

Catholic School Effectiveness Literature Review

Lorraine A. Ozar, Ph.D., Teresa Barton, Elizabeth Calteaux

ABSTRACT

This review of literature was undertaken to ground and inform a proposed longitudinal study to determine whether implementing the *National Standards and Benchmarks for Effective Catholic Elementary and Secondary Schools* (NSBECS) (2012) will result in more highly effective Catholic schools. The literature and research examined pertaining to key questions related to the study showed that: 1) school effectiveness research is a significant area of study and includes various methods and types; 2) implementing external standards can lead to more effective schools; 3) the presence of several definable conditions increase the likelihood of successful implementation of standards with positive results; 4) although the majority of standards-based school effectiveness research focuses on student academic achievement, growing evidence suggests that a more holistic approach to school effectiveness is warranted; 5) there is no existing research on the use of comprehensive standards in Catholic schools; and 6) studying the impact of the NSBECS can contribute not only to Catholic schools but to the public and charter school community as well.

OUTLINE OF SECTIONS

- I. Introduction**
- II. Methodology of Review of Literature**
- III. School Effectiveness Research**
 - Historical Analysis of Effectiveness
 - Typology of School Effectiveness Research
 - Effectiveness and the Total School
 - Research from Chicago
 - Effectiveness and Catholic Schools
- IV. Academic Standards and School Effectiveness**
 - The Role of Standards in U.S. Education
 - Standards and School Effectiveness
 - Questioning the Use of Standards in Education
 - Factors for Successful Use of Standards for School Improvement
- V. Non-Academic Standards and School Effectiveness**
 - Social-Emotional Learning Standards
 - Alternative Indicators of Student Success
 - Non-Cognitive Factors and School Performance
- VI. Comprehensive School Effectiveness Standards**
 - Comprehensive Standards for Charter Schools
 - Limitations
- VII. Conclusion**
 - Summary of Findings
 - Implications for Catholic School Standards Study

I. INTRODUCTION

As schools have become more and more accountable, whether for the purpose of adhering to policy or striving for consistent improvement, school effectiveness has become a major focus for all sectors of PK-12 education – public, charter, and private. External standards play a prominent and often pre-eminent role in these discussions and in subsequent demonstrations of school effectiveness. Catholic schools, which constitute 43% of private schools, are not exempt from discussions of either effectiveness or standards. Until recently, standards being applied to schools have been developed by and reflect the public domain almost exclusively. As such, they fail to address key elements of Catholic schools related to their mission to educate the whole child in a school environment that integrates academic excellence and faith formation.

Partially in response to increased competition, to the need for appropriate accountability, and a desire for greater clarity of mission and identity, the *National Standards and Benchmarks for Effective Catholic Elementary and Secondary Schools* (NSBECS) were published in 2012. The intended and desired goal was that NSBECS could serve as both a guide and a tool for *Catholic* school effectiveness and sustainability. They would not only be inclusive of research-based school effectiveness criteria in general, but they would additionally apply criteria unique to Catholic school mission and identity.

During the three years since publication and dissemination, the NSBECS have become widely embraced by hundreds of Catholic schools, scores of dioceses, numerous university centers and schools of education, funders, and accrediting groups across the country. Rubrics and guidelines have been developed and continue to expand to help

Catholic educators at all levels use the Standards and Benchmarks for school performance review, school improvement, and strategic planning. While acceptance and usage appear strong and widespread, implementation of NSBECS at this time remains largely idiosyncratic and results undocumented.

For the NSBECS to function fully as a valid, reliable, data-generating framework for PK-12 Catholic school accountability and improvement, we need to verify that, in fact, *the adoption and implementation of NSBECS with fidelity will result in highly effective Catholic schools*. This statement constitutes the underlying hypothesis of the proposed Catholic School Standards Longitudinal Study (CSS Study). Framed as a research question, we seek to determine: **What are the effects of implementing the NSBECS with fidelity on measures of school effectiveness?**

The review of literature in this paper serves to ground and inform the proposed CSS Longitudinal Study by examining research (primarily over the last 10 years in the United States) about Standards-based school effectiveness and improvement in the public domain, and then in relation to PK-12 Catholic schools. We wanted to explore what researchers and practitioners have already learned around a number of questions relevant to the proposed study:

- What is the relationship of external standards to school effectiveness?
- When schools use standards to drive change and improvement, are there identifiable characteristics or conditions in the school community and/or in the methods of implementation of standards that contribute to stronger positive results?

- Are there frameworks and/or standards schools use to measure multidimensional school effectiveness beyond academic achievement alone?
- Have there been prior studies of Catholic school effectiveness?
- What could a longitudinal study of the impact of NSBECS contribute to school effectiveness research?

II. METHODOLOGY OF REVIEW OF LITERATURE

We began our literature review process by meeting and brainstorming various themes and ideas that we deemed necessary to include in the review. Once we settled upon the subjects related to our research questions, we utilized several online databases, including JSTOR, ERIC, and Academic Search Complete, along with Chicago consortium research to find relevant articles. We also used the Loyola University Chicago library's book search engine, World Cat Local and Pegasus, to find the appropriate books. We compiled our research and met bi-weekly to discuss findings. After our extensive research process, we outlined the structure of the outline and compiled the report.

To analyze the data, we used qualitative discourse analysis method. This method is helpful in analyzing how our problem is viewed broadly within literature and also how the problem specifically is occurring in actual everyday life. In the literature review, coding was also utilized to find the overarching themes relevant to the research problem.

III. SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS RESEARCH

School effectiveness has become a dominant research paradigm, especially in the United States and England. Morley and Rassool (1999) simply define school effectiveness as the study of incremental change that “combines culture management (the creation of purposes and meanings) with performance management (measuring what really matters)” (p. 60). It “addresses the question of what works in education and why” (Kyriakides, Creemers, Antoniou, & Demetriou, 2010, p. 807). In an age of accountability, limited resource and high stakes testing, education is increasingly becoming everyone’s “problem,” rather than solely a local one. School systems must answer to multiple stakeholders; therefore, “the logical outcome of school effectiveness research is the creation of monitoring systems to supply schools with regular measures of effectiveness” to “provide fair indicators of performance, not only on cognitive goals but also on other outcomes of concern” (Reynolds & Cuttance, 1992, p. 117). Although school effectiveness researchers have primarily utilized quantitative methods to measure the outcomes of students’ academic achievement (Morley & Rassool, 1999), this literature review will highlight research that shows there is much more to a “good” school than high test scores.

To uncover multiple aspects of school effectiveness this review will first historically situate school effectiveness research, and then briefly discuss the three major strands of school effectiveness research, including school effects research, effective schools research, and school improvement research (Teddle & Reynolds, 2000). Finally, since Catholic Schools are concerned with educating the whole child, it will highlight the literature that speaks to “the total environment of the school,” (Silver, 1994, p. 6) “not

only the strong emphasis that ‘all students can learn’, but also the sense that all aspects of the school can and need to be studied” (p. 161). This section ends with a brief discussion of how Catholic schools have contributed to the “total school” approach, which uncovers the need for more empirical research on Catholic school effectiveness.

The review will then trace the evolution of standards as a means of defining outcomes for school effectiveness and a catalyst for reaching those outcomes. The majority of the literature discussed in this section is concerned with academic standards for student learning, as these standards have garnered the majority of research and public attention to date. A discussion of the utility of academic standards in education and the factors that lead to their success in influencing educational practices and student learning results is followed by an overview of efforts to create standards for or otherwise measure effectiveness in areas in addition to academics which may have implications for effective Catholic schools. We conclude this review by highlighting what we do *not* find in the literature on school effectiveness and educational standards and offering new directions for research which may help to inform total Catholic school effectiveness in an era of standards-based education.

Historical Analysis of Effectiveness

The inception of school effectiveness research came as a response to the Coleman Report in 1966 (Downey, von Hippel, & Hughes, 2008; Glanville, Sikkink, Hernandez, 2008; Kyriakides et al., 2008; Silver, 1994; Morley & Rassool, 1999; Normand, 2008; Reynolds & Cuttance, 1992; Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000) and the Plowden report in 1967 (Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000). The Coleman Report argued that schools did little to reduce inequality. Even when schools utilized additional resources such as increased per pupil

expenditures, better equipment, and quality curricula, in addition to experienced teachers, schools still were unable to reduce the achievement gap (Normand, 2008). Along the same lines in England, the Plowden Committee Report, *Children and Their Primary Schools*, which focused on British primary schools, discussed the important roles of parents in shaping their children's academic performance (Silver, 1994). As a result of these studies, researchers in the 1970s were poised to provide evidence to counter these reports as a way to respond to widespread criticism of schools (Silver, 1994). They argued that "Coleman was wrong, and that schools do make a difference" (Morley & Rassool, 1999, p. 2). Further, the spread of international data through the advent of globalization created an environment where countries became increasingly concerned with school performance (Morley & Rassool, 1999). Researchers sought to locate good information that maximized "positive impact and [avoided] the negative impact which can arise from poorly conceived systems which threaten rather than inform, distract rather than energize, and demoralize rather than promote professionalism" (Fitz-Gibbon, 1996, p. 4). Overall, "the scientific project behind the school effectiveness paradigm was designed by experts and scientists who intended to provide a new representation of education as well as modern governance and management tools for educational systems" (Normand, 2008, p. 665). Therefore, as schooling became more and more politicized, the concern for implementing sound policy procedures in schools nationally became essential.

Originating in the United States and England, school effectiveness literature first aimed to discover the differences between schools (Silver, 1994). In America, particularly, effectiveness research identified school difference "not by a single factor but

by a ‘critical mass of positive factors which, when put together, make the difference’ (Silver, 1994, p. 109). The research has progressed “variously towards managerial efficiency, better working environments or higher teacher expectations, classroom organization or teacher behaviour, forms of evaluation and assessment or gains for equity...” (Silver, 1994, p. 100). Although initially conceptualized as a way to respond to school criticism, school effectiveness research has evolved and expanded over time to encompass multiple aspects of educational experiences and how these experiences can be both monitored and improved.

The most common methods utilized to measure school effectiveness have fallen under three categories: measuring achievement, measuring learning, and using covariate adjustment (Downey et al., 2008).

Achievement as measure. The most popular way to assess school effectiveness is student academic achievement, which in the US has been catalyzed through the national policy No Child Left Behind (NCLB). The act holds schools accountable for student achievement through the use of state-specific high stakes tests (Downey et al., 2008, p. 243). Since government money is tied to annual math and reading exams from third grade to eighth and further exams from 10th to 12th grade, along with science evaluations from third grade to 12th, school effectiveness research has focused on testing scores as a strong indicator of whether a school is successful (Downey et al., 2008). Although NCLB is routinely criticized for reducing the concept of learning to numerical data, “standards and accountability policies have nonetheless sought to make teachers more effective through the promotion of test-based performance management” (Normand, 2008, p. 668).

Learning as measure. School effectiveness research has also addressed the ways in which schools can effectively measure student learning, while simultaneously measuring teacher effectiveness. Highlighting the need to gauge student performance over the course of a year, rather than focusing solely on standardized test scores, this value-added approach has gained increasing attention from policy advocates. There are various formulas that administrators have used in value-added approaches, but the overall aim of this measure is to look at student growth by analyzing students' average testing gains over the entire year. Teachers are then evaluated based on how much growth occurred by comparing scores either with other teachers in the district or state, or with a predetermined scoring rubric (Koretz, 2008). Under a learning-based evaluative system, schools that serve children with initially high achievement would be challenged to raise students' performance even further, while schools that serve disadvantaged students could be deemed 'effective' if the students made substantial progress from an initially low achievement level, even if their final achievement level was still somewhat low. (Downey et al., 2008, p. 245).

This value-added approach to effectiveness research is used widely in England and has gained support in the United States as a way to better monitor progress instead of viewing scores statically (Saunders, 1999). In 1999 the Archdiocese of Indianapolis began using a value-added approach as a way to account for teacher performance. Using the data as an incentive for teacher performance pay, schools have used a formula based on teacher evaluations, student achievement based on value-added gains, and school-wide value added gains to give monetary awards to high-performing teachers. (Costello, Elson, & Schacter, 2008). Since 2007, value-added based data has been collected from over

13,000 students in 69 different Indianapolis archdiocesan schools, across urban, suburban, and rural setting. The information collected has been used to aid in school improvement and inform school policy (Costello, et al., 2008). Such a measure does not assume that all schools are at a level playing field; however, value-added approaches still fail to account for contextual factors, such as what is occurring outside of the classroom (Downey et al., 2008; Thrupp & Lupton, 2006)

Statistical covariate adjustments. Finally, another prominent method utilized in the school effectiveness research paradigm is statistical covariate adjustments, which “adjust schools’ learning rates or achievement levels statistically using measured characteristics of student covariates” (Downey et al., 2008, p. 246). Since students are influenced not only by the classroom, but are also “raised in complex social environments that involve multiple layers of influence,” (Rashbash, Leckie, & Pillinger, 2010, p. 657), researchers use this model to parse out various student characteristics. Factors such as poverty, race/ethnicity, and family structure are accounted for in an attempt to provide context to student achievement. Although the use of covariates helps researchers look beyond test scores, its usage has both methodological and political limitations, including the inability to properly account for all non-school factors, such as the quality of student neighborhood (Downey, von Hippel, & Broh, 2004; Downey et al., 2008). Further, it is difficult to appropriately ensure how these factors specifically relate to learning and in doing so make sure that the covariates are measured adequately (Downey et al., 2008).

