and password protected. The written transcripts will not include your name or the name of the institutions you have been affiliated with.

   Your records may be reviewed by departments of the University responsible for overseeing research safety and compliance.

10. Problems or questions
    The Office of Human Research of George Washington University, at (202) 994-2715, can provide further information about your rights as a research participant. If you think you have been harmed in this study, you can report this to the Principal Investigator of this study.

INVESTIGATOR'S STATEMENT

I certify that I have explained to this subject the nature and purpose of this research, including benefits, risks, costs, and any experimental procedures. I have described the rights and protections afforded to human subjects and have done nothing to pressure, coerce, or falsely entice this subject into participating. I am aware of my obligations under state and federal laws, and promise compliance. I have answered the subject's questions and have encouraged him/her to ask additional questions at any time during the course of this study

Investigator's Printed Name & Signature

Date

Appendix 2: Recruitment Email

This email serves as an invitation for your participation in a current study I am conducting as a doctoral student at The George Washington University. This study will incorporate the voice of current K-12 school leaders in various positions and college faculty in educational leadership or administration programs who have been engaged in school-university partnership for preparing school administrators. I will be asking you to describe your current understanding of [insert partnership name here] school–university partnership. I am specifically seeking insight into how stakeholders create value for their own organizations when engaged in the partnership.

I would like to request an interview with you to discuss your insights on this topic. The interview length will vary, but will last no longer than 90-minutes. I can accommodate your schedule and meet you at a convenient location. Your responses to my interview questions would be dealt with confidentially. I would refer to you only by the position you currently hold, unless yours is a unique position that could lead to your identification. In that case you would only be referred to as a member of your organization. The interviews will be recorded for purposes of transcription, however the transcripts will have a unique code for identification and recordings will be destroyed upon completion of the transcription. Your recording will not be used in any presentation or publication. All interview data will be kept in secure locations and all identifying information will be deleted to preserve your confidentiality. I will fully explained the research process and ask for your fully informed consent prior to starting the interview. This will give you an opportunity to ask any questions about the study or research procedures.

Please contact me at this e-mail address or telephone number if you are able to participate:
kcuppett@gwmail.gwu.edu
301-964-7449

Thank you very much for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Kevin S. Cuppett
Doctoral Candidate
Educational Leadership and Policy Studies
The George Washington University

Appendix 3: Interview Protocol

Date: Time: Location:

Participant:

Participant Code: by Institution, Role, Partnership, Dates of Involvement: (Ex: HC-ADJUNCT1-FCPS; FCPS-LIAISON2-FCPS; MCPS-HRADMIN1-MCPS)

Interview Code: Participant Code + Date + Time + Location (Ex: HC-ADJUNCT1-FCPS-6.15.12-16:00-17:15-HC)

Participant's Contact Information: Address, phone, email address

Introduction:

Thanks for taking the time to meet with me. I am a doctoral student at The George Washington University. I am studying school-university partnerships and the role they play in principal preparation. I'm interested in this partnership specifically, your role in it and what you thoughts are about what's been accomplished. You were selected for the study because you have a working knowledge of the school-university partnership(s) with [insert name(s) of partnering organization(s) here].

I will be conducting many in depth interviews with people from the local school systems and at the college. I will be analyzing all of that data against my research questions. I will not use any identifying information about you in the study. Everything you say will be kept confidential; your name will not be associated with any specific comments or conclusions expressed in the study. You may be identified by position in a generic sense (professor, staff member, etc), and only when that descriptor will not identify you.

I want to cover some of the logistics with you. The interview will be semi-structured, so I hope if flows more like a conversation. It will last no longer than 90 minutes.

I will be recording our interview today for purposes of transcription. This also means I can spend more time listening and thinking about your insight and responses, and less time taking notes. Your recording will not be used in any publication or presentation. The files containing the recording will be de-identified as soon as possible, but the only identifier on them will be a participant code that cannot be connected to your name by anyone but me.

While we talk, feel free to ask questions or seek clarification about anything we discuss. The best data for me will come for me when we both are clear on the discussion. Let me just check to make sure my cell phone is off (hint, hint). So, do you have any questions before we get started?

