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Sponsorship and Appreciation

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The unique relationship between research and practice is appreciated, recognizing the mutual benefit to those educators who conduct the research and seek out evidence-based practice and those educators whose responsibility it is to carry out the mission of school districts in the education of children.

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Regret Reduction through Prevention: Leadership Lessons

Ken Mitchell, EdD

Editor

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In his 1967 *New York Review of Books*’ essay, “God’s Country,” James Baldwin cautioned: “Though we would like to live without regrets, and sometimes proudly insist that we have none, this is not really possible, if only because we are mortal.” As children, many of us were schooled with fables on how to prevent problems via *smart planning*—build your house out of bricks not straw; *diligence*—store up for the winter instead of fiddling; and *perseverance*—slow and steady wins the race. Yet because we are human, we are condemned to imperfect foresight, resigning ourselves to a remorseful, “If only I had...”

Most of us regret decisions we have made in relationships, education, finances, and careers. If only I knew then, what I have learned since. How might have I handled that conflict differently or spoken to someone in a different way? What if I had taken that position instead of this one? Why did I hire him? I never anticipated that! And so forth!

We may bemoan less serious choices, such as giving up a musical instrument, failing to learn a second language, or making a bad play on the field of athletic competition. Some of us dwell on these regrets; others are better at putting such disappointments behind them or to

good use. While regret is inescapable, it can provide opportunity from lessons learned, but only *when they are applied*. Pink (2022) describes the concept of “escalation of commitment to a failing course of action” when bad choices are compounded by continual investments of “time, money, and effort in losing causes instead of stanching losses and switching tactics” (p.41).

Having led schools and school districts, I recall having a sense of profound responsibility with difficult decisions, especially when so many would be affected, with some results being long-term. Bad decisions by school leaders often have a broader and more consequential impact because they can alter so many lives and futures. Of course, no one wants to make the wrong decision, but inevitably for most of us, there will be some regrettable ones.

Leaders with a sense of obligation use the lessons learned from regret as an advantage. For example, by using multiple measures of data or seeking diverse perspectives from diverse stakeholders before making a major decision that in the past may have been made by one or a few high-level administrators, the leader accesses new considerations of what may or may not work. Yet not all invest in such

a broad deliberation. Pink (2022) warns of a cognitive bias that pollutes our decision-making—an unwillingness to change course, despite what we have learned—that will often lead to failure, hence, regrets.

In an analysis of a defining moment during the Battle of Gettysburg, Gompert & Kugler (2006) contrast General Robert E. Lee’s decision to order Pickett’s charge with Union General George Meade’s adaptive, analytical, and proactive approach to decision-making that relied on new information from multiple sources and input from his chief subordinates.

Lee’s escalation to a commitment of a planned course of action relied on intuition and experience but was in direct conflict with information provided by his corps commander, Lieutenant-General James Longstreet, who warned that the attack would fail and lead to defeat. Some historians regard this battle as the turning point in the Civil War.

After the defeat, Lee took responsibility: “The fault is entirely my own.” As was the case with Lee, oftentimes our regrets result from a failure to proactively process new and diverse information and listen to others, versus a sole reliance on intuition and perhaps a little ego.

Our multiple priorities as leaders of educational institutions include planning that is preventative in form: anticipating problems before they appear, predicting outcomes through ongoing reviews of data, and facilitating an organization that readily adapts to changing conditions. Learning is part of the work, which is likely why you are reading this now.

In the spring 2023 issue of the *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice*, our

practitioner-researchers examine areas that relate to preventative leadership through *understanding* that might assist in minimizing leadership regrets. Technologist Dr. Ryan Fisk provides an informative overview of the rise of ChatGPT and generative A.I., offering cautions along with opportunities for educators from current and future A.I. iterations: “Technology is evolving fast, and so too, educators must be prepared and ready to evolve as well.”

In the piece, you will learn that within two months ChatGPT reached 100 million active users—the fastest growing consumer internet application in history.