Typology of School Effectiveness Research

As this review has shown, school effectiveness research dating from the 1960’s has a long history that has developed into a popular discipline utilizing an array of

measures to account for school success or failure. Along with the various measures, researchers and policy makers have also categorized school effectiveness research into three major strands: school effects research, effective schools research, and school improvement research (Fitz- Gibbon, 1996; Morley & Rassool, 1999; Normand, 2008; Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000; Thrupp & Lupton, 2006). From the 1980s onward the “introduction of context factors and of more sophisticated methodologies...have had an enhancing effect upon the quality of all three strands” (Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000, p. 4). Particularly in the United States these three strands have created a platform of effectiveness research that is in sharp contrast from the “simplistic focus upon input-output analysis to more recent contextually specific formulations...” (Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000, p. 24). To discuss this trend further we will briefly discuss the three major strands of effectiveness research and subsequently highlight some prominent context effectiveness paradigms, which speak to the Catholic school ideal of the importance of educating the whole child.

School effects research. Kyriakides and Creemers (2008) define school effects “as a set of ongoing processes where both schools and teachers fall along a set continuum of development” (p. 521). Further, Teddlie, Reynolds, and Sammons (2000), “use the term ‘school effects’ to describe what is known about the ability of schools (usually public) to affect the outcomes (usually achievement) of the students that they serve” (p. 55). While most school effects research has relied on achievement indices (Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000), it also focuses on comparative research, comparing, for example, fifth graders in different schools or subjects, such as English scores between schools (Kyriakides & Creemers, 2008). In short, school effects researchers ask “whether results

of schooling are consistent and stable” (Kyriakides & Creemers, 2008, p. 522). To discover this consistency longitudinal school effects research is more favorable than short term, since the main aim of the research is to demonstrate large effects, which is hard to show in short time frames (Kyriakides & Creemers, 2008). Proper studies have enabled researchers to utilize empirical evidence to determine both processes and causation (Teddlie, Stringfield, & Reynolds. 2000, p. 185). Although typically examining test achievement, school effects research has been successful in refuting the Coleman report and providing the field with substantive methodological and theoretical insight.

Effective schools research. Effective schools research, although semantically similar to school effects research, is more “concerned with the processes of effective schooling, evolving from case studies of outlier schools through to contemporary studies merging qualitative and quantitative methods in the simultaneous study of classrooms and schools” (Reynolds, Teddlie, Creemers, Scheerens, & Townsend, 2000, p. 3). Researchers are thus interested in how these effective schools have implemented various models to ensure success in specific contexts (Teddlie et al., 2000). Therefore, effective schools research publishes characteristics of a successful school so policy makers can utilize the information to improve schools (Reynolds & Cuttance, 1992). Research is thus used to inform and improve practice; however, difficulty arises when the research creates a “perception among the public and educational policymakers that effective schools can surmount the problems posed by economic and social inequalities and produce more equitable outcomes [on their own]” (Thrupp & Lupton, 2006, p. 312). As we have reiterated above, context must still be taken into consideration, as each school is a unique case.

School improvement research. Finally, school improvement research began focused on “curriculum development, changes in school organization as well as learning and teaching processes” (Normand, 2008, p. 667). It has since evolved to encompass “the processes whereby schools can be changed utilizing increasingly sophisticated models that have gone beyond simple applications of school effectiveness knowledge to sophisticated ‘multiple lever’ models” (Reynolds et al., 2000, p. 3). Therefore, in differentiating effective schools research from school improvement research, the latter is “more concerned with processes of change,” while the former is “concerned with measurement” (Morley & Rassool, 1999, p. 5). Therefore, stakeholders that look to school improvement literature are thinking of ways and developing mechanisms that support the process of change, rather than focusing solely on achievement scores (Kyriakides & Creemers, 2008). The ultimate goals of improvement approaches are to establish a school prototype that is self-sustainable and successful.

The above research highlights that school effectiveness research is complex and is conducted through various lenses, such as school effects, effective schools, and school improvement. In addition, these various typologies of research use an array of methods, including achievements scores, value-added measures, and covariate adjustments to account for school, student, and teacher performance. All of these research options provide researchers and policy makers a solid groundwork to utilize in conducting school-specific research and policy formation.

Effectiveness and the Total School

Although difficult to measure or demonstrate, studies have shown that effective schools are much more than the sum of their test scores (Silver, 1994; Kyriakides et al.,

2010). Since the aim of the *National Standards and Benchmarks for Effective Catholic Elementary and Secondary Schools* is to “educate the whole child by providing an excellent education rooted in Gospel values” (National Standards, 2012, p. v), this section will address the literature that utilizes a holistic approach to define, examine, and discuss school effectiveness. As researcher William Jeynes (2012) points out, “there is something to be said for viewing education more holistically [rather] than hoping for the best for a single sector...” (p. 328). To be an effective school, one must account for the education system as a whole (Fitz-Gibbon, 1996). The few examples below outline approaches and concepts conducive to total school effectiveness.

More in line with effective schools research, scholars have examined the processes and procedures exceptional schools use as a basis for a clear and informed mission, curriculum, and governance structure. In an attempt to seek “new ways of being accountable to progressive ideals in an age of skills-based learning and standardized testing,” Krechevsky, Rivard, and Burton (2010, p. 64) have expanded the notion of school accountability under the notion of *documentation*, which includes “(a) accountability to self, (b) accountability to each other, and (c) accountability to the larger community” (p. 65). In this case, accountability reaches beyond accountability procedures strictly defined by high-stakes testing to include multiple stakeholders, students, teachers, staff, and parents through this process of *documentation* where there is a shared “*practice of observing, recording, interpreting, and sharing through a variety of media the processes and products of learning in order to deepen learning*” (Krechevsky, 2010, p. 65). Using Wickliffe Progressive Community Elementary School in Ohio as a case study, which is known for enrolling diverse learners, particularly students with

disabilities, teachers become accountable to themselves when they become committed to their own teaching practices, while simultaneously striving to better themselves (Krechevsky et al., 2010). Teachers form inquiry groups to discuss and examine student learning in accordance with the school's ten principles and take the student voice into account. By establishing reflexivity within the school, teachers are able to intentionally alter and take into account ways in which they are teaching, whether in accordance with or diverging from the school's mission, and can therefore alter their practices in a way that is both accountable to the self and accountable to the school.

The second tier of accountability is accountability to each other, where "everyone in the school takes responsibility for contributing to one another's learning and growth, as well as their own," contributing to an ethos of a "*community that learns*" (Krechevsky et al., 2010, p. 67). Collaborative work, similar to above, drives this concept. Teachers invite colleagues into the classroom, parent panels are encouraged, and "learning" relationships between administrators and staff are favored. Relationships between stakeholders, such as parents and teachers are considered synergetic and high expectations are the driving force for continued success (Krechevsky et al., 2010).

Finally, accountability to the larger community attempts to use other forms of documentation:

not captured by most standardized tests, like students listening and learning from each other, using their imaginations, thinking critically and creatively, developing a sense of esthetics and emotional understanding, and understanding what it means to be members of a democratic society (Krechevsky et al., 2010, p. 69).

By using critical thinking skills, as highlighted above, when students' work goes beyond school walls, it lends authenticity to their learning (Krechevsky et al., 2010, p. 70). By stepping outside traditional accountability systems tied strictly to high stakes tests and viewing the school as more than the sum of its parts, a school climate is created that relies on the buy-in of all community members. To educate the whole child, a system must be created that accounts for the whole school. School standards must create a social learning network that demands accountability in more ways than one; these forms create an environment in which sound procedure ensures effective and lasting results. This is particularly evident at Wickliffe, which was one of the few schools in the state of Ohio to receive an A+ rating in 2011.

In addition to the Wickliffe Elementary School example, Kyriakides et al., (2010) have utilized a meta-analysis to examine a more dynamic approach to school effectiveness. Using the same notion of total school accountability, the researchers examined educational effectiveness research to better understand "what works in education and why" (Kyriakides et al., 2010, p. 807). Looking at school effectiveness research over the span of 20 years, Kyriakides et al. (2010) used the findings to create a theoretical model that accounts not only for school-related elements, but context and factors associated with "the values of the society for learning and the importance attached to education" which "play an important role both in shaping teacher and student expectations as well as in the development of perceptions of various stakeholders about effective teaching practice" (p. 809). Figure 1 below shows the various factors operating at different levels.

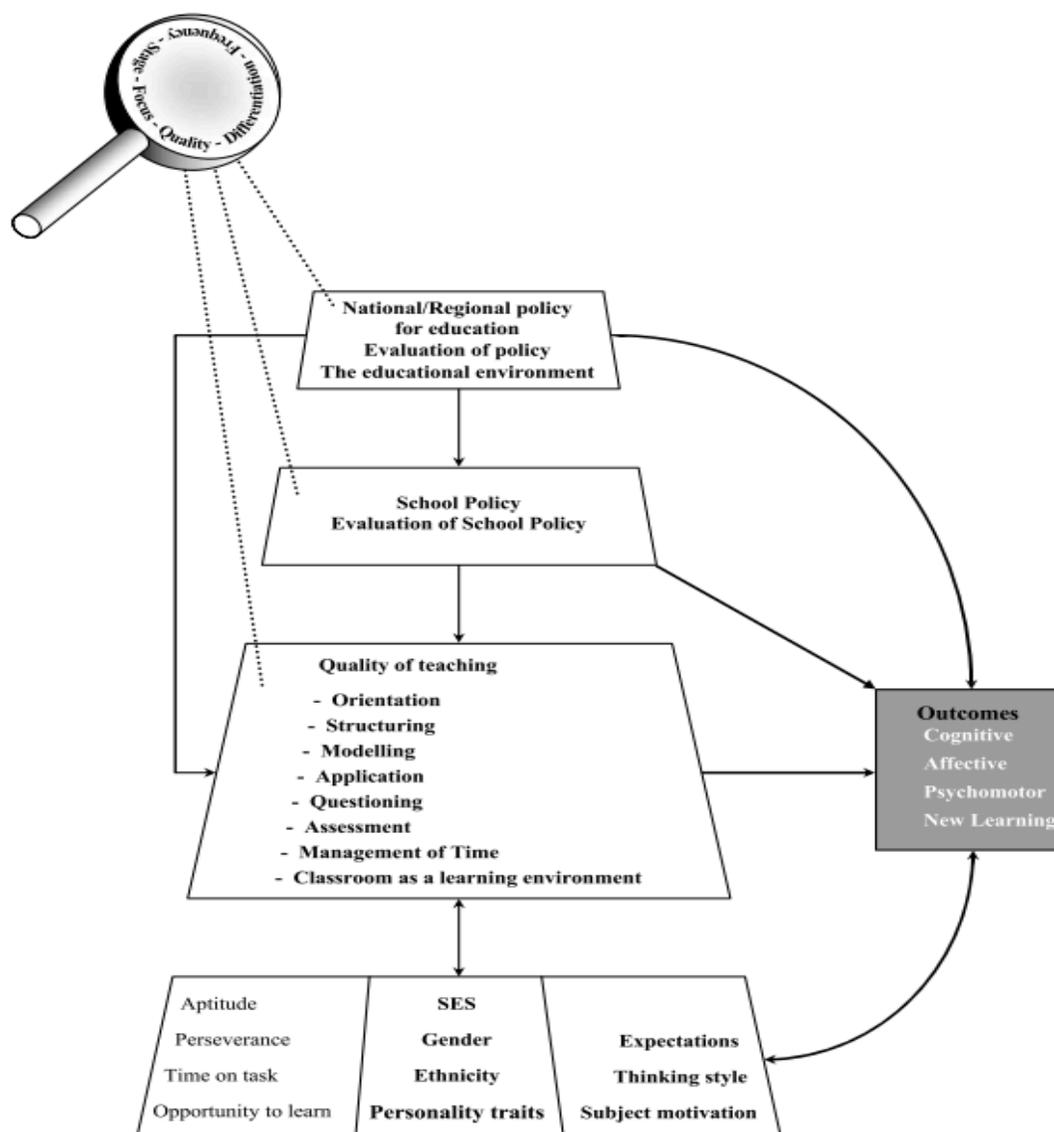


Figure 1. The dynamic model of educational effectiveness. Reprinted from “A Synthesis of Studies Searching for School Factors: Implications for Theory and Research,” by L. Kyriakides et al., 2010, *British Educational Research Journal*, 36, p. 810

The model was created from existing research internationally, including databases such as Educational Resources Information Center and the Social Sciences Citation Index along with peer-reviewed journals and educational handbooks. Established from existing research, the figure shows the complexity involved in school effectiveness, particularly

the interplay of various factors to inform positive outcomes. “Specifically, the dynamic model emphasizes two main aspects of school policy that affect learning at both the teacher and student level: (1) school policy for teaching and (2) school policy for creating a learning environment” (Kyriakides, 2010, p. 811). The research highlights the importance of reaching beyond test scores to uncover the processes that lead to effective schools. That is, all these factors consistently go into schools’ ability (capacity) to effect positive outcomes. This mega study supports NSBECS, as a framework for total school effectiveness, to produce effective schools results as a specific model of schools, e.g. *Catholic* schools. Most importantly, the research highlights the school policy factors that put multiple stakeholders on the same page, whereby everyone is aware of what is expected (Kyriakides, 2010). Through the research and subsequent model, it is clear that school effectiveness literature has expanded from the initial three typologies to examine the impact of both traditional school factors and non-school factors on school progress. However, Van Houtte and Van Maele (2011) urge researchers “to be willing and brave enough to revise traditional ways of conceptualizing and measuring school processes” (p. 521). They advance that scholars and policy leaders should focus on various elements of school climate to ensure a “broader reality” (Van Houtte & Van Maele, 2010, p. 521).

