

THE WHITE PAPER:

HOW TO HIRE THE BEST SCHOOL LEADERS USING MARTIN HABERMAN'S PROTOCOLS FOR SELECTING "STAR" TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

THE HABERMAN EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATION, INC.

ABSTRACT: Imagine a proven method for selecting highly effective school leaders. Martin Haberman did, and then he brought his vision to life. Haberman believed that hiring the best teachers and administrators for students in poverty must be America's highest priority. We (1) highlight the academic challenges for urban learners in poverty who are placed at-risk, (2) discuss Ruby Payne's (2013) and Martin Haberman's (1999, 2010) competing frameworks for understanding poverty in educational settings, (3) outline Haberman's two-step protocols for identifying and selecting 'star' school leaders, and (4) salute Haberman's outreach legacy of sharing proven selection practices with school districts across America.

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Executive Summary

The Haberman Educational Foundation (HEF), Inc. is a not-for-profit 501(c)(3) organization based in Houston, Texas that was chartered in 1994 to promote and disseminate the research of Dr. Martin Haberman (1932–2012). Haberman was a Distinguished Professor at the University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee. The unified and single goal of HEF is to teach and implement research-based models for identifying teachers and principals of excellence; particularly educators who serve students placed at-risk and in poverty. The HEF staff, and its Advisory Board of nationally recognized educational leaders, believes that providing highly effective teachers and principals must be America’s priority for the nearly 15 million children and youth who live in poverty.

To that end, Haberman developed and refined his research for five decades—a devotion to “*Star*” Teacher and Principal/Administrator selection. “*Star*” functions or dispositions (i.e., beliefs and behaviors) could be the linchpin for selecting school leaders of excellence. This white paper is a compilation of some of Haberman’s influential writings, and his life’s pioneering work. Organized into four main topics, we:

- Highlight the *academic challenges* for urban learners in poverty who are placed at-risk;
- Compare Ruby Payne’s (2013) and Martin Haberman’s (1999, 2010) opposing *frameworks* for understanding poverty in educational settings;
- Examine Haberman’s *research* based pre-screener instruments and interview protocols for selecting highly effective teachers and principals; and
- Salute Haberman’s *outreach* legacy that highlights selection trainings with 375 school districts all across America, as demonstrated in areas where there are large numbers of children placed at-risk.

“SELECTING
TEACHERS
AND
PRINCIPALS
OF
EXCELLENCE
FOR
CHILDREN
AND YOUTH”



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Introduction: Children in Poverty Placed At-Risk of Academic Failure

One in five children in the United States lives in poverty (Children’s Defense Fund, 2016). For a family of four, the 2017 federal poverty (48 contiguous States and the District of Columbia) threshold is \$24,600 (Health and Human Services Department, 2017). The American Community Survey ([ACS], 2013) reports “the poverty rate for children under 18 fell from 21.8 percent in 2012 to 19.9 percent in 2013” (p. 12). By 2015, the childhood poverty rate remained flat, which reduced the number of children living in poverty to approximately 14.7 million (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2017). These small victories hide pockets of income disparity; given that thirty-five of the largest U.S. cities experienced an increase in the childhood poverty rate between 2005 and 2013 (Annie E. Casey Foundation [AECF], 2014). Even though childhood poverty is ubiquitous within rural, suburban, and urban contexts (AECF, 2014), the ACS 2013 data isolate the highest child poverty rates among the top 50 U.S. cities (see Table 1).

Table 1. *Percentage of Children Living Below the Federal Poverty Level (FPL) among Top 5 of 50 States in 2013*

City	Rate of Children Living Below 100% of FPL	Margin of Error (+/-)
Detroit	59%	1.8
Cleveland	54%	2.7
Fresno	48%	2.2
Memphis	46%	2.3
Miami	44%	3.4

Note: San Juan, Puerto Rico’s FPL rate is 62 % but is not ranked against other U.S. cities. (ACS 2013, cited in AECF, 2014, para 4). Reproduced with permission.

It is a little-known fact that most of the 14.7 million children in poverty are White Americans; however, poverty occurs in higher concentrations among children of color - as they are primarily clustered in urban school districts (Roberts, 2004). Cooper, Crosnoe, Suizzo, and Pituch (2009) surmised, “Although poverty cuts across racial lines, the likelihood of growing up in an impoverished family is much higher for racial-minority children than for White children” (p. 861). Further, AECF (2014) corroborated that childhood poverty in American metropolises has reached startling new heights in the last several years:

Detroit, Cleveland, Fresno, Memphis, Tennessee, and Miami had the highest rates of children living in poverty, while San Francisco; Virginia Beach, Virginia; Colorado Springs, Colorado; San Jose, California; and Seattle had the lowest rates....Between 2005 and 2012, the national percentage of children living in poverty—or below 100 percent of the federal poverty level (FPL)—rose from 19 to 23 percent. In 2013, the rate declined to 22 percent of children representing 16.1 million children living in poverty. (para. 2)

In these specific educational and community contexts, societal inequalities related to race and social class collide producing under-resourced, understaffed, and underserved schools.

Since poverty is considered to be an important link to school achievement (Orfield & Lee, 2005; Rothstein, 2004), the educational forecast for learners in poverty is ominous. Data from the National Center for Education Statistics ([NCES], 2013) confirm that urban districts are still underperforming in mathematics and reading assessments:

Scores in nine urban districts (Baltimore City, Chicago, Cleveland, Detroit, the District of Columbia, Fresno, Los Angeles, Milwaukee, and Philadelphia) were lower in both subjects and both grades. In 2013, average mathematics and reading scores for fourth- and eighth-grade public school students in large cities were lower than the scores for public school students in the nation. (p. 5)

Urbanism, defined by a declining housing stock and growing economic divide in U.S. cities (Florida, 2017), intensifies educational dilemmas and negatively impacts achievement among K–12 learners (Anyon, 1997; Books, 2004; Lewis, James, Hancock, & Hill-Jackson, 2008).

A historical review of the long-term academic patterns of communities of color demonstrates achievement disparity for Hispanic/Latinx learners, Native American learners, and African American learners compared to their White counterparts (Haycock, 2001; Jencks & Phillips, 1998; Magnuson & Waldfogel, 2008; Reardon, 2011; Rothstein, 2004). Researchers and practitioners recognize that poverty rates are more pronounced in the urban environment and, not so coincidentally, these are spaces where more children of color reside (National Urban League, 2015). Similarly, Kozol (2005), in *The Shame of the Nation: The Restoration of Apartheid Schooling in America*, captures the concentrated and segregated environment for children of color in America's cities when he wrote:

In Chicago, by the academic year 2000–2001, 87 percent of public school enrollment was black or Hispanic; less than 10 percent of children in the schools were white. In Washington, D.C., 94 percent of children were black or Hispanic; less than 5 percent were white. In St. Louis, 82 percent of the student population was black or Hispanic by this point, in the Philadelphia and Cleveland 78 percent, in Los Angeles 84 percent, in Detroit 95 percent, in Baltimore 88 percent. In New York City, nearly three quarters of the students were black or Hispanic in 2001. (p. 8)

Haberman (2004), in “Creating Effective Schools in Failed Urban School Districts,” underscored the harsh educational reality for underserved learners of color in poverty as he lamented:

In my city 36% of African American students and 42% of Hispanic students graduate from high school. These graduation rates are not the lowest for students in these ethnic groups in the 120 major urban districts. Compare this with the graduation rates of students having handicapping conditions in the United States as a whole: learning disabilities 62%, language impaired 66%, mentally [impaired] 40%, emotionally disturbed 40%, multiple disabilities 48%, hearing impairments 68%, orthopedic impairments 68%, visual impairments 73%, autism 47%, blindness, 48%, traumatic brain injury 65%. (para. 1)

Haberman estimated that a child born with physical or mental challenges is more likely to succeed in school than those children born into urban poverty. To improve the educational outcomes for America's most vulnerable citizens, we should begin by examining the ways in which poverty, a complex phenomenon, is constructed.