Dr. Barbara Hickman, an assistant professor and program coordinator in the department of educational leadership at the University of Wyoming, in her legal analysis, “Fair Use or Fair Game: The (Distance) Educator’s Dilemma,” explores and explains the requirements for policy makers, site and district leadership, and classroom instructors regarding the use of digital, copyrighted materials in the ever-expanding growth of virtual learning environments.

Understanding the changes in the law and ensuring a systematic review to ensure that policies are not only current but are being applied is critical to prevent significant and regrettable liabilities. Dr. Hickman helps us to understand the consequences and what needs to be done.

Since the beginning of the accountability movement, many school administrators made the regrettable decision to respond to exogenous pressures to increase student standardized test scores by replacing access to Physical Education with more time in subjects that are tested. These decisions coincided with (perhaps exacerbated) a rise in

childhood obesity that has consequences for lifelong health risks.

In their study, “Evaluation of a Social Determinant of Health: Academic Achievement Through Physical Education Policy,” Rodriguez, Gutmore, Reid, and Alfonso, explore national associations of PE policies and academic achievement on standardized tests through a fixed effects panel data analysis. Their findings enhance the limited literature on PE policy associations with academic achievement.

The issue concludes with a book review by Dr. Karen Salmon, the retired commissioner of education for the State of Maryland. She examines *From Conflict to Collaboration*, written by retired superintendents Rob Feirsen & Seth Weitzman, who offer a framework for preventing conflict in a way that can lead to more collaboration, a welcomed strategy during

these contentious times. The authors suggest principles and practices for conflict-agility to ultimately generate a critical mass that produces a more deeply committed, cohesive school, a place where collaborative work leads to greater engagement. Such leadership, if effected well, is the kind that can serve to shift the current climate and minimize leadership errors and regrets.

As Baldwin cautioned in 1967, regret is inevitable, but it does not have to be paralyzing. It can become the impetus for school leaders to make the changes that those who are being led require from their leaders. Philosopher and psychiatrist, Viktor Frankl, a concentration camp survivor, provides us with some inspiration about applying such lessons as we move forward: “Live as if you were living already for the second time and as if you had acted the first time as wrongly as you are about to act now!”

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Fair Use or Fair Game: The (Distance) Educator's Dilemma

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Abstract

During (and after) the lockdowns of the Covid-19 pandemic, educational communities have employed distance education to reach their students. However, not all districts are aware of the legal requirements of using instructional materials in a virtual setting. In recognition of the growth of virtual learning environments, Congress passed the Technology, Education and Copyright Harmonization (TEACH) Act in 2002 with the goal of redefining the circumstances and rules under which nonprofit and educational institutions might digitally use copyright protected materials. For districts exploring or expanding opportunities in distance education, understanding the laws that pertain to the use of digital, copyrighted materials is of critical importance. This article explores and explains these requirements for policymakers, site and district leadership, and classroom instructors.

Keywords

copyright law, Fair Use, TEACH Act, distance education, legal education, education policy

In the winter of 2019, attorneys for the Houston Independent School District (HISD) found themselves in federal court (*DynaStudy, Inc. v. HISD*, 2017). They were finalizing their defense of the district against charges of infringement in violation of the Copyright Act and the Digital Millennium Copyright Act (17 U.S.C. § 501 et seq and § 1201 et seq.).

After a three-year legal battle, a federal jury found in favor of the DynaStudy textbook publisher in May of 2019 and awarded them \$9.2 million to be paid by the district. The HISD appealed the verdict, and the parties agreed to \$7.8 million as a final settlement of the case in October 2019 (Carpenter, 2019).

The examples of violations were egregious. They included cutting off the copyright warning from a study guide and then making multiple copies to share around the district as well as using a sticky note to hide the admonition against making copies. One teacher used white tape to “hide copyright warnings on an eighth-grade science guide, then circulated the document more than 50 times over two years” (*DynaStudy, Inc. v. HISD*, 2017).