Research from Chicago

The Consortium on Chicago School Research at the University of Chicago has produced an array of research that showcases the importance of looking at school climate in its entirety. While most of the literature focuses on effectiveness in relation to school improvement, the studies also contain elements of effective schools research and school effects research. Collaboratively these studies express the importance of having a

unifying set of principles and a strong organizational structure that in the end leads to academic success.

One of the strongest studies the consortium has produced is a longitudinal study, spanning 20 years, which examined 200 elementary schools in Chicago to uncover why 100 schools had improvements over the span of seven years in reading and math scores, while students in 100 other schools with similar demographics in Chicago did not show any improvement (Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppesco, & Easton, 2010). Although concluding that there is no “silver bullet” for school success or a magic formula for school reform, the authors uncovered a dependable recipe. Like a puzzle, the authors found that even one element missing hindered the performance of the students. The key ingredients discussed include, school leadership, parent and community ties, professional capacity of the faculty, school learning climate, and an instructional guidance system (Bryk et al., 2010). Entitled “essential supports,” schools that contained these factors were found to be “ten times more likely than schools weak in most supports to show substantial gains in both reading and mathematics” (Bryk et al., 2010, p. 93). Most importantly the researchers noted that schools must primarily be properly organized to advance improvement and no one factor, such as testing, can lead to both a sustainable and successful schooling community. Further, the findings showcase that all stakeholders must acknowledge the interplay of academic success and community context before reform initiatives are set in place. Even students from disadvantaged backgrounds can improve and succeed as long as the “robust essential supports” are widely adhered to and embraced (Bryk et al., 2010).

Although focusing solely on the school improvement paradigm, the 2013 longitudinal study entitled, “Turning around Low-Performing Schools in Chicago,” examined 36 Chicago schools that were closed because of low-performance. Five models and their components from 1997 to 2010 were examined to uncover whether the various factors had a positive influence on school performance (de la Torre, Allensworth, Jagesic, Sebastian, Salmonowicz, Meyers, & Gerdeman, 2013). The five models that CPS has used over the duration of the study in both elementary schools and high schools include the Reconstitution model, the School Closure and Restart Model, the School Turnaround Specialist Program (STSP), the Academy for Urban School Leadership (AUSL) model, and the CPS Office of School Improvement (OSI) model. Although each model used different approaches, all of the models began the process by changing the school leadership (de la Torre et al., 2013). Three models (Reconstitution, AUSL, and OSI) also completely re-staffed the school. Students, however, remained in these schools despite re-staffing. The most drastic change came from School Closure and Restart, which closed schools for an entire year and moved students to a different school. The closed schools were then transformed into charter, contract, or performance schools (de la Torre et al., 2013). Looking at all of these processes and their repercussions, researchers found that although high schools improved minimally, elementary schools that went through these various reforms performed better on math and readings tests than students from schools that were not turned around, however, this improvement was not immediate (de la Torre et al., 2013).

In further examining the catalyst for improvement in the elementary schools several factors were at play, including changes in staff, collaborative planning, and an

increase in resources. Unable to parse out exactly which factors contributed to school success, the researchers did find that the most recent reform models, AUSL and OSI, have “achieved consistent improvement in all of the elementary schools they managed,” which is not surprising since both models “have explicit blueprints for reform focused on building the organizational strength of schools” (de la Torre et al., 2013, p. 4). For example, AUSL uses the improvement plan entitled PASSAGE, which consists of these components: “positive school culture, action against adversity, setting goals and getting it done, shared responsibility for achievement, guaranteed and viable curriculum, and engaging and personalized instruction” (de la Torre et al., 2013, p. 11). Like AUSL, the Office of School Improvement model (OSI) had clear guidelines, which include “school stabilization, school culture and climate, human capital, family and community involvement, community resource development, and teaching and learning” (de la Torre et al., 2013, p. 11). It is clear that the consistent improvement noted in elementary schools connected to these models is most likely attributed to a strong set of principles that guide all school-related stakeholders. Further, both OSI and AUSL acknowledge school context and climate.

Finally, another recent study that highlights the importance of the total school and the education of the whole child is entitled “Teaching Adolescents to Become Learners: The Role of Non-cognitive Factors in Shaping School Performance” (Farrington, Roderick, Allensworth, Nagaoka, Keyes, Johnson, & Beechum, 2012). The report discusses the increasing importance of a college education, which has resulted in schools raising academic standards by establishing rigorous high school graduation requirements, such as making advanced coursework compulsory. This, in addition to the widespread

adoption of Common Core State Standards (CCSS) that target college and career readiness based on clear academic guidelines, has created a platform where standardized test scores have become the measure that holds schools accountable. While a rigorous academic course load is vital, there is little evidence that a more difficult course load alone will increase college attendance (Farrington et al., 2012). Instead, studies have shown that it is how students perform, through individual courses, their grade point averages (GPA), and class rank that better predicts high school and college achievement (Allensworth & Easton, 2005, 2007; Camara & Echternacht, 2000; Farrington et al., 2012; Geiser & Santelices, 2007; Hauser & Palloni, 2011; Hoffman, 2002; Hoffman & Lowitzki, 2005; Moffat, 1993; Munro, 1981; Tross et al., 2000; Zheng et al., 2002). Since grades seem to better encapsulate a high degree of school success than standardized test scores, it is understood that non-cognitive factors active in the classroom, such as students' behaviors, skills, attitudes, and strategies play a large role in academic achievement in both high school and college (Farrington et al., 201). Highlighting the importance of non-cognitive skills in relation to college readiness, the researchers acknowledge the importance of the entire school and student experience within schools. Instead of looking at cognitive and non-cognitive factors as binaries, the study discusses the symbiotic relationship between the components. Cognitive (academic based skills) and non-cognitive factors are, therefore, interchanging elements that create learning (Farrington et al., 2012). While schools have been using high stakes tests as a way to gauge accountability and as a way to showcase the success of raising standards within courses, this study testifies to the importance of using clear standards that take both academic and social skills into account.

The study provides schools an evidence-based framework that takes non-cognitive skills into consideration (Farrington et al., 2012). Utilizing a critical literature review to uncover key strategies, the researchers found that the best way to increase determination and increase academic success is “through academic mindsets and learning strategies” (Farrington et al., 2012, p. 73). Students succeed when “they are coming to class, completing assignments on time, participating, studying, trying to master material, taking time to do challenging work, and sticking with a task until it is done well” (Farrington et al., 2012, p. 73). Therefore, academic behaviors and academic perseverance become non-cognitive developments that schools and teachers should attempt to achieve and the factors above are examples of the processes that lead to success.

Although the need for students to develop strong academic behaviors and perseverance is clear, other non-cognitive factors must be considered. Schools must concentrate on academic mindset and effective learning strategies if they want to alter academic behaviors and perseverance (Farrington et al., 2012). School staff and administrators must be committed to practicing good pedagogy and students must also be prepared mentally to participate in effective learning. This, in turn, leads to better grades. Most importantly:

In the absence of strong framework that clarifies the role of schools and classrooms in the development of non-cognitive factors and a toolbox of strategies to effectively support this development, teachers often attribute differences in students’ academic behaviors and perseverance to individual

characteristics of their students—something they cannot control. (Farrington et al., 2012, p. 73).

Overall, if schools are concerned with academic success, this study shows that solely focusing on cognitive factors is not the answer. Non-cognitive and cognitive factors must be vital components of any school's organizational and pedagogical structure to achieve desired outcomes. Although schools continue to be subjected to strict accountability measures, a plethora of research has shown that teaching strictly to a test will not contribute to continual and progressive school effectiveness. For students to build a strong academic mindset, stakeholders must begin to change their "own beliefs and practices as well as to build their pedagogical skills and strategies to support student learning in new ways" (Farrington et al., 2012, p. 74). Student achievement is dependent on the buy-in of the entire school community.

Effectiveness and Catholic Schools

As the research above highlights, school effects research, which is more concerned with academic scores as an indicator of success, is simply not enough. Research shows that truly effective schools are ones that focus on school context, climate and both cognitive and non-cognitive factors. As discussed even in pre-Vatican church documents, Pope Leo XIII stated that "philosophy is the defense of faith and that Christian education is the union of scholarly instruction with faith and morals" (as cited in Hobbie, 2009, p. 8). Although Catholic schools have continued to discuss and demonstrate this commitment to educating the whole child, little research has awarded Catholic education a voice. Research in Catholic school effectiveness is vital now more than ever, as nationwide Catholic schools continue to face budgetary constraints and

widespread closure (Hobbie, 2009; Brinig & Garnett, 2014), and lawmakers and the public look for alternative solutions to educating students for global competition and to closing the achievement gap.

In addition to being “academic centers,” Catholic schools have remained effective “precisely because it is an integrator of faith life and culture” (McDermott, 1997, p. 20). Father Harold A. Buetow (1988) eloquently argues that in addition to academic success, Catholic schools overall aim for education for “total wellness” (p. 81). Buetow (1988) elaborates by stating:

Total wellness, far from being merely passive, is an active process through which an individual becomes aware of and makes choices toward a balanced existence: stimulating the mind through curiosity and creative thinking; reaching out and developing meaningful relationships with others; setting aside quiet time for reflection and relaxation; ...pursuing a life that [has] motivation, purpose, and meaning... (p. 81).

Buetow (1988) clearly demonstrates the importance of wide-reaching goals, which have been an important tenet in Catholic school education. These goals combine multiple student attributes, including physical, moral, and intellectual components (Fusco, 2005). Catholic schools have continually demonstrated this more holistic outlook towards education, while continuing to produce students who achieve academically.

A recent meta-analysis of 90 studies that examined the effects and outcomes of public, public charter, and religious schools found that students who attended private religious schools had the highest levels of achievement (Jeynes, 2012). In addition to looking strictly at tests, the researcher also factored in the number of students taking

harder courses, such as advanced placement and honors courses, high expectations, the achievement gap, minorities attending the school, classroom flexibility, and behavior measures. Jeynes (2012) gauged effectiveness by looking not only at the tests scores, but the various other elements listed above. He found that not only did students who went to private religious schools perform better academically, but that they also had better behavioral patterns. Therefore, as Jeynes (2012) reiterates, “educators would be unwise to dismiss the contributions of faith-based schools” (p. 329). The unique approaches that Catholic schools utilize along with their philosophy towards superior educative practices (Carbonaro & Covay, 2010; Jeynes, 2012; NAEP, 2013; Sandler, 1996; Coleman, Hoffer, & Kilgore, 1982) open the door for further school effectiveness inquiry.

While research on Catholic School effectiveness is sparse, case studies on a particular Catholic school or Catholic school network document their success. A case in point is a recent study published by the Lexington Institute, which highlights the success of the Cristo Rey Network. Founded by Jesuit priest John P. Foley and his team in 1996, the Cristo Rey Network utilizes a Catholic mission and values to educate economically disadvantaged students and focuses specifically on preparing students for college (Bateman, 2014). The network includes 28 schools, attended by around 9,000 students, with 96 percent of students being minorities. Families pay a small tuition fee, with the rest of tuition paid through a corporate sponsored internship program. All students must participate in the internship program and in 2008 the “graduating class enrolled in college at three time the rate of peers of similar economic backgrounds and completed college at nearly four times that rate” (Bateman, 2014, n.p.). Cristo Rey is a powerful example of

how a strong model that incorporates both cognitive and non-cognitive elements has resulted in highly effective schools, regardless of socio-economic status.