Two Frameworks for Understanding Poverty in Educational Settings

In general, there are two overarching positions in the field of education for understanding poverty; the “status quo” and “Star” frameworks. The status quo framework maintains institutional practices and it is often directed by those with a deficit ideology about underserved and marginalized people. Valencia (1997) explains that deficit thinking is:

a person-centered explanation of school failure among individuals linked to group membership (typically, the combination of racial/ethnic minority status and economic disadvantage). The deficit thinking framework holds that poor schooling performance is rooted in students’ alleged cognitive and motivational deficits, while institutional structures and inequitable schooling arrangements that exclude students from learning are held exculpatory. Finally, the model is largely based on imputation and little documentation. (p. 9)

On the other hand, the Star framework is driven by teachers and administrators with an inclusive ideology. These highly effective school leaders hold affirming beliefs and enact empowering behaviors that engender excellence among learners in poverty. Star Teachers and Principals/Administrators¹ succeed in schools of poverty despite challenging community circumstances that are outside of their control and the limits imposed by educational inequities (Haberman, 1999, 2010).

Status Quo and Star Frameworks

Payne (2013) and Haberman (1999, 2010) have been two of the leading voices in the childhood poverty and education canon. Yet, their philosophies for understanding poverty in educational settings occupy divergent ways of contextualizing the issue (see Table 2).

Payne’s 2013 book, *A Framework for Understanding Poverty: A Cognitive Approach*, is now in its fifth edition, and it is a widely used professional development source for many school districts around the nation. This volume is also a prominent reference for teacher training programs because Payne has effectively marketed misconceptions about families in poverty and

their learning needs (Dworin & Bomer, 2008; Gorski, 2008). A critical appraisal of Payne’s (2013) ideas exposes a surreptitious alignment to the status quo framework and casts the learner in poverty as: having fixed traits that make them at-risk (pp. 31–42); a singular, monolithic portrait of the underclass and poverty with hidden rules (pp. 43–60); requiring a “do-as-I-say” authoritarian teacher (pp. 10–118); and as one who must accept the sole blame, along with the family, for their life circumstances or inability to learn (pp. 89–100).

Table 2. *Payne versus Haberman: Two Frameworks for Understanding Poverty in Educational Settings*

Payne’s (2013) Status Quo Framework	Domain	Haberman’s (1999, 2010) Star Framework
<i>Deficit Ideology:</i> Poor “at-risk” students have distinctive traits that “need fixing”.	<i>Ideology</i>	<i>Star Ideology:</i> Students are “placed at-risk”, due to poverty; an unequal society must be acknowledged and remedied.
Poverty is monolithic.	<i>Identity</i>	Poverty is affected by intersectionality highly connected to students’ ethnicity, class, space, sexuality, language, etc.
Teaching is authoritarian and the curriculum is normative.	<i>Pedagogy & Curriculum</i>	Teaching is empowering and the curriculum is culturally responsive.
Locus of responsibility is placed on learner and his/her internal deficiencies; poor learners and their families are the victims of poor choices.	<i>Accountability</i>	Locus of responsibility is placed among teachers, administrators, families and community who are jointly accountable to learners.

By contrast, Haberman’s Star Teachers (2010) and Star Principals / Administrators (1999) embody a Star ideology, which conceptualizes the learner in poverty as: “*placed*” in poverty and “*placed at-risk*” due to unjust social structures; a person with a rich and multi-layered identity; students who crave high pedagogy and learning experiences that give them

voice and choice; and a partner who needs encouraging school leaders to shoulder the responsibility for their academic achievement. We unpack Payne (2013) and Haberman's (1999, 2010) contrasting viewpoints on learners in poverty based on the following domains of ideology, identity, pedagogy, and accountability.

Ideology. These opposing frameworks differ considerably in their ideologies, or the set of social beliefs and scientific research, that inform them. The growing list of detractors for Payne's (2013) ideas point to the fact that her position is grounded in no actual research, but careless conclusions drawn from decontextualized aspects of cultural studies (Gorski, 2006a, 2016; Keller, 2006; Ng & Ruri, 2006; Osei-Kofi, 2005; Rogalsky, 2009; Smiley & Helfenbein, 2011). Scholars suggest that her "framework included negative stereotypes that drew from the longstanding U.S. tradition of viewing the poor from a deficit perspective" (Bomer, et. al, 2008, p. 2500). There are many well-meaning educationalists who, like Payne, have life experiences that bear no intimate knowledge about the lives of poor people, but who hastily assign or misappropriate ideas about children in poverty. Bomer et al., in "Miseducating Teachers about the Poor: A Critical Analysis of Ruby Payne's Claims about Poverty," note the following:

quoted source for Payne's use of "culture of poverty" is an excerpt from Oscar Lewis's 1961 book *The Children of Sanchez*, an ethnography of a poor neighborhood in Mexico City. The concept of *the culture of poverty*, in brief, is that poor people, regardless of their race, ethnicity, or geographical location, all live within a definable culture. This culture includes a self-perpetuating dynamic in which an individual re-creates his/her social position as a member of a family so that subsequent generations remain "in poverty"....In actual fact, much of Oscar Lewis's work was a Marxist analysis of economic power relations and a call for solidarity and collective action among the poor, but Payne seems unaware of those elements of Lewis's work and only takes up the concept of *culture of poverty*. (pp. 2504–2505)

Payne's status quo approach to poverty and her mal-adoption of the Oscar Lewis's "culture of poverty theory" lead her to categorize the poor, regardless of their life circumstances, to one single-minded group who can be neatly defined with a list of pre-determined characteristics.

Boucher and Helfenbein (2015) explain that Payne reduces the causes for poverty to two oversimplified and uninformed factors:

The first factor was the inability to use a middle class language register, discourse pattern and story structure. The second factor is an insufficient understanding of the “hidden rules” of the middle class. Scholars have pointed out that this “deficit thinking” can be traced back to two origins, genetic determinism and the cultural deficit model....Both of these intellectual traditions have firm footing in the assumed inferiority of poor people and the assumption that middle class and wealthy people have some ethereal qualities that the poor do not possess, or, the logic holds, they would not be poor. Payne’s depiction of a culture of poverty is a model based on the assumed superiority of White, middle class cultural norms. (p. 744)

The status quo ideology of poverty pushes a meritocracy narrative in which the value of hard work, on its own, will rescue a child from poverty.