Questions	Notes	Follow-up/Probes
☐ So why don't you tell me about how you became involved with this partnership and what your role (or roles) have been? (participant background)		☐ What years did that span? ☐ Responsibilities? ☐ Other roles?
☐ Tell me about the partnership between the college and the school system? (description)		☐ Organizations? ☐ Structure? ☐ Governance? ☐ Purpose? ☐ Evaluation? ☐ Personnel? ☐ Leaders? ☐ Funding? ☐ Outside organizations involved?
☐ What do you think led to the partnership developing? What drove its creation? (preconditions)		☐ Is there any mission statement or memo of understanding about the partnership? What about other documents?
☐ What were the goals or intended outcomes of the partnership? (preconditions)		☐ Do you think those were met? ☐ What was gained by moving away from a traditional program structure or approach?
☐ What were some of the actions the school system and the college took to create and develop the partnership? (processes)		

☐ How did the member of the partnership come to agreements about "who would do what?" (processes)		☐ What about who would contribute what?
☐ Were there any growing pains? Any rough spots that needed to be worked out? If so, how did that occur? (processes)		
☐ My research is dealing a lot with the benefits of these partnerships. I am calling this value creation. What have been the most beneficial or valuable outcomes of the partnership? (outcomes)		
☐ Value creation can occur at a variety of levels including the *individual*, *group*, *organization*, and *societal* levels. When you think about these levels, can you identify any value created by the partnership that you hadn't mentioned earlier? (outcomes)		
☐ Was there any unexpected value creation? Any surprises? (outcomes)		

☐ Value capture is the concept of actually realizing a value that was created. How does your organization work to capture the value created in the partnership? (processes)		☐ Does any of it slip away?
☐ What have been the most valuable "take aways" for your organization? What has _____ gained for its participation? (outcomes)		
☐ What have been the biggest costs for your organization? Resources? Time? (processes-outcomes)		
☐ Has there been much discussion about how value is measured? If so, what are they ways that is accomplished? (processes-outcomes)		
☐ Do you think there are other ways the partnership could create or capture more value? What would it take? How would that happen? (processes-outcomes)		
☐ Are there any documents or media that you think would provide data about the partnership, its origins or its processes? (logistics-triangulation-documents)		Minutes Advertisements Web based information Agreements Emails

☐ Are there any events or meetings coming up in the next few months that might be valuable for me to sit in on? (logistics-triangulation-observations)		☐ What information about my study do you think I'd get from this meeting or event? ☐ Who should I contact about attending that event?
☐ Is there any other person you could identify that might provide good information about my line of research who might consider being interviewed? (logistics-triangulation-sample)		

Wrap-up:
I really want to thank you for your time. Your information will be very valuable for my research. I'll soon be doing an initial analysis of the data in my study. Would you be available in case I have a follow-up question? If so, would calling you or emailing you be better?
One of the tools I will be using in my study is called a member check. (Define if necessary). Would you be available to review my initial analysis and offer any feedback?
Thanks again for your time. Have a great day.

Appendix 4: Documents Protocol

Document Code: Includes Institution of origin, type, partnership, date (Ex: HC-MOU-FCPS-1.22.12 or FCPS-EMAIL 21-2.18.12)

Date Received:

Provider:

Provider's Contact Information: Address, phone, email address

Description of Content
Notes

Appendix 5: Observation Protocol

Date: Location: Start Time: Stop Time:

Participants:

Observation Code: by institution, type of event, partnership, date: (Ex: HC-

PLANINGSESSION-FCPS-3.14.12; FCPS-INTERNMEETING-FCPS)

Introduction:

Thanks for allowing me to spend time with you today. I am a doctoral student at The George Washington University. I am studying school-university partnerships and the role they play in principal preparation. I'm interested in this event because it has been identified by a study participant as one that may provide me insights into my research on school-university partnerships and how stakeholders in partnering organization create value for their own organizations.
I will not use any identifying information about you in the study. Everything you say will be kept confidential; your name will not be associated with any specific comments or conclusions expressed in the study. You may be identified by position in a generic sense (professor, staff member, etc), and only when that descriptor will not identify you.
Thanks again for allowing me to join you. If you have any questions for me, I'll be available after the meeting

Notational Key
Notes:

What is happening	What is said	Observations/Notes

Logistics
☐ Are there any documents or media that you think would provide data about the partnership, its origins or its processes? (logistics-triangulation-documents) Minutes, advertisements, web based information, agreements, emails
☐ Are there any other events or meetings coming up in the next few months that might be valuable for me to sit in on? (logistics-triangulation-observations) ☐ What information about my study do you think I'd get from this meeting or event? ☐ Who should I contact about attending that event?
☐ Is there a person you could identify that might provide good information about my line of research who might consider being interviewed? (logistics-triangulation-sample)
Other

Wrap-up:

I really want to thank you for your time. Your information will be very valuable for my research. I'll soon be doing an initial analysis of the data in my study. Would you be available in case I have a follow-up question? If so, would calling you or emailing you be better?
One of the tools I will be using in my study is called a member check. (Define if necessary). Would you be available to review my initial analysis and offer any feedback?
Thanks again for your time. Have a great day.