The Cristo Rey network is both “holistic and realistic” (Bateman, 2014, p. 3). Responding to the needs of the community, Cristo Rey showcases their ability to close the achievement gap through an education that encompasses their specific Mission Effectiveness Standards. These standards, which were steadfastly implemented at the beginning of the network’s expansion, remain committed to a culture of faith-based learning (Bateman, 2014). The standards are outlined in figure 2 below:

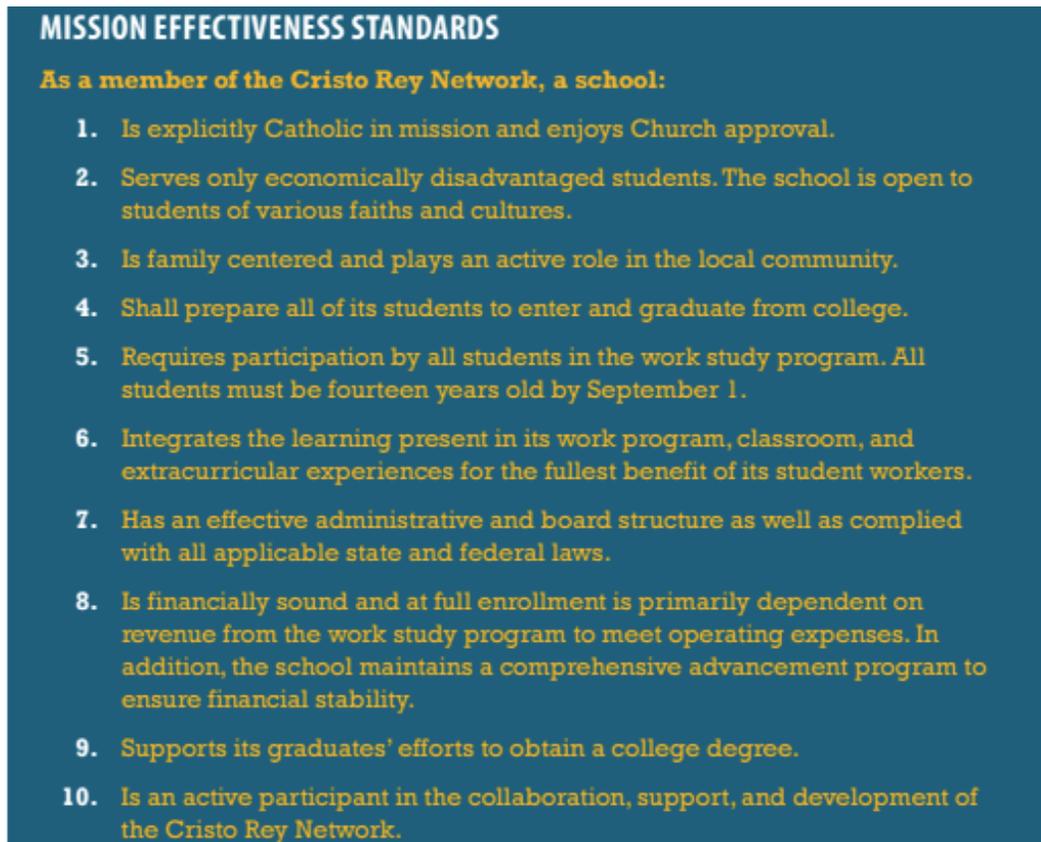


Figure 2. Mission Effectiveness Standards. Reprinted from “The Cristo Rey Network: Serving Sustainable Success,” by A. Bateman, 2014, *The Lexington Institute*, Arlington, VA, p. 4

As evidenced above, the standards encompass an effectiveness paradigm that does not just superficially express a commitment to social justice, but instead ensures that social justice is “woven into schools’ cultures and community involvement” and this framework provides “a cohesive backdrop for the Network’s holistic approach” (Bateman, 2014, p. 4). Therefore, education at a Cristo Rey school truly encompasses a commitment to academic success and total wellness.

The above standards are directly in relation to and work in tandem with Cristo Rey’s mission. In 2012, the Search Institute determined through interviews and focus groups that the network specifically hones into four specific effectiveness components to achieve success: work experience, faith and character development, college preparation, and school climate (as cited in Bateman, 2014). All of these elements contribute to and are a part of the core mission of social justice through the education of the “whole child” (Bateman, 2014). In turn, the components lead to both intermediate and longer-term outcomes. As Terri Sullivan has documented, intermediate outcomes such as character development, (described as areas required for successful development, such as commitment to learning, social competencies, and positive identity) and gateway skills contribute to holistic development, while longer-term outcomes included academic achievement, college matriculation, career readiness, and civic engagement (as cited in Bateman, 2014). Through a strong commitment to student success through collaboration between all stakeholders and a respect for teacher autonomy, schools are able to successfully address specific community needs, while remaining focused on desired outcomes (Bateman, 2014).

The research above highlights both the unique nature and success of one model of Catholic schools. However, while researchers have begun to take interest in and document specific case studies of successful Catholic schools, such as Cristo Rey, research on Catholic school effectiveness in general is sparse. With close to half of private schools in the U.S. being Catholic (NCEA, 2013), it is unfortunate that little documentation on Catholic school effectiveness exists. As schools nationally are starting to recognize the importance of non-cognitive factors in addition to cognitive factors, Catholic school effectiveness research based on implementation of the *National Standards and Benchmarks for Effective Catholic Elementary and Secondary Schools*, has a lot to offer. Given the previous literature that has taken a more holistic approach to effectiveness paradigms along with clear standards, Catholic School research is desperately needed to contribute to discussions of school closures and to provide information for policy leaders interested in effective and efficient schooling practices, regardless of schooling sector.

School Effectiveness Summary

Although school effectiveness research has been extremely popular over the last fifty years, studies and policies that have been implemented in accordance with research have also been heavily criticized. Often seen as focusing solely on test scores, effectiveness research has recently steered to encompass more dynamic approaches, highlighting schools that are using an array of strategies to ensure school success. However, Normand (2008) asserts that “the paradigm of school effectiveness maintains its monopoly on knowledge and expertise” (p. 672). By looking outside of the paradigm “different discourses on method can then be undertaken as a basis for thinking through

the ends of education” (Normand, 2008, p. 673). In turn, as research highlights school effectiveness through a wider lens, policy makers have the evidence to support school procedures that take into account school climate as a whole.

As clearly demonstrated above, school effectiveness research can take several forms, with researchers utilizing a variety of measures and methods – albeit focusing primarily on student academic achievement with accountability as the driving force running throughout. Early reports such as the Coleman Report and Plowden Report along with a focus on international rankings through tests such as the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) and the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) has moved accountability onto the center stage. As the research above highlights, however, testing alone will not lead to effective schools. Specific cases discussed, such as the Cristo Rey Network and Chicago turnaround companies, such as AUSL and OSI clearly demonstrate that clear standards or “blueprints” are needed for school success. This is particularly the case in schools that focus on the “whole child” or schools that focus on both cognitive and non-cognitive skills. With the need for valid, consistent, reliable criteria to define and measure effectiveness Standards are considered the key to school effectiveness.

IV. ACADEMIC STANDARDS AND SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

Because school effectiveness has largely been defined in terms of academic outcomes for students, the existing measures of school effectiveness focus on the academic achievement of students and the standards that have been created to drive schools towards those achievement goals have largely been academic or curricular

standards. This section outlines literature concerning the background, implementation, and outcomes of academic content or curriculum standards in K-12 education in the United States.

The Role of Standards in U.S. Education

Literature surrounding the use and effectiveness of standards in schools has largely focused on State academic standards and their effects on the public school system. This focus has grown since the publication of *A Nation at Risk* in 1983, which forced educators and policy makers to confront the fact that many American children were not receiving an adequate education. Initially, education professionals responded by increasing coursework requirements for high school graduation and focusing on “inputs” such as new textbooks or curricular materials (Hamilton, Stecher, & Yuan, 2012). However, by 1989 when President Bush and all 50 U.S. governors convened to discuss National Educational Goals for the year 2000, most professionals realized that for the educational system to succeed we must set clear performance objectives (Rothman, 2011). Rothman (2011) describes standards advocates’ argument that “fragmented and piecemeal” efforts to reform schools through changes to curricula or professional development be replaced with “ambitious goals for students” from which educators would “align all aspects of the system – curriculum materials, assessments, and professional development – around the goals” (p. 16). As Ravitch (1995) points out, Americans expect strict standards for everything from building construction to drinking water, so it is only logical that these same expectations be applied to our schools. In other words, a quality education must be defined in order for it to be achieved.

Now, academic curriculum standards have become educational best practice, and the focus has shifted to strengthening the quality of standards. Recently, the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) have emerged from a call to increase the rigor and consistency of academic expectations in core subject areas (Rothman, 2011). In addition, a very small but growing number of states have adopted standards for Social-Emotional Learning, signifying an increased understanding of importance of non-academic skill development for students' academic and life success (Jones & Bouffard, 2012). While both these standards are too new to have outcome data available yet, their very existence supports the use of standards in areas in which educators hope to improve student outcomes.

Presented with academic standards, schools work backwards using the defined expected outcomes to shape practices such as curriculum mapping and resource acquisition (Neher & Ploude, 2012). The changes to curricula, instruction, and other areas of school functioning that schools make in order to meet these standards are known as standards-based reforms. Standards-based reforms have defined educational initiatives in recent years. The foundation of the standards-based reform movement rests on a recognition among leading educators, researchers, and policymakers that clearly defined standards have the capacity to drive a school's actions (Finn, Julian, & Petrilli, 2006; Vaughn, 2002). The educational system has evolved such that the process of defining expectations, while not sufficient to improve educational outcomes on its own, is a critical starting point to producing desired results. As Quay (2010) states, "This effort assumes that once all of the key elements of the educational system map back to the adopted standards, schools will be better positioned to deliver standards-based instruction

to all students, and students will be more likely to acquire the desired knowledge and skills” (p. 2).

Standards and School Effectiveness

An overarching goal of implementing academic curriculum standards in the schools is to increase the number of students who are meeting performance expectations and the number of schools that are able to produce such results. In order to evaluate the impact of standards on the educational system, one must examine the overall changes in student performance that occur when standards are implemented.

Early support for these standards noted that they provided guidance for both curriculum development and professional development, giving schools direction about what to teach (Buttram & Waters, 1997). Looking back on the adoption of academic standards, Rothman (2011) notes that while schools have not made the gains most people hoped for, most of the gains made between 1990 and 2008 occurred between 1999 and 2004, when all states had developed academic standards.

Following this period of widespread adoption, Darling-Hammond (2004) analyzed successful school improvement efforts in Connecticut and New York City and found that in both cases, districts used the academic standards to frame content-focused teacher training and improve teacher preparation. These districts improved student achievement substantially and the Connecticut schools increased their graduation rates. Further evidence from the Fordham Institute supports a link between state standards and student learning outcomes. The organization published a report comparing the “quality” of state standards (based on clarity, rigor, and content) to schools’ performance on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) (Finn et al., 2006). They found

that 90% of the states that made significant progress in reading proficiency had language arts standards that received at least a “C”. This link between the quality of standards and the quality of performance supports the premise that external standards can influence the learning that takes place at a school.

The influence of standards on a school’s practices has also been demonstrated by research on school turnaround efforts. School turnaround is described by Cucchiara and others (2015) as a reform strategy that involves “making significant changes to school operations,” with the goal of producing “dramatic growth in student learning in schools that have been seemingly immune to reform” (Cucchiara, Rooney, & Robertson-Kraft, 2015, p. 259). First, standards motivate schools by providing a target. Neher & Ploude (2012) describe how increased accountability for higher student achievement in Washington State led a team of teachers and college professors to create to a revised math curriculum, which identified standards that were missing in the existing curriculum, then created a pacing guide and specific short-term objectives so that “clearly defined goals” were established. With targets in place, assessment measures show schools their performance against standards and can provide valuable information regarding which practices need to be modified. Successful schools actively use that assessment data for educational planning (Stecher & Borko, 2002). For example, Philadelphia schools created a district-wide benchmark assessment system using assessments that were aligned to the Common Core State Standards. These benchmarks provided district leaders with regular reports on the areas of instruction on which their educators need to focus, which contributed to school improvement (Bulkley, Christman, Goertz, & Lawrence, 2010).