Star Teachers and Principals astutely notice that the so-called “at-risk” students are “at-promise” students who have been “placed at-risk” due to unequal societal structures (Boykin, 2000; Franklin, 2000; Sagor & Cox, 2004; Stuart & Bostrom, 2003). For Stars, the phrase “at-risk” is harmful when referring to learners in poverty because they realize too many educators use this offensive phrase as a code word for diverse or urban learners. Nearly 90% of America’s teachers are White, female, monolingual, Christian, and middle-class (U.S. Department of Education, 2016) with worldviews and life experiences that differ from their students and have had minimal opportunities for intercultural interactions. These cultural gulfs may result in an ideological “disconnect” from their diverse students’ lives (Hill-Jackson, 2007). Haberman (2010) warns that for White teachers the term at-risk, and others like it,

might appear to be innocuous when they are originally adopted because they are new terms without a clear history. As these labels become familiar, however, it soon becomes clear in the public mind and among professional educators that the same groups are being identified: children with low achievement test scores; children who are frequently absent; children whose families frequently move or are homeless; children from families in poverty; children who are frequently disciplined, suspended or expelled; children with handicapping conditions; children who don’t use standard English; children whose parents are not visible in the school; children most likely to be victims of physical or

chemical abuse; children who are more likely to become teenage parents; children who disappear, drop out, or are sent to alternative schools; children of non-English speaking backgrounds; and adjudicated delinquents....Hanging over all of these attributes is the unspoken assumption that all these terms are most likely to be describing students of color. (pp. 161–162)

Often pre- and in-service White teachers receive messages about poverty through limited socialization and misguided training. While it is true that a higher percentage of students of color live in poverty (Kids Count, 2015), most people in poverty are White (Roberts, 2004). Educators who are “Payne trained” come to believe that poverty is synonymous with “minority”; encompassing all the negative connotations that this word embodies. Consequently, many teachers may stereotype all people of color as poor, culturally deficient, pathological, and at-risk (Osei-Kofi, 2005). The K–12 risk literature corroborates that most students placed at-risk are not exclusive to a single demographic but derive from every socioeconomic level, ethnic background, and ability group. Students are not born at-risk, but placed at-risk due to their developmental trajectory or life and educational circumstances thrust upon them for which they often have no control (Stuart & Bostrom, 2003).

The reality that Payne (2013) addresses poverty in a vacuum, sanitized from the social and historical realities of the nation and the lives of children in poverty, offers a window into her privileged position. Payne’s ideology is unhelpful because poverty rarely exists in isolation. Putnam (2015), in his book *Our Kids: The American Dream in Crisis*, offers a humbling look at our nation’s shrinking opportunities set to the backdrop of fragile families, dilapidated communities, and vanishing jobs. The visible sociocultural factors, such as food scarcity, transiency, un/under-employment, high crime, rampant drug abuse, substandard housing, lack of healthcare or health insurance, may have devastating effects on learners when tethered

individually to poverty. But when multiple socio-cultural maladies operate in concert, alongside poverty, they have synergistic and adverse effects on learners' lived realities.

Additionally, invisible socio-cultural conditions, such as racial discrimination, are silent but powerful determinants for understanding generational poverty among families and children of color who have scarred histories in the American experience (Gorski, 2006b). Educational leaders who fail to see the connection of educational inequality to the various forms of social inequality are, in effect, reinforcing discriminatory and hegemonic forces (Trepagnier, 2006), which prevent underserved learners from being properly educated. Unfortunately, practicing status quo teachers and administrators “may ignore or at best minimize race, racism, and discrimination as explanatory rationales for these patterns. In their minds and discourses, poverty/social class trumps race as well as the intersecting nature of them” (Milner, 2013, p. 11).

In short, the ideological conflict that must be resolved is a choice between building educational strategies from unsupported stereotypes, and implementing the socially just star framework that acknowledges the hardships of poverty but does not treat them as limiting factors in education.

Identity. There are many cultural markers (such as one's socio-economic status [SES], ethnicity, or language) that inform a child's identity. Theories for understanding poverty are bound by such cultural elements, but the human condition cannot be explained by a single personal characteristic because individuals are affected by the intersectionality or a web of cultural characteristics. The manner in which the many facets of a child's identity intersect is demonstrated in Figure 1.

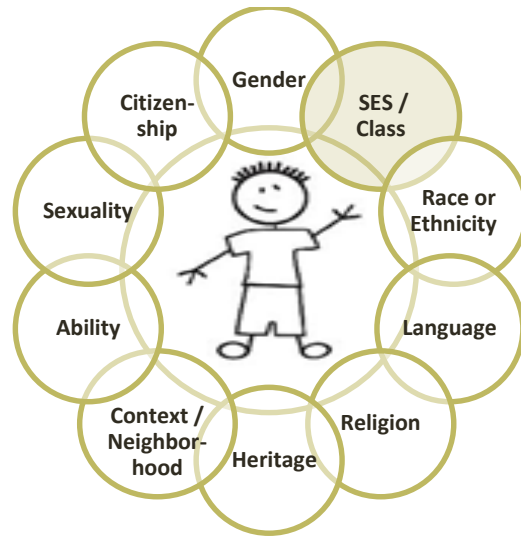


Figure 1. The intersectionality of SES with various characteristics of a child's identity.

Traditional research on poverty and identity has focused on the independent influences of SES, race, or language on educational achievement. Payne's (2013) framework collapses because her suppositions fail to recognize the intersectionality of poverty with other aspects of child's identity. However, current research in the field recognizes that race, SES, and language interact with each other, and other cultural markers, to create complicated phenomena of inequality that exceed traditional constructs related to poverty. Increasingly, critical scholars add categories such as religion, heritage, context, ability, sexuality, citizenship, and sexuality that further complicate the explanations for understanding SES. Consider the following examples: bilingualism and socioeconomic status affect language ability (Calvo & Bialystok, 2014); middle-class Chinese students' ability to navigate home heritage and school culture impacts their motivations to learn (Liao, Larke, & Hill-Jackson, 2017); and sexually diverse youth (i.e. lesbian, gay, bi-sexual, transgender, or questioning) often feel unsafe in their communities and schools (Aragon, Poteat, Espelage, & Koenig, 2014) and more likely to be victimized in urban than suburban schools (Anderman & Kimweli, 1997). As a consequence poverty should be

examined in the milieu, and as a reaction to, the totality of children's lived experiences and how they navigate the assets and barriers in their environment.

Pedagogy and Curriculum. The research is settled on the fact that quality teachers in classrooms yield higher achievement gains among students (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Mansfield, 2015; Rockoff, 2004) and possess positive beliefs about learners (Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968; Ross & Gray, 2006; Valencia, 2015). Educators' beliefs can powerfully influence choices for the curriculum and their interactions with learners and families. Status quo beliefs negatively affect school leaders' ability to reflect high expectations for their stakeholders (Darling-Hammond, 2015; Landsman & Lewis, 2006). The likelihood is that failing school systems will get even worse as current and future school leaders continue to be mis-educated about children in poverty (Bomer et al., 2008). Poverty in Payne's (2013) framework is:

a consequence of low teacher expectations, poor students are more likely to be in lower tracks or lower ability groups ...and their educational experience is more often dominated by rote drill and practice... (Bomer et al., 2008, p. 2524)

Low expectations are signals from school leaders that there is no use - the urban learner in poverty is a lost cause; consequently, underachievement among children in poverty becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy. Haberman (1991), in his article "The Pedagogy of Poverty Versus Good Teaching," summarizes the pedagogical style of the status quo educator:

- giving information
- asking questions
- giving directions
- making assignments
- monitoring seatwork
- reviewing assignments
- giving tests
- reviewing tests
- assigning homework
- reviewing homework

- settling disputes
- punishing noncompliance
- marking papers
- giving grades

These teaching behaviors, performed together and to the systematic exclusion of inspiring instruction, become the predictable drudgery for many K–12 learners in poverty. This list of *low pedagogy*, or pedagogy of poverty, constitutes the exclusive use of direct instruction that is driven by high-stakes testing, defined by learning experiences that are set on cruise control and dictated by textbooks, devoid of authentic instruction, and utilizes passive as opposed to active learning experiences. The pedagogy of poverty is primarily a system for controlling children rather than meaningful instructional practices for producing highly engaged learners.

By contrast, Star Teachers and Principals/Administrators reimagine learning for students in poverty by integrating creative teaching approaches, including the use of a *high pedagogy* instruction, such as the following:

- cooperative learning
- peer tutoring
- individualized instruction
- computer-assisted learning
- behavior modification
- after school programs
- the use of student contracts
- media-assisted instruction
- flipped classrooms
- scientific inquiry
- lecture/discussion
- tutoring by specialists or volunteers
- problem-solving units

Star Teachers frequently involve their students in learning that transcends the curriculum, textbooks, and achievement tests. This counter pedagogy is more than a different perspective, but rather an approach to instruction that is empowering for learners which leverages the curriculum to include the histories and cultural identities of underserved learners. Similarly, Star Principals

serve as instructional role models for their teachers, are not afraid to fire teachers who make excuses or do not hold high expectations for learners, and invite the families and community members to be educational partners. Star Principals/Administrators encourage, motivate, and lead schools in poverty in ways that defy the deficit attributes that have been assigned to them (Stafford & Hill-Jackson, 2016).

Accountability. Haberman (2002) challenges achievement data, dovetailing longstanding research (Coleman et al., 1966), which overly appraised the high correlation of test scores of the poor to their ethnicity and socioeconomic class. Status quo educators, pointing to state and national student achievement data by family income and ethnicity, eagerly blame the children, families, and communities for underachievement (McWhorter, 2000). When this occurs, school districts are thereby relieving schools, principals, and teachers from overall accountability to serve learners.

Star Teachers and Principals are well aware of the societal conditions under which many of their students live and learn: school or home violence, food scarcity, transiency, poor housing, racism, and so on. Yet, they never blame the victims (i.e. the learners, families, or community) for academic shortcomings. Star Teachers affirm, “Look, I exert the most control over what and how I teach. I should be able to find ways of involving my students in learning no matter what their out-of-school lives are like. That’s my job and that’s what I work at” (Haberman, 2010, p. 168). Star Teachers believe that, regardless of the life conditions their students face, they as school leaders bear the chief responsibility for sparking their students’ desire to learn. While the status quo ideology encourages teachers to examine the child in poverty in a deficit manner, the star ideology encourages educators to widen their gaze and look at the world around learners and

more deeply at themselves, and their beliefs, which are informed by society. Haberman and Hill-Jackson (2017) posit:

all of us are socialized to regard our culture group as superior to others. Our group may be based on race, religion, language, sex, class, or all of the above. We are likely to overlay these notions of better or worse groups with factors such as age, appearance, or the lack of apparent handicaps. To grow up in American society as well as others is to be carefully taught prejudices in favor of some kinds of people and against others. (p. 21)

Haberman and Hill-Jackson detail the four-step process for how teachers should face their biases:

The first step for teachers-to-be is a thorough self-analysis of the content of their prejudices. Which are the “superior” people(s) and what are their attitudes? Which are the “inferior” people(s) and what are their attributes? This analysis will take a long period of soul-searching. For those who go into denial (“I’m not a prejudiced person”), there’s always the possibility they may never get beyond this first step. If so, they should not be allowed near children or youth. The second step is to seek answers to the question of source: How did I learn or come to believe these things? Who taught them to me? When? Under what conditions? How much a part of my daily life are these beliefs? This second phase will be illuminating as one considers his or her biography and the significant others who have shaped his or her perceptions. Step three of the self-analysis becomes even more interesting. In what ways do I benefit or suffer from my prejudices? For example, as a white male I may benefit from lower health insurance rates at the expense of others. I may also suffer from a loss of many valuable interactions by cutting myself off from individuals I perceive as unworthy of friendship. This phase is an especially critical step, because it reveals the myriad ways in which our daily living is affected by our prejudices. (pp. 21–23)

Haberman and Hill-Jackson continue that step four considers how our prejudices may:

be affecting the many issues surrounding what we believe about schools, children, and how they learn best. Do we believe in a hierarchy of native intelligence related to race? Are females capable of learning math and science? Why are almost all superintendents male? Should a deaf person be licensed to teach? Can high school dropouts who are parents really serve as role models? (p. 23)

Star Teachers and Principals/Administrators are not afraid to face themselves and their beliefs about what they believe and why they believe it. Stars look in the mirror, and not out the window. Stars have a way of thinking about the complicated nature of poverty that forces them to embrace a holistic and personalized view of poverty, which counters the status quo’s simplistic

and de-personalized narrative on poverty. In doing so, Stars shift the responsibility for students' underachievement by looking more closely at structural inequality, irrelevant mainstream curricula, unqualified school leaders, and authoritative methods that make the problem worse for students. Moreover, Stars are not afraid to look inwardly at themselves to improve their biases and capitalize on their strengths. Star Teachers and Principals/Administrators assume the locus of responsibility for learners' underachievement because they understand their critical role in the academic trajectory of students' lives.

Choosing the Best School Leaders Can Reduce Turnover and Transform Student Achievement

Educator turnover is a major concern for school districts, and it is characterized as the rate by which school leaders leave the profession or move on to a better performing school. For example, of the nearly four million public school teachers in America, nearly 28% leave their schools annually (Guin, 2004); roughly 60% of this turnover is the consequence of teachers transferring between schools, while about 40% results from teachers leaving the profession (Ingersoll, Merrill, & Stuckey, 2014). This attrition leads to profound instructional losses (Newmann, Smith, Allensworth, & Bryk, 2001) and financial costs equivalent to 20–150% of a teacher's pay (Guin, 2004) due to separation, replacement, new training, and productivity shortfalls (Cascio, 1991; Heneman & Judge 2003; Hom & Griffeth, 2001). Increased turnover rates have also sounded the alarm for high-poverty schools that have an elevated percentage of novice or marginal teachers (Peske & Haycock 2006; Prince 2002). Simon and Johnson (2015) provide a sobering outlook on the staffing problems in “Teacher Turnover in High Poverty Schools: What We Know and Can Do” when they shared:

High rates of turnover make it difficult for schools to attract and develop effective teachers and, as a result, low-income and minority students who attend so-called “hard-

to-staff schools” are routinely taught by the least experienced, least effective teachers . . . problematic teacher turnover persists in public schools that serve low-income communities, making sustained improvement an extraordinary challenge. (p. 2)

Since the future of students is at stake, teacher education programs and school districts should not be able to claim that the negative conditions of work in challenged schools and communities must first be improved before they can be held accountable for providing competent teachers for diverse students in poverty. Likewise, school administrators, who have a direct influence on the academic outcomes of learners (Cotton, 2003; DuFour & Marzano, 2015; Nettles & Herrington, 2007), must be trained to lead all learners in all environments. The selection and hiring of effective school leaders is generally an overlooked method to retention of school leaders.