Questioning the Use of Standards in Education

Some research has argued that standards have done more harm than good for U.S. schools. The majority of this research has focused on the use of high stakes testing to hold schools responsible for meeting standards (Finn et al., 2006). The purpose of accountability measures is to motivate schools to ensure that their students are meeting standards; however, some research has pointed out that the failure to meet standards makes future success even more difficult. Strict accountability measures may motivate schools that are already meeting expectations and discourage those that are not (Finnigan & Gross, 2007). Most research critical of standards has focused on the negative impact of these accountability measures on certain groups of students, especially low income and minority students. High school exit examinations, for example have been criticized in research as an accountability measure that produces more negative outcomes than incentives for at risk students (Holme, Richards, Jimerson & Cohen, 2010). It is noteworthy, however, that these researchers do not suggest that schools should not be held to external standards. Rather, researchers have challenged the means by which schools are held accountable to these standards. This review does not seek to defend or attack accountability measures in the U.S. public education system, as they are largely unrelated to the objectives of the NSBECS; it is important, though, to point out that most criticisms of external standards are in fact criticisms of accountability policies.

Factors for Successful Use of Standards for School Improvement

In general, we have seen that high quality academic standards lead to increased student achievement. However, there is a great deal more evidence that supports the success of external standards in improving schools *under certain circumstances* (Au &

Valencia, 2010). The success of standards hinges on the success of their implementation (Hamilton, Stecher & Yuan, 2012). As exemplified in a study by Lee and others (2014), when state academic standards did not influence teachers' own academic standards for their students, then the connection between strengthening state standards and student growth was inconsistent or weak (Lee, Liu, Amo & Wang, 2014). There are conditions embedded in a school environment that make aligning practices with standards difficult, and accountability measures such as high stakes testing can place additional stress on educators (Finnigan & Gross, 2007; Lee et al, 2014; Mintrop & Trujillo, 2007). On the other hand, there are practices and school conditions which greatly facilitate standards-based reform. Research concerning implementation of standards in school improvement efforts is significant as it provides guidance for schools, informing them of the variables they should target to increase their success. Some school factors that predict higher performance are not practices that can be modified directly by school personnel, such as poverty, community violence, or parent participation. However, there are a few key factors that schools can incorporate into their practices that have enabled standards-based reform efforts to be successful.

Factor 1: Leadership and Internal Management. Mobilizing a school to meet high expectations set by challenging standards is no easy task, and it begins with strong leadership. If schools are to set high expectations for students, these must carry throughout the system, with teachers modeling high expectations for students and administrators modeling high expectations for teachers (Au & Valencia, 2010). Furthermore, in a standards-driven school, school leaders are responsible for ensuring

that classroom activity is aligned to external standards rather than to teachers' personal standards only.

Conducting the continuous transformation from atomistic and personally derived professional expectations to professional expectations defined collectively by the school as a whole implies a major step for school staff and leaders. The further step of anchoring collective internal expectations to those defined externally (and enacted internally) is likely to entail a redefinition of classroom teaching and school leadership. (Knapp & Feldman, 2012, p. 669)

The importance of leadership and proper management, for example, is evident at Wickliffe Progressive Community Elementary School, highlighted above. Krechevsky, et al., (2010, p. 64) discuss this particular notion of school accountability through *documentation*, which is “(a) accountability to self, (b) accountability to each other, and (c) accountability to the larger community” (p. 65). At Wickliffe all stakeholders, teachers, parents, administrators, and staff take strong leadership roles and hold themselves accountable for the success of the students. To ensure transparency stakeholders use documentation through various endeavors, such as parent panels and teacher collaboration, where strong leadership skills are clearly at play.

In addition, a number of studies have linked the presence of strong school leadership to school performance against standards. Au and Boyd (2013) note that school leaders such as principals and curriculum leaders are “pillars” that are essential to aligning school infrastructure to meet the CCSS. Effective principals and leadership teams have been found to be a critical link between benchmark assessments and school improvement (Blanc et al., 2010) Blanc and colleagues noted that many schools using

standards-aligned assessments do not have the leadership system in place to effectively make use of this data, which limited the ability of the benchmarks put in place to affect change at those schools. As a study by Mintrop & Trujillo (2007) points out, the relationship between school leadership and standards is mutually reinforcing, with higher performing schools attracting and retaining strong leadership and stronger leaders promoting actions that lead to more students successfully meeting standards.

A study of failing Maryland schools charged with creating school improvement plans to increase their performance found that schools whose reform plans were based directly on external standards but were created and implemented with internal leadership were most successful (Mintrop & Maclellan, 2002). This research signifies the importance of both the standards themselves and the leadership that is in charge of their implementation in schools. Schools whose plans were not tied to external accountability systems did not show the same levels of improvement, which demonstrates that standards are a critical component of school improvement efforts. Internal standards such as those set by teachers or principals may have more of a direct influence on classroom practices, but such standards are subject to inconsistency and may become lower when initial expectations are not met (Lee et al, 2014). Because external standards are further removed from those in charge of implementation, they are not vulnerable to lowered expectations.

Knapp and Feldman (2012) looked specifically at the convergence of internal and external accountability systems within urban schools and examined school leaders' responses to these demands. Given the prevalence – and, we have argued, the importance of – external standards in schools, this analysis is significant as it critiques the narrow

emphasis placed on external accountability to those standards. The authors assert: “externally defined accountability arrangements can only work through the school’s internal accountability system” (p. 667). This article describes three spheres of internal accountability (individual educators’ sense of professional responsibility, collective expectations held by stakeholders, and incentives for improving performance) that principals must manage, as well as the intersection between these spheres and local or broad external accountability systems, which include specific expectations, pressures, and resources. The authors point out that some school leaders may follow “lines of least resistance,” allowing for personal accountability while insisting staff comply with external mandates (such as State standards and their accompanying tests). However, the efforts of “school leaders who care about serving students well and are willing to be held accountable for this...are likely to be both informed and shaped by what the external accountability system asks for” (p. 676-677). Knapp and Feldman studied the behavior of school leaders as it related to internal and external accountability in 15 schools.

Some patterns that emerged among school leaders in vastly different schools that were all “making progress” were the *owning* and *internalizing* of external expectations. These leaders tied external expectations to their own personal convictions, then spread the sense of responsibility to these expectations to all school staff by creating internal incentives, anchoring professional development to the expectations, and communicating the expectations through supervision and personal communication. Knapp and Feldman point out that in some cases leaders made “adjustments to the accountability messages from the larger system, to make them fit with the school’s own learning improvement agenda” (p. 689). This research offers insight into ways that school leaders, particularly

in urban environments, might mobilize education professionals to achieve the high expectations that external academic standards have set.

Factor 2: Frequent Measurement and Data-based Decision Making.

Collecting, analyzing, and using data regarding performance against standards is essential to enabling schools to meet those standards. While many struggling schools may be threatened by state tests as accountability measures, successful schools value the large amount of specific data that these tests provide when planning instruction and professional development sessions (Stecher & Borko, 2002). Schools that meet the expectations set by external standards need to monitor their progress internally more often than they are evaluated externally. In education, the importance of providing individual students with formative feedback on their performance has been well established (Capizzi & Fuchs, 2005; Siewert, 2011). Formative assessment and accompanying feedback are equally important to meeting standards at the whole school level, and this process requires extensive data tracking and collaboration (Au & Valencia, 2010). A longitudinal study of the implementation of science standards across several schools reported that schools that used available performance data measured against standards to modify their curriculum each year were successful both in sustaining the curriculum and in affecting student achievement in that subject (Lawrenz, Huffman, & Lavoie, 2005). Bulkley et al (2010) found frequent assessment and data monitoring to have significant positive effects at the district level, and noted that sufficient time to analyze data and engage in collaborative planning played a critical role in this success. Similarly, a project to create a standards-aligned high school math curriculum for schools in Washington State included a “straightforward” standards-based grading approach

using formative assessments and reports. The researchers stated that “teachers and students needed to be able to track what standards students had mastered and where their knowledge was lacking” (Neher & Plourde, 2012).

Factor 3: Educators’ buy-in and self-efficacy. As discussed previously, implementation is the necessary link between standards and results. The people responsible for implementation at a school must exhibit shared goals and a shared sense of accountability to attain those goals (Murphy, 2013). In fact, the cohesion of the professional learning community appears to be an even bigger driver of student achievement than any particular program or initiative (Au & Valencia, 2010). A study by Mitchell (1997) found that when external standards and accountability tests aligned with educators’ visions for their students, reform efforts were more successful. When buy-in was low, standards led to a disconnect between the external requirements and internal goals, which impeded systematic reform efforts. Similarly, Lee and others (2014) found only weak effects of standards on student achievement when those external standards did not match teacher’s own standards for student performance. This supports the importance of school leadership in aligning individual educators’ expectations and personal accountability with externally imposed expectations (Knapp & Feldman, 2012).

The desire of school personnel to engage in standards-based change affects outcomes, but so does their perceived ability to meet these standards. McCullers & Bozeman (2010) note that surveys showed less than half of educators believed they could meet the 100% proficiency requirements set by No Child Left Behind. However, their research found that in a sample of Florida school principals, most believed in the attainability of standards-based state goals, and that there was a significant correlation

between those beliefs and “purposeful leadership behavior” such as changes to the curriculum and staff to help achieve those goals.

Section Summary

Academic or curricular standards have had a significant effect on educational outcomes in the past few decades. When these standards are established, set high, and clearly defined, schools tend to achieve better results. There are factors that promote the ability of academic standards to positively impact a school’s practices and their students’ outcomes, and an understanding of these factors can help more schools to successfully meet standards in the future. Inherent in their effect on educational outcomes is the impact of standards on educational practices. The ability of existing academic standards to heavily influence how a school functions and what it teaches indicates that implementing standards for school effectiveness is a promising path.

V. NON-ACADEMIC STANDARDS AND SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

An effective school achieves its desired outcomes for students. Since Catholic schools are tasked with educating the whole student, an effective Catholic school must achieve outcomes for its students that reach beyond academic achievement. Therefore, standards for effective Catholic schools must include expectations for student growth in areas other than core academic subjects. While most of the research on standards in schools has focused on academic achievement measured by standardized tests, there is evidence to show that educational organizations have begun to focus on setting and measuring goals for students in areas other than academic achievement. In this section, we examine the use of nonacademic standards or measures of student success.

As indicated previously in this review, the large-scale use of standards in schools has generally been limited to academic standards for student performance in core subject areas. Research surrounding nonacademic measures of student success and standards in nonacademic domains is indeed limited at the present. However, there is growing support within the field of education for standards in nonacademic domains such as social and emotional learning. Other research has indicated alternative measures of student performance other than traditional standardized testing; this suggests that a broader approach to evaluating student and school outcomes - and the standards that define those outcomes - is warranted.

Social-Emotional Learning Standards

Educators craft standards about the domains they are interested in measuring. This interest has been dominated by academic achievement in the past, but growing attention has been directed towards the importance of students' social and emotional competencies. Social-emotional learning is "a process through which students develop the skills needed to effectively manage their relationships with others" (Weissberg & Cascarino, 2013). These skills include self-management, social awareness, and responsible decision-making, among others (Zinsler, Weissberg, & Dusenbury, 2013). A meta-analysis of 213 controlled studies conducted by Durlak and colleagues (2011) demonstrated both that social-emotional learning (SEL) programs in schools were effective overall and that their outcomes were significant for students. The study reported fewer behavioral problems/disciplinary referrals, more teacher-reported prosocial behaviors, and higher academic achievement and grades in schools where social-emotional learning was incorporated. While academic achievement is listed as a positive outcome in much of this research, the

social-emotional competencies are, in this case, targeted outcomes themselves. Sailor and colleagues (2007) argue for a similar “social-behavioral standard” aligned with school-wide positive behavior supports (SWPBS) to be incorporated into the current standards-based reform movement, as these skills are “associated with improved achievement and desirable adult outcomes, including employment, community participation, income, crime prevention, and social cohesion,” among others (p. 366). Again, academic achievement is a correlate to the development of these skills, but is not the sole benchmark of student success. Following this and similar research, educators and state policymakers have begun to incorporate written SEL standards into states’ standards for student performance.

Overview of supporting literature. A recent report from the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) highlights the importance of fully aligned SEL standards that include appropriate developmental benchmarks for students and offers examples of various models of SEL standard adoption and implementation. The report points out that with the development of these standards, “state officials are communicating to administrators, teachers, parents, and students that these competencies are important and valued – that they are priorities in the state’s education system” (Zinsser et al, 2013). While most states have free-standing standards for the preschool level, at the K-12 level differing models exist: many states incorporate social-emotional skill development into existing academic standards, while a few have free-standing standards. Dusenbury and colleagues (2011) note that many of the Common Core State Standards include skills related to SEL such as communication, cooperation, and problem solving. For example, English/Language Arts standards require students to be able to

engage in informed, class-wide debates with their peers. However, these skills are not uniquely measured, and many other key SEL skills are not incorporated into academic standards at all, leading the authors to suggest that free-standing SEL standards are necessary to ensure that these competencies are taught consistently and correctly.