Haberman (1999, 2010) proclaims that identifying effective school staff is especially paramount for those who serve learners in poverty since an education for them is the difference between life (high school-completion, college graduation, and stable careers) and death (high school push outs, drug abuse, incarceration, and un/underemployment). Despite this hurdle, Haberman believed that a focus on educator selection and staffing is a worthwhile alternative for how we identify school leaders who will be effective and remain on the job. In “Victory at Buffalo Creek: What Makes a School Serving Low-Income Hispanic Children Successful”, Haberman (2017a) touts 29 teachers and the principal who were all selected using the Haberman Star Teacher and Star Principal/Administrator Protocols. Several years later, the majority of those staff members were still employed at Buffalo Creek and the students continued to receive state recognition on mandated tests.

What these teachers (and principal) have in addition to subject matter knowledge [is] teaching know-how. The Buffalo Creek staff’s special expertise has three themes. First, every one of the success indicators is primarily a function of the staff’s ability to relate to the children, the parents and each other. Second, the staff shares a common ideology of why the school exists, what is supposed to happen to the children, and their role as teachers (and principal) to make it happen. Third, the Buffalo Creek staff is gifted at

relationship skills and this is key. Studying Buffalo Creek leads to the conclusion that children in poverty must have teachers who can connect with them. The teachers' desire and ability, to want to live with the children all day, every day, is prerequisite to the children's learning. (Haberman, 2017a, p. 156–157)

Haberman demonstrates that the selection of effective school leaders is more important than training; these are school leaders who stay on the job and have an ideology that supports student achievement. Effective school leaders, who are Stars, are more likely to remain on the job and should be identified with meticulous selection protocols *before* they enter classrooms and schools.

The Haberman 2 Step Selection Protocols for Identifying and Selecting “Star” Teachers and Principals/Administrators

After five decades of research, Haberman (1995, 1999, 2010) identified the beliefs and behaviors (dispositions) of Stars; great teachers and school administrators who succeed with learners in poverty despite of the limiting social and school conditions around them. His work is a methodical process for discerning between Stars and status quo leaders in today's public schools. Stars may be self-identified, but are primarily recommended by supervisors, peers, or students. Status quos are those who have left urban schools with unsatisfactory ratings from supervisors or who describe themselves as unable to continue in urban schools. Haberman's (1999, 2003) scholarship described the core functions or dispositions of Stars and their performance in classrooms and schools. A disposition is defined as a distinctive belief and behavior of school leaders. The term *function* in this white paper is used interchangeably with the term *disposition*. Scholars have discussed the knowledge (Shulman, 1986), skills (Goldhaber, 2015), and *technical* dispositions (Talbert-Johnson, 2006) school leaders must acquire in order to be effective in their roles. Dispositions give us insight into the likelihood that a school leader will think and behave in a particular way.

However, Haberman’s description of dispositions is more *relational* and less technical and helps to determine school leaders’ personality – or who they are at their core. It should also be noted that Haberman’s dispositions for school leaders are highly symbiotic. Haberman’s dispositions for school leaders have two parts: (1) a belief or mindset (way of thinking) and (2) behavior (action or conduct) associated with it, which depicts the performances or the particular actions school leaders carry out (see Figure 2).

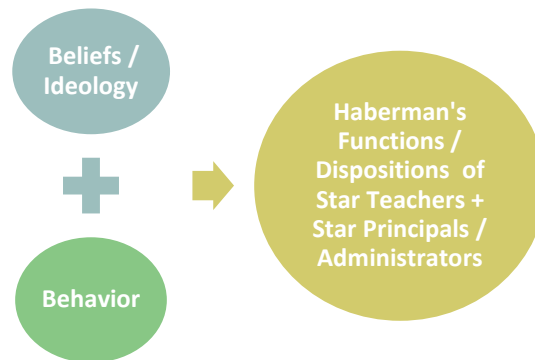


Figure 2. Haberman’s mid-range functions (dispositions) of Star Teachers and Star Principals/Administrators as a product of their beliefs and behaviors.

In other words, a school leader’s ideology or mindset is inextricably linked to his or her practice in classrooms or schools. Haberman’s dispositions for school leaders help us understand how the ways of thinking for school leaders are connected to their performance or observable behavior. Haberman further clarified that school leaders’ “behaviors and the mindsets that undergirds their behaviors cannot be unwrapped” (Haberman, 2017b, p. 2). Put more simply, so as a school leader thinks, she or he does.

Based on decades of research, Haberman crafted a 2-step process, a pre-screener and live interview, which gets to the heart of what effective teaching and school leadership should be for children, especially those who live in poverty (see Figure 3). Haberman (2017b) defined the

dispositions that can be assessed by the pre-screener/questionnaire and live interview as *mid-range functions*; “‘midrange’ in the sense that they represent chunks of teaching behavior that encompass a number of interrelated actions and simultaneously represent beliefs or commitments that predispose these teachers to act” (p. 3). The Star Teacher Pre-Screener or the Star Principal/Administrator Questionnaire is the first step of Haberman’s systematically research-based protocols. The questions are designed to determine the beliefs and behaviors, or dispositions, of the candidates. The Star Teacher Pre-Screener and Star Principal/Administrator Questionnaire can be a real benefit because both save time, energy, and funds for school districts that need to quickly identify the best pool of candidates from which to hire.

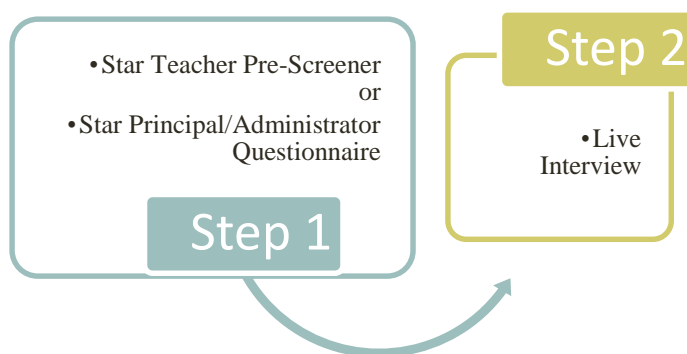


Figure 3. The Haberman 2-step selection protocols for identifying highly effective teachers and principals/administrators.

The Star Teacher Selection Interview and Star Principal/Administrator Selection Interview (step 2) are live, face to face, interviews that tests the candidate’s ability for working with learners labeled at-risk. While the actual questions Haberman created for the interview cannot be shared with the public, we describe the goals of the questions later in this document (see functions of Star Teachers and functions of Star Principals/Administrators). The interviews

are not based on content, or pedagogy, but whether or not the school leader has the capacity to build relationships with children, parents, and other stakeholders in general. The interviews must be administered by a professional trained in Haberman's Star Teacher Selection or Star Principal /Administrator Selection Interview method. At the conclusion of the selection interview training, there is a proficiency test that ensures inter-rater reliability among the interviewers.

Haberman's 2-Step Protocol for Selecting Star Teachers

Step 1: Online Star Teacher Pre-Screener. Haberman's 1995 well-received book, *Star Teachers of Children in Poverty* shares the following *15 mid-range functions/dispositions* for assessing teachers via the online pre-screener: (1) persistence, (2) positive values about student learning, (3) the ability to adapt general theories into pedagogical practices, (4) an encouraging approach to at-risk students, (5) professional versus a personal orientation, (6) the ability to avoid burnout, (7) fallibility, (8) organization and planning, (9) physical/emotional stamina, (10) effort, not ability, (11) teaching, not sorting, (12) rapport (13) explanation of student success – you and me against the material (14) gentle teaching in a violent society, and (15) teachers facing themselves.

Prospective teacher applicants begin the Haberman protocol with the online Star Teacher Pre-Screener. The pre-screener is a 50-item, thirty minute test that can administered independently online. At the completion of the test, candidates receive a professional profile that offers substantive feedback on his/her potential for teaching in poverty schools. The answers are rated in terms of how Star and quitter/failure teachers have responded to the very same questions in prior research trials. First, the total score is compared with those of prior pre-screener users and the quartile ranking is generated. This score indicates how close candidates' answers are to those of star teachers. The pre-screener offers insight into a candidate's potential for effectively

teaching diverse children in poverty schools. Second, the candidate's answers are organized in terms of the mid-range functions identified above. The results of the pre-screener have an extremely high predictive value for determining which applicants will do well on the live interview.

Step 2: Star Teacher Selection, Live Interview. Of the 15 mid-range functions/dispositions identified from the pre-screener, Haberman (2017b) “outlined seven functions...to create and validate interview questions” (p. 9): (1) persistence, (2) positive values about student learning, (3) the ability to adapt general theories into pedagogical practices, (4) an encouraging approach to at-risk students, (5) professional versus a personal orientation, (6) the ability to avoid burnout, and (7) the tendency to be vulnerable and to admit one's shortcomings (see Table 3). These seven functions that can be assessed in the interview “have remained constant” (Haberman, 2002, p. 26) even as the number of overall midrange functions on the questionnaire have changed over time.

The Star Teacher Selection Interview, the second step in the protocol for identifying Star Teachers, is based on the same research as the pre-screener, and it was developed to further distinguish between the beliefs and behaviors of Star and status quo teachers. The questions and answers were derived from what the best teachers believe their job will and should be. The interview questions were developed based on the functions of Stars compared to status quo teachers and required the participants to respond to whether they would perform these functions and the degree to which they would perform them. Teachers' core beliefs, as exhibited in Figure 2, are tethered to behaviors.

Table 3. *Traditional vs. Star Teachers' Responses to Haberman's Seven Key Midrange*

Functions/Dispositions

Traditional Teachers Respond in the Following Ways:	Functions/Dispositions: Beliefs and Behaviors of Star Teachers	Star Teachers Respond in the Following Ways:
S/he teaches in a one-size-fits-all approach to passive learners. If students fail to get the content the first time, then they quickly fall behind or fail.	1. Persistence	S/he has the propensity to work with children who present learning and behavioral problems on a daily basis without giving up on them for the full 180-day work year.
S/he sees protecting one's career or "getting through the material" as their highest priorities.	2. Protects and Values Student Learning	S/he believes that student learning is the teacher's highest priority.
S/he understands educational theory, but falls short to adapt these theories into practical lessons for their classrooms.	3. Theory into Practice	S/he has the ability to see the implication of generalizations of theory and has the where-with-all to bring theory into practical applications in the classroom.
S/he often comes from monolingual, Christian, middle-class lives where diversity was avoided. These teachers cannot relate to, or teach, learners from diverse backgrounds.	4. Approach to Children in Poverty or At-risk Students	S/he is able to connect with and teach students of all backgrounds and levels.
S/he wears their heart on their sleeves and is easily bruised by the normal behavioral problems or classroom challenges that will arise in underserved classrooms. Their responses are often unprofessional and inappropriate for learners.	5. Professional vs. Personal Orientation to Students	S/he expects students to misbehave and attempts to relate to students as an experienced and consummate professional: resisting the urge to "take it personally" in difficult classroom interactions.
S/he is unable to function or thrive in a large depersonalized organization; these teachers often leave the profession by year five or relegate students to impoverished learning experiences.	6. Burnout	S/he is able to function or thrive in a large depersonalized organization.
S/he never acknowledges when s/he is wrong because they see mistakes as a form of weakness.	7. Fallibility	S/he readily admits when s/he is wrong and creates "teachable moments" from their mistakes for students' benefit.

Source: Adapted from *Better Teachers, Better Schools: What Star Teachers Know, Believe, and Do* by V. Hill-Jackson & D. Stafford (2017, p. xix).

Validity and Reliability.² Since 1962, groups of Stars and status quo teachers have been periodically tested by Martin Haberman to verify the validity and reliability of the live interview, and it was continually honed until no changes were required. The sample of respondents

included Star Teachers (approximately 8%), status quo teachers (approximately 40%), and average teachers (approximately 52%) in 120 major urban school districts was both sufficiently large and accessible. Stars were willing to be interviewed because they had been identified (by recommendations and the pre-screener) as being extraordinary teachers. Status quo teachers were equally willing to be interviewed because they believed that the problems they encountered with students were the fault of the students, their parents, or the school systems. Status quo teachers were generally eager to conduct exit interviews and explain in detail the reasons why good teachers such as themselves could not continue to teach in these systems.

The number of status quo teachers who passed the interview is 0% and the number of Stars who passed the interview is 100%. Any test or scale may have a number of validity and reliability drawbacks depending on how, when, where, and by whom it is used (Baskin & Ross, 1992; Baskin, Ross & Smith, 1996). Each city using the interview keeps its own records and compares respondents' initial interview scores (prediction) against school principals' ratings after being hired in subsequent teaching evaluations. When the interview instrument is correctly administered by trained interviewers, there is a 5%, or 1 in 20, chance of hiring a status quo. The live interview is highly predictive of who will remain teaching in highly bureaucratic school systems and those who will quit or fail.

Haberman's 2 Step Protocol for Selecting Star Principals/Administrators

Step 1: Star Principal/Administrator Questionnaire. The questions on the Star Principal/Administrator Questionnaire, step 1 of the protocol for selecting star administrators, are based on the leader's core beliefs about connecting with teachers, parents, and the community to ensure success of the children and youth in the United States. Haberman's research has identified the following *12 mid-range functions/dispositions* for administrators that can be assessed through

the pre-screener: (1) leadership, (2) commitment to student learning, (3) theory into practice, (4) role of the school serving children in poverty, (5) curriculum and instructional leadership, (6) creating a positive school climate and fighting burnout, (7) evaluation/accountability, (8) decision making, (9) fallibility, (10) administrative style, (11) administrative relations with parents and community, and (12) the ideology of employment (Haberman, 1999, 2003).