Schools are no longer viewed as centers of academic learning only; Gordon and others (2011) describe schools as “ideal institutions for addressing children’s social, emotional, and academic development” (p. 69).

Standards in Illinois and Pennsylvania. Thus far only two states – Illinois and Pennsylvania – have developed and adopted free-standing social emotional learning standards. Illinois first adopted K-12 SEL standards in 2004, and has more recently fully aligned its SEL standards across developmental levels. The standards came about after a report found that children’s social and emotional development was a key indicator of school readiness and school success (Gordon et al, 2011). The Illinois SEL standards framework mirrors that of academic standards in some ways. “Rigorous, well-articulated standards are necessary for effective and consistent instruction in core academic subjects. A major innovation in Illinois was to extend these standards to the social and emotional skills essential to success in college and the workplace” (Gordon et al, 2011, p. 72). The Illinois SEL standards include three goals and ten standards that are consistent across age groups, with benchmarks that are specific to each age group. These standards are expected to “improve students’ social/emotional development, readiness to learn, classroom behavior, and academic performance” (ISBE). Pennsylvania’s Standards for Student Interpersonal Skills (SIS) represent another strong initiative to not only teach but hold schools accountable to teaching nonacademic measures of student growth. These

standards are intended to help prepare students for college and beyond, and success in this country and a global market (Zinsser et al, 2013). The CASEL report notes that these states' initiatives in SEL - and their communication of these standards to stakeholders right alongside those of core academic subjects - demonstrate that this type of education is highly valued.

Alternative Indicators of Student Success

Significant to a discussion of using standards to educate the whole child is a reconceptualization of how to measure student success in school. If we are interested in student outcomes beyond achievement on standardized tests, we must measure other variables. Research focusing on variables such as attendance, graduation rates, and student engagement are of interest here.

The Chicago High School Redesign Initiative (CHSRI) sought to provide low income students in Chicago with high quality, small high schools. The initiative aimed to address high dropout rates as well as low achievement rates. Outcome research on CHSRI schools found that students at these schools still scored about the same on the ACT as their peers at CPS schools. However, students at CHSRI small schools had better attendance, better grades, and higher graduation rates (especially among the most at-risk students) than their peers at CPS. The researchers stated that the initiative did not accomplish all of its stated goals, but "the CHSRI schools have gotten at least part of the equation: their students persist in school and they graduate" (Sporte & de la Torre, 2010, p. 7). This research posits connection to school as a desired outcome in itself, not just a means to increase academic achievement on standardized tests.

In their discussion of “non-cognitive” factors that influence student performance, Farrington and others (2012) assert that “students’ course grades, grade point average, or class rank are vastly better predictors of high school and college performance and graduation, as well as a host of longer-term life outcomes, than their standardized test scores” (p. 5). Again, this suggests that educators must look more broadly at what constitutes student success.

Non-cognitive factors and school performance. Emotional intelligence, defined as “the set of skills that a person needs to function effectively in the world” including the ability to handle frustration and get along with others (Sparkman, Maulding, & Roberts, 2012, p. 644) is highly predictive of students’ retention in higher education. This research further supports the validity of educators’ interest in social and emotional competencies. Farrington and colleagues (2012) looked at behaviors, skills, attitudes, and strategies other than content knowledge and academic skills that are important to students’ performance in school. These authors regret the use of the term “noncognitive” to describe these factors, as they become “perceived as a separate category of fluffier ‘noncognitive’ or ‘soft’ skills” (p. 4). These skills include study skills, attendance, work habits, time management, help seeking behaviors, metacognitive strategies, social and academic problem solving skills, and self-perception; their importance is linked to students’ ability to successfully manage new environments and demands. The authors suggest that while little is known about the purposeful development of these skills in students, it may be beneficial to address these skills as learning outcomes alongside content knowledge and academic skills. “If indeed noncognitive factors are malleable and are critical to academic performance, a key task for educators becomes the intentional

development of these skills, traits, strategies, and attitudes in conjunction... with academic skills” (p. 7). The authors’ review suggests that academic behaviors are in fact malleable and affected by classroom context, and teachers can use a range of strategies to develop these skills in students. Similar to academic curriculum standards’ ability to translate into student achievement, identifying the particular noncognitive behaviors and skills that are most important for student success can inform instructional practices.

VI. COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS STANDARDS

Even with a more inclusive approach to standards embodied in trends favoring the education of the whole child, standards that present only target outcomes for *students* fall short of the needs of Catholic schools. In this section, we argue that there is a documented need for *school* effectiveness standards and that this need is particularly salient in schools that operate independently of the traditional public school system.

Comprehensive Standards for Charter Schools

Catholic and charter schools have some operational elements in common. In fact, Ladner (2007) argues that “many of the best charter schools drew inspiration from Catholic school practices” (p. 103) and the two school models may now be in direct competition when it comes to school choice. Because Catholic and charter schools both have a great deal more independence – and therefore a great deal more responsibility – in matters of school organization and operation than traditional public schools, both types of schools may benefit from benchmarks and standards that cover areas of school finance and organization as well as academics. The National Association of Charter School Authorizers (NACSA) published a *Core Performance Framework and Guidance* in 2013

to be used by charter schools nationwide. The framework is research-based and was applied at several pilot sites, with modifications made after this initial implementation. This publication includes frameworks for academic (the educational program success), financial (the school's financial viability), and organizational (how well-run and effective the school is) performance, as well as guidance on how to use the framework for school evaluation, ongoing monitoring, annual reporting, intervention, and decision making. The framework can function similarly to a rubric, with the ability to rate schools on the extent to which they met a given expectation. The authors describe the framework as a "performance contract," and argue that quality organizations will use it as both as a guide and a tool to "maintain high standards and manage charter school performance – not by dictating inputs or controlling processes – but by setting expectations and holding schools accountable for results" (NACSA, 2013, p. 2). This intention that standards be used as expectations that dictate outcomes to influence (but not directly control) internal processes is consistent with literature on academic curriculum standards, demonstrating that comprehensive, school-level standards can and should follow the same pattern. Accompanying the NACSA's *Core Performance Framework* are *Principles & Standards*, which set expectations for charter school authorization. Again, these standards are more comprehensive than academic standards which are the subject of most research in that they cover several domains including academics, finance, and school operations.

A critical use of school effectiveness standards is data collection and reporting for the purposes of improvement. The NACSA's Survey Report (2013) includes implementation data about the principles and standards in general, as well as information about the degree of implementation broken down by standard. Trends in implementation

are inconsistent from year to year, with some standards showing greater degrees of implementation and some standards decreasing in implementation. The availability of such data on multiple measures related to school effectiveness is a promising development. However, these standards and accompanying data are only as strong as their use. As Boast and Field (2013) point out in their report on evaluating charter school quality,

A national system could offer the primary advantage of providing a consistent and comprehensive measure of charter school quality to inform parent choice and authorizer decisions. States and charter authorizers that have not yet established robust school quality rating systems to use in charter school accountability especially need a national system. Although the National Association of Charter School Authorizers (NACSA) and the Building Charter School Quality project have published recommendations for evaluating charter school quality, no national system evaluates charter schools, or traditional schools, with a consistent set of metrics across states (p. 2).

Limitations

There is evidence to support the use of standards for total school effectiveness along with standards for school leaders and standards for student performance. However, existing comprehensive standards and policies of this nature still do not fully meet the needs of high-quality Catholic schools. Thus, comprehensive standards for Catholic school effectiveness are a logical next step for Catholic education, following the progression of current best practices in education in general and responding to needs that are unique to the mission and structure of Catholic schools.

VII. CONCLUSION

Summary of Findings

This review sought to determine whether comprehensive standards for school effectiveness have been developed and studied previously, and how external standards can contribute to school effectiveness - in what ways and under what circumstances. The researchers found that a discussion of school effectiveness must begin by defining what school effectiveness is. Research on this topic uncovered several strands of school effectiveness literature: school effects, effective schools, and school improvement. Furthermore, a review of school effectiveness literature determined that effectiveness is typically measured by rates of either student achievement or student learning. The researchers found that, on the whole, school effectiveness literature has been primarily concerned with students' academic achievement. Accordingly, academics have dominated the sphere of standards in education as well. This review concludes that a close tie exists between the outcomes for schools that are important to educators and policymakers and what gets drafted into standards and eventually measured and tracked. Therefore, research that analyzes the impact of standards on schools is almost unilaterally directed at academic standards and academic achievement measured by standardized test scores. In addition, the researchers found that very little research examined the impact of standards alone; most research was interested in school factors that affected a school's ability to engage in successful school improvement or reform using standards. While several school factors have been studied as aiding or deterring a school's standards-based reform efforts, the researchers determined that leadership and internal management, frequent collection and use of data, and educators' buy in were factors that most

frequently led to the successful implementation of academic standards in schools. In particular, the researchers believe that the evidence supporting the use of external standards combined with internal management and leadership is an important systemic factor for Catholic schools to implement in order to maintain consistent, high expectations and individual schools' autonomy.

While it is clear that most research on standards for school effectiveness is narrow in scope, the researchers were able to find examples of more comprehensive views of school effectiveness and standards that encompass more of what Catholic schools seek to measure. First, research from the Chicago consortium demonstrates an effort to define non-academic factors that made a school successful such as community and family support systems. Other research has cited student behaviors that lead to success that is not necessarily measured by achievement tests. State standards in non-academic domains are emerging in the form of social-emotional learning standards. While these are not fully aligned to the desired outcomes of Catholic schools, they represent an expanding of educators' priorities and a previously ignored direction for standards in education.

The researchers found an example of more comprehensive school effectiveness standards that included outcomes for students' academic progress as well as school governance and finance. This framework published for use by charter school authorizers is more closely aligned to the structure of the NSBECS, but there is no research documenting their effectiveness as of yet. The researchers were not able to find outcome research for comprehensive school effectiveness standards. It is clear that research on non-academic standards is extremely limited, and that no set of standards exists which covers all of the domains that comprise an effective Catholic school.

Implications for Catholic School Standards Study

To understand the critical role the NSBECS can play in Catholic School effectiveness this comprehensive review of the literature sought to disclose how “effectiveness” is defined by the larger education community, and further how standards and benchmarks can lead to effective schools. In general, we have seen that high quality academic standards lead to increased student achievement. The foundation of the standards-based reform movement rests on a recognition among leading educators, researchers, and policymakers that clearly defined standards have the capacity to drive a school’s actions (Finn, Julian, & Petrilli, 2006; Vaughn, 2002). The educational system has evolved such that the process of defining expectations, while not sufficient to improve educational outcomes on its own, is a critical starting point to producing desired results.

Research concerning implementation of standards in school improvement efforts is significant as it provides guidance for schools, informing school leaders of the variables they should target to increase their success. Researchers have highlighted three main factors that schools can incorporate into their practices that have enabled standards-based reform efforts to be successful: 1) leadership and internal management, 2) frequent measurement and data-based decision-making, and 3) educators’ buy-in and self-efficacy.

In reviewing the literature, we found that academic or curricular standards have had a significant effect on educational outcomes in the past few decades. When these standards are established, set high, and clearly defined, schools tend to achieve better results. There are factors that promote the ability of academic standards to positively impact a school’s practices and their students’ outcomes, and an understanding of these

factors can help more schools to successfully meet standards in the future. Inherent in their effect on educational outcomes is the impact of standards on educational practices. The ability of existing academic standards to heavily influence how a school functions and what it teaches indicates that implementing standards for school effectiveness is a promising path.

We have also found that school effectiveness and standards-based reform often over-emphasizes academic achievement, failing to delve deeper into what exactly quality education looks like. This review concludes that a close tie exists between the outcomes for schools that are important to educators and policymakers and what gets drafted into standards and eventually measured and tracked. However, the NSBECS aim to reach beyond academic and curricula standards to provide schools a roadmap to faith-based education that is academically, spiritually, and operationally rigorous. In particular, the authors believe that the evidence supporting the use of external standards when combined with strong internal management and leadership creates a critically important systemic factor for Catholic school leaders to recognize the importance of implementation. It is by this implementation of standards that the school will maintain consistent, high expectations and individual schools' autonomy.