The questionnaire is made up of 104 questions with two possible answers for each query and the applicant must select the best possible answer. The items represent star administrators' beliefs and behaviors (functions/dispositions); applicants are unable to change any answers once the test is completed. The respondents' selected responses reflect an ideology regarding their beliefs about the nature of effective schooling for diverse children and youth in poverty, as well as the nature of school leadership necessary to develop such schools. These ideologies and behaviors were identified in Haberman's studies of Star Principals/Administrators who led effective schools in large districts or who turned failing schools into effective ones. Respondents' answers are compared to those of outstanding school principals. The respondents' profiles provides ratings of *high, acceptable, and low* on each function. A response identified as low indicates a danger zone, and it is red flagged as an area of weakness which indicates that the respondent is likely to fail in performing that particular function. Similarly, a response designated as high reveals that the administrator is likely to succeed in performing the specified function. In addition, the respondents received a profile comparing their overall score to all others who have previously taken the test. Respondents' answers are analyzed in terms of the twelve functions necessary for effective leadership in schools.

Step 2: Star Administrator Selection, Live Interview. The Star Principal Selection Interview, step 2, predicts who will remain in administrative positions in highly bureaucratic

school systems and positively relate to diverse students in poverty. Of the 12 mid-range functions/dispositions identified by the Star Administrator Questionnaire, there are 11 mid-range functions/dispositions (see Table 4) for which Haberman has been able to create and validate interview questions: (1) leadership, (2) commitment to student learning, (3) theory into practice, (4) role of the school serving children in poverty, (5) curriculum and instructional leadership, (6) creating a positive school climate and fighting burnout, (7) evaluation/accountability, (8) decision making, (9) fallibility, (10) administrative style, and (11) administrative relations with parents and community (Haberman, 1999, 2003; Hill-Jackson & Stafford, 2015; Stafford & Hill-Jackson, 2016). Similar to Haberman's interview dispositions for teachers, the 11 principal dispositions measured in the live interview have remained fixed even as the number of functions on the questionnaire have undergone numerous iterations over time.

This online questionnaire may be used with experienced individuals who are currently principals or with neophytes who are aspiring principals. It is applicable to individuals who have completed state certification requirements to become principals, individuals from other careers without formal training in teaching, or school administration who are seeking to pursue an alternative route to the role of a school leader. Those typically using this questionnaire are: (1) urban or rural school districts seeking to hire new principals, (2) school districts seeking to identify effective leaders for failing schools that serve diverse children and youth in poverty, and (3) school districts seeking to select individuals for training programs to become principals. Researchers and doctoral students may use the questionnaire in their studies as a pre- and post-test to assess the power of various training programs and other treatments intended to change or develop administrators.

Table 4. *Traditional vs. Star Principals' Responses to Haberman's Seven Key Midrange*

Functions/Dispositions

Traditional Principals Respond in the Following Ways:	Functions/Dispositions: Beliefs and Behaviors of Star Administrators	Star Principals Respond in the Following Ways:
S/he believes that principals must be responsive to district and state mandates.	1. Leadership	S/he feels that principals must co-create and communicate a focused vision of student learning in chaotic times.
S/he believes that the selection and assignment of teachers is best handled by human resources.	2. Commitment to Student Learning	S/he believes that ineffective teachers must be removed at any cost.
S/he may not understand that the principles of unity of purpose, team building, and commitment to administrative tasks are necessary or their relationship to school culture.	3. Theory into Practice	S/he understands that administrators operate by 3 principles: unity of purpose, team building, and commitment to administrative tasks.
S/he believes that social services are not a duty of the school.	4. Role of the School Serving Children in Poverty	S/he believes that students and families should be connected to social services.
S/he sees little to no role in improving teacher effectiveness and feels unaccountable for the results of teachers and learners.	5. Curriculum + Instructional Leadership	S/he believes that principals know and engage the curriculum, seek best instructional practices, know instructional strategies, and engage the academic life of the school.
S/he does not recognize organizational and community pressures on the principal, staff, or students.	6. Creating a positive School Climate and Fighting Burnout	S/he is sensitive to demands made on him/her. They seek opportunities to celebrate and visitors, teachers, staff, and learners feel safe, welcome, valued, and affirmed.
S/he believes that principals are in charge because they are smarter; they cannot conceive that a principal might be evaluated.	7. Evaluation/Accountability	S/he understands that principals are the leaders because they recognize they are culpable for progress and change.
S/he believes that all decisions flow from the top down.	8. Decision Making	S/he believe that decision making must be shared.
S/he believes that leaders must never admit to their mistakes.	9. Fallibility	S/he believes that leaders admit when they are wrong.
S/he believes that superintendents are served by the loyal principal, and principals are served by staff, teachers, parents and the community.	10. Administrative Style	S/he are leaders who are servants to their stakeholders.
S/he believes that parents and community are roadblocks.	11. Administrative Relations with Parents and Community	S/he believes that parents and the community are partners.

Source: Adapted from *Better Principals, Better Schools: What Star Principals Know, Believe, and Do* by D. Stafford & V. Hill-Jackson (2016, p. 71).

Validity and Reliability.³ The development of the Star Principal/Administrator Selection Protocol occurred during several research trials from 1993 through 2001. The protocol could not be generated following the same procedures as the Star Teacher Selection Protocol. Status quo principals are reluctant to be interviewed for a variety of reasons; some have been told they will get a good reference if they leave the district quietly. Others are promised other jobs in the district if they keep quiet about the causes of their stepping down. Some have been given lucrative buyouts to leave quietly. Some have relatives who still work in the district and fear retribution, while others save face by claiming they were simply taking early retirement or leaving for health reasons. While classroom teachers fail more quietly in their classrooms, principals fail publicly. Because it is more difficult for principals to pretend they have been successful, they are more reluctant to be interviewed. This unwillingness to be interviewed limited the number of those who would cooperate in the development of an instrument; thereby affecting the representative sample group of status quo principals.

The method used to develop the Star Principal Selection, therefore, drew upon both the written knowledge base from prominent sources, including Thompson and Hill's (1992) compilation of *Principals for Our Changing Schools: The Knowledge and Skill Base*, which defined the scope of the principal's role as covering 21 domains of knowledge and skill. The dimensions about principal effectiveness covered in this, and other expansive reviews, are comprised of: leadership, information collection, problem analysis, judgment, organizational oversight, implementation, delegation, instruction, curriculum design, guidance, staff development, measurement and evaluation, resources allocation, motivation, interpersonal sensitivity, oral and non-verbal expression, written expression, contextual domains, legal and regulatory applications, policy and political influences, and public relations. Teams of 6–12

academic and practitioner scholars (from Milwaukee, Chicago, and Houston) then summarized the literature, which formed the functions for the questionnaire and the live interview.