In sum, the literature and research examined pertaining to key questions related to the study of the NSBECS showed that: 1) school effectiveness research is a significant area of study and includes various methods and types; 2) implementing external standards can lead to more effective schools; 3) the presence of several definable conditions increases the likelihood of successful implementation of standards with positive results; 4) although the majority of standards-based school effectiveness research focuses on

student academic achievement, growing evidence suggests that a more holistic approach to school effectiveness is warranted; 5) there is no existing research on the use of comprehensive standards in Catholic schools; and 6) studying the impact of NSBECS can contribute not only to Catholic schools but to the public and charter school community as well precisely because the NSBECS, by design, incorporates holistic measures of total school effectiveness, which includes student achievement. NSBECS – and the way we use them – can be a vehicle for Catholic education to lead the way in the next wave of school effectiveness standards and research.

Catholic School Effectiveness: Works Cited

- Addonizio, M. F. (2009). X-Efficiency and effective Schools: A new look at old theories. *Journal of Education Finance*, 35(1). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40704371>
- Allensworth, E. (2012). Want to improve teaching? Create collaborative, supportive schools. *American Educator*, 36(3). Retrieved from <https://consortium.uchicago.edu/sites/default/files/publications/Want%20to%20improve%20teaching%20-%20EA.pdf>
- Andrejek, L. A. (2014). *Revitalizing the Catholic identity of schools: Ecclesial leaders of the Catholic church on methods of providing an outstanding Catholic formation and education for students*. Retrieved from Loyola eCommons. Dissertations. (884)
- Arthur, J. (1995). *The ebbing tide: Policy and principals of Catholic education*. Leominster: Gracewing Publishing.
- Au, K. H., & Valencia, S. W. (2010). Research directions: Fulfilling the potential of standards-based education: Promising policy principles. *Language Arts*, 87(5). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/41804204>
- Au, K. H., & Boyd, F. B. (2013). Helping high schools meet higher standards. *Journal Of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 56(7), 535-539. doi: 10.1002/JAAL.179
- Bailey, L. B. (2014). A review of the research: Common Core State Standards for improving rural children's school readiness. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 42(6), 389-396. doi: 10.1007/s10643-013-0621-6
- Blanc, S., Christman, J. B., Liu, R., Mitchell, E. T., & Bulkley, K. E. (2010). Learning to learn from data: Benchmarks and instructional communities. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 85(2), 205-225. doi: 10.1080/01619561003685379
- Bressoux, P., & Bianco, M. (2004). Long-term teacher effects on pupils' learning gains. *Oxford Review of Education*, 30(3). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/4127140>
- Bryk, A. S., Sebring, P. B., Allensworth, E., Luppescu, S., & Easton, J. Q. (2010). *Organizing schools for improvement: Lessons from Chicago*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press
- Bryk, A. S. & Schneider, B. (2002). *Trust in schools: A core resource for improvement*. New York: Russell Stage Foundation
- Buetow, H. A. (1988). *The Catholic school: Its roots, identity, and future*. New York: Crossroad
- Bulkley, K. E., Christman, J. B., Goertz, M. E., & Lawrence, N. R. (2010). Building with benchmarks: The role of the district in Philadelphia's benchmark assessment system. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 85(2), 186-204. doi: 10.1080/01619561003685346

- Buttram, J. L. & Waters, T. (1997). Improving America's schools through standards-based education. Introduction. *NASSP Bulletin*, 81(590), 1-6. doi: 10.1177/019263659708159002
- Bybee, R. W. & Loucks-Horsley, S. (2000). Standards as a catalyst for change in technology education. *Technology Teacher*, 59(5). Retrieved from <http://web.b.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=89cea868-e9c5-43ea-a2ec-1f954356b91a%40sessionmgr103&vid=1&hid=101>
- Bybee, R. W. (2006). The national science education standards: Personal reflections. *School Science & Mathematics*, 106(2). Retrieved from <http://web.b.ebscohost.com/ehost/detail/detail?sid=ded128b7-43e1-4d9a-b7998a026250b5ec%40sessionmgr114&vid=1&hid=101&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZWwhvc3QtbGI2ZQ%3d%3d#AN=20050857&db=ehh>
- Capizzi, A. M. & Fuchs, L. S. (2005). Effects of curriculum-based measurement with and without diagnostic feedback on teacher planning. *Remedial and Special Education*, 26(3). Retrieved from <http://web.b.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=f067896f-8367-42c4-82ba-ec89466f4870%40sessionmgr114&vid=1&hid=101>
- Chester, M. D. (2005). Making valid and consistent inferences about school effectiveness from multiple measures. *Educational Measurement: Issues and Practice*, 24(4), 40-52. doi: 10.1111/j.1745-3992.2005.00022.x
- Cieslak, M. J. (2005). The lack of consensus among Catholics for establishing new elementary schools. *Review of Religious Research*, 47(2), 175-189. <http://doi.org/10.2307/3512049>
- Clark, C. (2005). The structure of educational research. *British Educational Research Journal*, 31(3). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/30032627>
- Coyle, H. E. (2008). School culture benchmarks: Bridges and barriers to successful bullying prevention program implementation. *Journal of School Violence*, 7(2), 105-122. doi: 10.1300/J202v07n02_07
- Dallavis, C., & Cisneros, A. (2013). "A new model of sponsorship and collaboration": The University of Notre Dame ACE Academics. *Catholic Education*, 17(1). Retrieved from <http://web.a.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=1bf58b17-b3a8-40ea-be13-cfa6d630a377%40sessionmgr4003&vid=2&hid=4209>
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2004). Standards, accountability, and school reform. *Teachers College Records*, 106(6). Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ687658>
- Day, C., & Gu, Q. (2007). Variations in the conditions for teachers' professional learning and development: Sustaining commitment and effectiveness over a career. *Oxford Review of Education*, 33(4). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/20462348>
- De Grauwe, A. (2005). Improving the quality of education through school-based management: Learning from international experiences. *International Review of Education / Internationale Zeitschrift Für Erziehungswissenschaft / Revue Internationale De L'education*, 51(4). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/25054542>

- de la Torre, M. Allensworth, E., Jagesic, S., Sebastian, J., Salmonowicz, M., Meyers, C., & Gerdeman, R. D. (2013). *Turning around low-performing schools in Chicago*. Retrieved from <http://consortium.uchicago.edu/sites/default/files/publications/Turnaround%20Report%20-%20Long%20Version%20FINAL.pdf>
- Donohue, D. L. (2014). *Private independent Catholic schools: Components of successful start-up schools*. Retrieved from Proquest Digital Dissertations. (3581846)
- Dorner, L. M., Spillane J., & Pustejovsky, J. (2011). Organizing for instruction: A comparative study of public, charter, and Catholic schools. *Journal of Educational Change*, 12(1), 71-98. doi: 10.1007/s10833-010-9147-5
- Downey, D. B., von Hippel, P. T., & Hughes, M. (2008). Are “failing” schools really failing? Using seasonal comparison to evaluate school effectiveness. *Sociology of Education*, 81(3). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/20452736>
- Ebe, A. E. (2010). Cultural relevant texts and reading assessment for English language learners. *Reading Horizons*, 50(3), 193-210. Retrieved from <http://web.b.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=d33c850c-cdb3-4ae3-a052-e143c3c9fc8b%40sessionmgr104&vid=1&hid=101>
- Farrell, C., Wohlstetter, P., & Smith, J. (2012). Charter management organizations: An emerging approach to scaling up what works. *Educational Policy*, 26(4), 499-532. doi: 10.1177/0895904811417587
- Farrington, C. A., Roderick, M., Allensworth, E., Nagaoka, J., Keyes, T. S., Johnson, D. W., & Beechum, N. O. (2012). *Teaching adolescents to become learners: The role of noncognitive factors in shaping school performance: A critical literature review*. Retrieved from <http://consortium.uchicago.edu/sites/default/files/publications/Noncognitive%20Report.pdf>
- Feldman, E. (2010). Benchmarks curricular planning and assessment framework: Utilizing standards without introducing standardization. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 38(3), 233-242. doi: 10.1007/s10643-010-0398-9
- Fernandez, K. E. (2011). Evaluating school improvement plans and their affect on academic performance. *Educational policy*, 25(2), 338-367. doi: 10.1177/0895904809351693
- Finn, C. E. Jr., Liam, J., & Petrilli, M. J. (2006). *2006 The State of Standards*. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED493851.pdf>
- Finnigan, K. S., & Gross, B. (2007). Do accountability policy sanctions influence teacher motivation? Lessons from Chicago's low-performing schools. *American Educational Research Journal*, 44(3). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/30069429>

- Fitz-Gibbon, C. T. (2004). *Monitoring education: Indicators, quality and effectiveness*. London: Continuum
- Fusco, J. S. (2005). Exploring values in Catholic schools. *Catholic education: A journal of inquiry and practice*, 9(1). Retrieved from <http://web.a.ebscohost.com.flagship.luc.edu/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=5eb4f75f-7296-4c8d-89db-a551486df82d%40sessionmgr4001&vid=1&hid=4114>
- Gawlik, M. A. (2012). Moving beyond the rhetoric: Charter school reform and accountability. *Journal of Educational Research*, 105(3), 210-219. doi: 10.1080/00220671.2011.559492
- Gaziel, H. (1996). School effectiveness indicators: Parents', students', teachers', and principals' perspectives. *International Review of Education*, 42(5). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3445112>
- Gaziel, H. (1998). School-based management as a factor in school effectiveness. *International Review of Education / Internationale Zeitschrift Für Erziehungswissenschaft / Revue Internationale De L'education*, 44(4). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3445027>
- Glanville, J. L., Sikkink, D., & Hernández, E. I. (2008). Religious involvement and educational outcomes: The role of social capital and extracurricular participation. *The Sociological Quarterly*, 49(1). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40220059>
- Goddard, Y. L., Neumerski, C. M, Goddard, R. D., Salloum, S. J., & Berebitsky, D. (2010). A multilevel exploratory study of the relationship between teachers' perceptions of principals' instructional support and group norms for instruction in elementary schools. *The Elementary School Journal*, 111(2), 336-357. doi: 10.1086/65630
- Goldschmidt, E. P., & Walsh, M. E. (2013). Urban Catholic elementary schools: What are the governance models? *Catholic Education: A Journal of Inquiry & Practice*, 17(1). Retrieved from <http://web.a.ebscohost.com.flagship.luc.edu/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=48df6d5c-aa35-45e4-997a-aeb8cdb76e6d%40sessionmgr4004&vid=1&hid=4109>
- Grissom, J. A., & Loeb, S. (2011). Triangulating principal effectiveness: How perspectives of parents, teachers, and assistant principals identify the central importance of managerial skills. *American Education Research Journal*, 48(5), 1091-1123. doi: 10.3102/0002831211402663
- Hallinan, M., & Kubitschek, W. N. (2012). A comparison of academic achievement and adherence to the common school idea in public and catholic schools. *Sociology of Education*, 85(1), 1-22. doi: 10.1177/0038040711431586
- Hamilton, L. S., Stecher, B. M., & Yuan, K. (2012). Standards-based accountability in the United States: Lessons learned and future directions. *Education inquiry*, 3(2). Retrieved from http://www.rand.org/pubs/external_publications/EP201200153.html

- Heck, R. H., & Hallinger, P. (2009). Assessing the contribution of distributed leadership to school improvement and growth in math achievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 46(3). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40284858>
- Hobbie, M., Convey, J. J., & Schuttloffel, M. J. (2010). The impact of Catholic school identity and organization leadership on the vitality of Catholic elementary schools. *Catholic Education: A Journal of Inquiry and Practice*, 14(1). Retrieved from <http://digitalcommons.lmu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1670&context=ce>
- Holme, J. J., Richards, M. P., Jimerson, J. B., & Cohen, R. W. (2010). Assessing the effects of high school exit examinations. *Review of Educational Research*, 80(4). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40927292>
- Jacob, B. A., & Lefgren, L. (2004). The impact of teacher training on student achievement: Quasi-experimental evidence from school reform efforts in Chicago. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 39(1). Retrieved from <http://www.nber.org/papers/w8916.pdf>
- Jeynes, W. H. (2010). Religiosity, religious schools, and their relationship with the achievement gap: A research synthesis and meta-analysis. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 79(3). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/20798348>
- Jenyess, W. H. (2012). A meta-analysis on the effects and contributions of public, public charter, and religious schools on student outcomes. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 87(3), 305-335. doi: 10.1080/0161956X.2012.679542
- Jeynes, W. H. (2014). School choice and the achievement gap. *Education and Urban Society*, 46(2), 163-180. doi: 10.1177/0013124512447101
- Jones, S. M., & Bouffard, S. M. (2012). *Social and emotional learning in schools: From programs to strategies*. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED540203.pdf>
- Kahne, J. E., Sporte, S. E., de la Torre, M., & Easton, J. Q. (2006). *Small high schools on a larger scale: The first three years of the Chicago high school redesign initiative*. Retrieved from <http://consortium.uchicago.edu/sites/default/files/publications/p85.pdf>
- Kallemeyn, L. M. (2009). Responding to the demands of assessment and evaluation in Catholic education. *Catholic Education: A Journal of Inquiry and Practice*, 12(4). Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ934023.pdf>
- Karaxha, Z. (2013). When the “dream” turns into a nightmare: Life and death of voyager charter school. *The journal of leadership for effective and equitable organizations*, 49(4), 576-609. doi: 10.1177/0013161X12471832
- Knapp, M. S., & Feldman, S. B. (2012). Managing the intersection of internal and external accountability. *Journal of educational administration*, 50(5), 666-694.