Working with a team of doctoral students in the 1993–94 school year, the 21 domains of the research knowledge base in *Principals for Our Changing Schools* were merged with the functions identified by outstanding principals as the explanation for their success. The 21 Milwaukee principals serving as a jury agreed that the merged document preserved the intent and the functions of both the literature and the practitioners' knowledge base. The year from 1994 through 1995 was spent developing 14 questions that could assess the identified functions. Through an iterative process, trial questions were tested for their ability to orally communicate the functions correctly to a variety of constituencies of principals, acting principals, and principals in training. Respondents were not asked to answer the questions but were asked to explain what they believed the question was asking them. These trials also produced the prompts interviewers might use to ensure that respondents understood and answered the questions being asked. At the end of these year-long trials the questions and prompts were worded so that 100 percent of English speaking respondents agreed upon what was being asked in the questions. The Star Administrator Questionnaire is based on 12 mid-range functions of stars, but through additional research trials this survey was winnowed to 11 core functions that determine which applicants will do well in step 2, the live interview.

During 1996, in-person, day-long meetings were again held with the three groups of Star Principals in Milwaukee, Chicago, and Houston. Of the 81 original participants 63 were available and participated. Acting independently, the three panels agreed that the functions they had developed earlier were reflected in the questions developed to assess them. The panels also agreed that the behavioral manifestations of each of the functions used on the draft of the

questionnaire were accurate reflections of the functions they were intended to assess. Essentially, the interview seeks to assess what respondents regard as good practice and why they would engage in those practices. During this development process, it became apparent that the questions were not mutually exclusive. Some of the information gathered when respondents answered some of the questions was likely to be repeated when they answered others. As a result, during this next phase of development three of the questions were identified as redundant and dropped. After these second panel discussions, the Star Principal Selection Interview was developed in its present form (i.e. questions related to 11 functions and requiring approximately one hour to administer).

For the next five years, the Star Principal Selection Interview was used in ways that could both assist school districts and assure that the interview would be tested as a valid predictor of principals' effectiveness. In these trials the interview was used by districts as one criteria of principal selection, but not as the determining one. This practice provided an opportunity for the scores of respondents who were hired to be compared with their subsequent performance as practicing principals. This process was used to assess the interview's power to predict respondents' behavior from their total scores, as well as from their scores on each of the eleven specific functions assessed by the interview. In other words, if Principal Z was evaluated more highly than Principal B, then Z's total score should be higher. Even more importantly, if Principal B performed more poorly than Z with parents and community, or on creating a common vision among his faculty, his score on those specific questions would be lower. These validation trials demonstrated the power of the interview to predict subsequent behavior. At that point school districts began using the interview as a critical or even deciding factor in principal

selection. This interview is now used in over 220 major urban school districts; any of which can provide additional evidence of its predictive validity.

Outreach

The Haberman Educational Foundation (HEF), Inc. has been achieving success in training school districts across the United States for over two decades, providing innovative and research-based teacher and principal selection training events.

- HEF has trained in over 375 school districts across the United States.
- HEF has trained over 10,000 school leaders in the use of the Teacher and Principal Selection Interviews.
- Some of the larger districts that have received training, include: Houston Independent School District, Hillsborough County Public Schools in Tampa FL, Colorado Springs School District, and Cleveland Metropolitan School District.
- Trainees of the Haberman 2 Step Protocols disclose the following testimonials:
 - *“I thought it was very insightful and is invaluable information for all future interviews in creating great teaching staff!”*
 - *“I have never been trained to interview for the education world and this helps so much! I feel much more confident using this tool.”*

In the past five years alone (2012 –2017), HEF has provided professional development and training in 114 cities. In many cases, HEF makes return visits to ensure all staff members are well-versed and speaking the same language regarding the research and its validity. The places where HEF has provided training include:

Adams 12 Five Star Schools – Thornton, CO
Cleveland Metropolitan Public Schools – Cleveland, OH
Decatur Public Schools – Decatur, IL
Harrison School District Two – Colorado Springs, CO
Hillsborough County Schools – Tampa, FL
Houston Independent School District – Houston, TX
Midwestern State University -Wichita Falls, TX
Palm Beach County Schools - Palm Beach, FL
Rio Salado College –Tempe, AZ

Selection Training for School District Leadership

The Haberman Educational Foundation (HEF) trains teams of human resource personnel in the two step selection protocols for teachers and administrators. Flexible teams may also be designed to fit each district's specific needs by the superintendent or an appropriate designee. District level selection training for the pre-screener/questionnaire and interview, proposed here, is a formidable mechanism to transform the quality of personnel.

The HEF pre-screener for teacher and the administrators' questionnaire are elegantly simple to use and maintain. Because it is web-based, individuals have 24/7 access to online services and scores are automatically generated upon completion of the pre-screener. An intensive one day of training, with a team or pair representing every individual school, is prepared to interview teacher candidates. Selection training could also cater to an audience specially chosen by the district's leadership team. A day of training would equip district leaders to understand the rubric and background of the Star Teacher and Star Administrator/Principal online pre-screener. District-level administrators and superintendents will be taught the tenets of the online administrator pre-screener and how to interpret the results.

Additionally, the Star Teacher and Star Principal/Administrator Selection Interview trainings highlight the basic beliefs and behaviors (functions/dispositions) of effective school leaders of students that have been placed in poverty and placed at-risk. Learn more at <http://www.habermanfoundation.org/>.

Summary

According to online sources, a white paper is an informational document that often promotes an idea or solution. This document has been entitled “the” white paper as Haberman (2010) understood that selecting Star school leaders to educate children in poverty is a matter of “life and death” (p. 216).

We unpacked rival frameworks for understanding poverty in educational settings and found that Payne’s (2013) framework is subtractive or deficit in nature while Haberman’s Star framework (1995, 1999) is additive. Star teachers and principals/administrators hold high expectations for learners, and their families, who are placed at-risk; appreciate the multiple aspects of a child’s of identity; utilize empowering pedagogy and curricula; and take responsibility for learners’ achievement and life-chances.

After five decades of research, Haberman produced innovative two-step Star protocols, which offer a questionnaire and live interview for selecting highly effective teachers and principals/administrators. These appraisals are highly predictive in identifying the central dispositions, or beliefs and behaviors, of candidates with the potential to be Star school leaders.

Haberman’s outreach legacy includes documented cases of proven selection practices with school districts across America. The K–12 districts that have adopted Haberman’s two-step Star protocols have uncovered and chosen an impressive new cadre of school leaders. Today HEF continues to disseminate Haberman’s research, which is focused on the ideology and actions of highly effective school leaders for underserved learners.

Notes

1. While Martin Haberman references principals and administrators separately in his protocol research, these terms are indistinguishable for the purposes of this white paper. (for more on this refer to www.habermanfoundation.org)
2. Excerpts taken from: Haberman Educational Foundation. (HEF). (n.d.). *Star teacher training*. Retrieved from <http://www.habermanfoundation.org/TheFoundation/StarTeacherTraining.aspx>
3. Excerpts taken from: Haberman Educational Foundation. (HEF). (n.d.). *Background and methodology undergirding the development of the star urban principals interview*. Retrieved from <http://www.habermanfoundation.org/Articles/Default.aspx?id=67>

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