<http://dx.doi.org.flagship.luc.edu/10.1108/09578231211249862>

- Krechevsky, M., Rivard, M., & Burton, F. R. (2010). Accountability in three realms: Making learning visible inside and outside the classroom. *Theory into Practice, 49*(1). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40650715>
- Kyriakides, L., & Creemers, B. P. M. (2008). A longitudinal study on the stability over time of school and teacher effects on student outcomes. *Oxford Review of Education, 34*(5), 521-545. doi: 10.1080/03054980701782064
- Kyriakides, L., Creemer, B., Antoniou, P., & Demetriou, D. (2010). A synthesis of studies searching for school factors: Implications for theory and research. *British Educational Research Journal, 36*(5), 807-830. doi: 10.1080/01411920903165603
- Lawrenz, F. (2005). Implementing and sustaining standards-based curricular reform. *NASSP Bulletin, 89*(643), 2-16. doi: 10.1177/019263650508964302
- Lee, J., Liu, X., Amo, L. C., & Wang, W. L. (2014). Multilevel linkages between state standards, teacher standards, and student achievement. *Educational Policy, 28*(6), 780-811. doi: 10.1177/0895904813475708
- Leithwood, K., & Doris, J. (2000). The effects of transformational leadership on organizational conditions and student engagement with school. *Journal of Educational Administration, 38*(2). Retrieved from <http://flagship.luc.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com.flagship.luc.edu/docview/220453766?accountid=12163>
- Lin, Q. (2001). An evaluation of charter school effectiveness. *Education, 122*(1). Retrieved from http://works.bepress.com/qiuyun_lin/19/
- Marsh, J., Hamilton, L., & Gill, B. (2008). Assistance and accountability in externally managed schools: The case of Edison Schools, Inc. *Peabody Journal of Education, 83*(3), 423-458. doi: 10.1080/01619560802222400
- McCullers, F. J., & Bozeman, W. (2010). Principal self-efficacy: The effects of No Child Left Behind and Florida school grades. *NASSP Bulletin, 94*(1). Retrieved from <http://flagship.luc.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com.flagship.luc.edu/docview/757172957?accountid=12163>
- McDermott, E. J. (1997). *Distinctive qualities of the Catholic schools* (2nd ed.). Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED410669.pdf>
- McDonald, J. A. (2012). *Instructional leadership and student achievement: The role of Catholic identity in supporting instructional leadership*. Retrieved from Drexel Libraries E-Repository and Archives. <https://idea.library.drexel.edu/islandora/object/idea%3A3986>
- McIntosh, K., Filter, K. J., Bennet, J. L., Ryan, C., & Sugai, G. (2010). Principles of

- sustainable prevention: Designing scale-up of school-wide positive behavior support to promote durable systems. *Psychology in the Schools*, 47(1). Retrieved from <http://web.b.ebscohost.com/flagship.luc.edu/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=c9adf815-ec63-416b-9281-fed14b4e3d77%40sessionmgr102&vid=1&hid=125>
- McTighe, J. (2004). Private school accountability. *Journal of Education*, 185(3). Retrieved from <http://www.bu.edu/sed/jedissues.htm#185304>
- Mintrop, H., & MacLellan, A. M. (2002). School improvement plans in elementary and middle schools on probation. *The Elementary School Journal*, 102(4). Retrieved from <http://web.b.ebscohost.com/flagship.luc.edu/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=0e1813d1-c815-462e-a695-3ff6baa5ffef%40sessionmgr115&vid=1&hid=125>
- Mintrop, H., & Trujillo, T. (2007). The practical relevance of accountability systems for school improvement: A descriptive analysis of California schools. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 29(4). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/30128133>
- Mitchell, K. J. (1997). What happens when school reform and accountability testing meet?. *Theory into Practice*, 36(4). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1477372>
- Moolenaar, N. M. (2012). A social network perspective on teacher collaboration in schools: Theory, methodology, and applications. *American Journal of Education*, 119(1), 7-39. doi: 10.1086/667715
- Morely, L., & Rassool, N. (1999). *School effectiveness: Fracturing the discourse*. London: Routledge Falmer
- Morris, A. (1997). Same mission, same methods, same results? Academic and religious outcomes from different models of Catholic schooling. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 45(4). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3122034>
- Morris, A. (2005). Diversity, deprivation and the common good: Pupil attainment in Catholic schools in England. *Oxford Review of Education*, 31(2). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/4618620>
- Morris, A. B. (2009). Contextualising Catholic school performance in England. *Oxford Review of Education*, 35(6), 725-741. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/27784598>
- Mosenthal, J., Lipson, M., Torncello, S., Russ, B., & Mekkelsen, J. (2004). Contexts and practices of six schools successful in obtaining reading achievement. *The Elementary School Journal*, 104(5). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3202818>
- Murphy, J. (2013). The architecture of school improvement. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 51(3), 252-263. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09578231311311465>
- Neher, M. J., & Plourde, L. A. (2012). A blueprint for aligning high school algebra with state standards: One school's journey. *Education*, 133(1). Retrieved from

<http://web.a.ebscohost.com/flagship.luc.edu/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=7dc1d8ac-a10b-45de-a4bd-192d30a164b8%40sessionmgr4002&vid=1&hid=4109>

- Nellis, L. M. (2014). Schoolwide collaboration to prevent and address reading difficulties: Opportunities for school psychologists and speech-language pathologists. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 24*(2), 110-127. doi: 10.1080/10474412.2014.903187
- Normand, R. (2008). School effectiveness or the horizon of the world as a laboratory. *British Journal of Sociology of Education, 29*(6). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40375390>
- Odden, A., Borman, G., & Fermanich, M. (2004). Assessing teacher, classroom, and school effects, including fiscal effects. *Peabody Journal of Education, 79*(4). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1493306>
- Ozar, L. A., & Weitzel-O'Neill, P. (2013). National Catholic School Standards: Focus on governance and leadership. *Catholic education: A Journal of Inquiry and Practice, 17*(1). Retrieved from <http://web.b.ebscohost.com/flagship.luc.edu/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=7ab4b6a3-2d3d-423e-b9e4-8c19c992de69%40sessionmgr102&vid=1&hid=125>
- Ozar, L. A. (2012). National Catholic Schools Standards: An accountable vision of Catholic schools for our time. *Journal of Catholic School Studies, 84*(2). Retrieved from <http://web.b.ebscohost.com/flagship.luc.edu/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=2761dc08-7479-41f9-9ce9-56fd59a2399a%40sessionmgr106&vid=1&hid=125>
- Paredes, J. A. (2013). *Middle school characteristics that predict student achievement, as measured by the school-wide California API score*. Retrieved from Proquest Digital Dissertations. (3572677)
- Pollock, K. (2013). Administrator and teacher' perceptions of school success in a publicly funded Catholic school in Ontario, Canada. *Catholic Education: A Journal of Inquiry and Practice, 16*(2). Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1005658.pdf>
- Prestine, N. A., & Bowen, C. (1993). Benchmarks of change: Assessing essential school restructuring efforts. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 15*(3). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1164344>
- Rasbash, J. (2010). Children's educational progress: Partitioning family, school and area effects. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, 173*(3). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/flagship.luc.edu/stable/40666280>
- Ravitch, D. (1995). *National standards in American education: A citizen's guide*. Washington, DC: Brookings.
- Resnick, L. B. (1995). Benchmarking education standards. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 17*(4). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1164437>

- Reynolds, D., & Cuttance, P. (1992). *School effectiveness: Research, policy, and practice*. New York, NY: Cassell.
- Roehrig, G. H., Kruse, R. A., & Kern, A. (2007). Teacher and school characteristics and their influence on curriculum implementation. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 44(7), 883-907. doi: 10.1002/tea.20180
- Ross, J. A., & Gray, P. (2006). School leadership and student achievement: The mediating effects of teacher beliefs. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 29(3), 798-822. doi: 10.2307/20054196
- Rothman, R. (2011). *Something in common: The Common Core Standards and the next chapter in American education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.
- Saunders, L. (1999). 'Value added' measurement of school effectiveness: A critical review. Retrieved from <http://www.nfer.ac.uk.flagship.luc.edu/publications/91034/91034.pdf>
- Savory, E. P. (2014). *Perceptions of leadership characteristics of principals who influence positive school culture in a Midwest Adventist Union: A qualitative study*. Retrieved from Digital Commons at Andrews University: Dissertations. (3626217)
- Sebastian, J., & Allensworth, E. (2013). How do secondary principals influence teaching and learning? *Principal's Research Review*, 8(4). Retrieved from http://consortium.uchicago.edu/sites/default/files/publications/PRR_Influence_Secondary_Principals.pdf
- Silver, H. (1994). *Good schools, effective schools: Judgements and their histories*. London, England: Cassell.
- Smylie, M. A., Allensworth, E., Greenberg, R. C., Harris, R., & Luppescu, S. (2001). *Teacher professional development in Chicago: Supporting effective practice*. Retrieved from <http://consortium.uchicago.edu/sites/default/files/publications/p0d01.pdf>
- Somers, M-A., McEwan, P. J., & Willms, J. D. (2004). How effective are private schools in Latin America. *Comparative Education Review*, 48(1), 48-69. doi: 10.1086/379841
- Sporte, S., & de la Torre, M. (2010). *Chicago high school redesign initiative: Schools, students, and outcomes*. Retrieved from http://consortium.uchicago.edu/sites/default/files/publications/CCSR_CHSRI_Report-Final%5b1%5d.pdf
- Stecher, B., & Borko, H. (2002). Integrating findings from surveys and case studies: Examples from a study of standards-based educational reforms. *Journal of Education Policy*, 5, 547-569 <http://dx.doi.org.flagship.luc.edu/10.1080/02680930210158311>
- Stevens, D., Sporte, S., Stoelinga, S. R., & Bolz, A. (2008). *Lessons from high performing small high schools in Chicago*. Retrieved from

- <http://consortium.uchicago.edu/sites/default/files/publications/08%20Small%20Schools-6.pdf>
- Stevens, W. D. *If small is not enough...? The characteristics of successful small high schools in Chicago*. Retrieved from <http://consortium.uchicago.edu/sites/default/files/publications/SmallSchoolsApr2008.pdf>
- Taylor, B. M., & Pearson, P. D. (2004). Research on learning to read—at school, at home, and in the community. *The Elementary School Journal*, 105(2), 167-181. doi: 10.1086/428863
- Teddlie, C., & Reynolds, D. (2000). *The international handbook of school effectiveness research*. London, England: Falmer Press.
- Thomas, S., Peng, W. J., & Gray, J. (2007). Modelling patterns of improvement over time: Value added trends in English secondary school performance across ten cohorts. *Oxford Review of Education*, 33(3), 261-295. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/20462336>
- Thrupp, M. & Lupton, R. (2006). Taking school contexts more seriously: The social justice challenge. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 54(3), 308-328. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8527.2006.00348.x
- Turnbull, B. (2002). Teacher participation and buy-in: Implications for school reform initiatives. *Learning Environments Research*, 5(3), 235-252. doi: 10.1023/A:1021981622041
- Van Houtte, M. & Van Maele, D. (2011). The black box revelation: In search of conceptual clarity regarding climate and culture in school effectiveness research. *Oxford Review of Education*, 37(4), 505-524. doi: 10.1080/03054985.2011.595552
- Vaughan, A. C. (2002). Standards, accountability, and the determination of school success. *Educational Forum*, 66(3). Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com.flagship.luc.edu/docview/62303208?OpenUrlRefId=info:xri/sid:wcdiscovery&accountid=12163>
- Walbank, N. (2012). What makes a school Catholic? *British Journal of Religious Education*, 34(2), 169-181. doi: 10.1080/01416200.2011.601909
- Wall, A. F. (2006). Estimating the cost of adequate educational programs: The case of Illinois. *Journal of Education Finance*, 32(2). Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40704292>
- Warren, J. K. (2003). *The Catholic schools of Kansas City: Past. present. future?* Retrieved from ProQuest Digital Dissertations. (5488606)
- Weston, M. E., & Bain, A. (2009). Engaging with change: A model for adopting and evaluating school-based innovation. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 47(2), 156-175. doi: 10.1108/09578230910941020