Increasing the district’s woes, their own liability insurance company sued them for failure to disclose pertinent trial information. The company asked a judge to release them from any obligation to pay the district’s multimillion dollar settlement. The HISD board of education indicated that they intended to use general fund dollars to complete their payments (Carpenter, 2019).

The district’s defense of these actions was centered around the fair use doctrine, an allowance carved out of copyright law that grants unlicensed use of copyrighted materials in specific situations (United States Code: Copyright Act, 1976). The HISD personnel

involved in the lawsuit clearly had knowledge of copyright law, fair use, and the limitations that apply to education. This was demonstrated by an exchange of emails read aloud in court, through which a teacher mentioned the obvious wording that prohibited copying on the bottom of each student guide. Moreover, she described the response of her principal, “who brushed off the concerns, and the teacher’s reply *via email stating ‘I’m ok with violating it though . . . lol’*” (Cox, 2019, p.1).

Most educators do have some understanding of fair use but may believe that it offers wider immunity than the law actually allows. Copyright law extends automatic protection “in nearly all works that are ‘original works of authorship’ and ‘fixed in any tangible medium of expression’” (United States Code: Copyright Act, 1976, Section 102[a]). Interpreted for educational use, this means “most writings, images, artworks, videotapes, musical works, sound recordings, motion pictures, computer programs, and other works are protected by copyright law” (Crews, 2002, p. 2).

Is Fair Use Fair Game?

The phrase *fair game* became commonly used after its introduction from old English grouse hunters, who utilized the term to mean a wild game bird that fell within the rules of hunting and could be deemed fair or allowed as a target for a potential kill. The term has morphed over the years and now, according to Urban Dictionary, means something that is up for grabs and equally accessible to any participant or an opportunity that can be taken without repercussion (Andrea, 2003).

Fair use is codified in Section 107 of the Copyright Act (United States Code: Copyright Act, 1976) in slightly different terms than those used by Urban Dictionary, although the definitions do have some parallels around the

need to identify certain characteristics to ascertain fitness for use.

The Copyright Act describes four factors that should be considered when determining if the use of material would fall under permissible guidelines for fair use. They are (a) the purpose and character of the use and whether the use is of a commercial nature or for nonprofit educational purposes; (b) the nature of the copyrighted work and the level of creativity that the work expresses; (c) the amount and substantiality of the work that is used in proportion to the work as a whole; and (d) the effect of the use on the potential market value of the copyrighted work and to what extent the unlicensed use might harm the existing or future market for the copyright owner's original work (Copyright Act, 17 U.S. Code § 107, 1976).

Case law also provides some guidelines about how to honor a copyright and provide students with current and relevant instructional materials. Described as “the classic fair use and copyright infringement case” (Russo, 2010, p. 174), *Marcus v. Rowley* (1983) demonstrates how the court system viewed a specific fair use lawsuit in an educational setting. Marcus wrote a booklet for her adult education class and registered the copyright. Marcus sold her booklets to the students in her class for \$2 each and made a profit of \$1 for each book. Rowley, the defendant in the court case, took the class from Marcus and purchased a copy of the booklet. Shortly thereafter, Rowley produced her own guide to cake decorating for her high school classes.

As admitted in court, Rowley directly copied 11 of the 24 pages from the plaintiff's booklet in the guide that she created. Rowley did not give the plaintiff credit for the 11 pages she copied, nor did she acknowledge the plaintiff as the owner of a copyright with respect to these pages. Marcus became aware of the

copyright violation (through a student who had knowledge of both classes) and filed suit (*Marcus v. Rowley*, 1983).

The Ninth Circuit Court found Rowley to be in violation of copyright law. The court indicated that the defendant's nonprofit educational purpose did not automatically compel a finding of fair use and stated that copying a work for the same intrinsic purpose that the copyright owner intended weighs strongly against a finding of fair use (U.S. Copyright Office, 2022).

Hachiya (2022) describes the following three additional “tests” that educators might apply to further ascertain their own level of risk of copyright violation:

- **Brevity:** The actual number of words used in the copy should not include more than two pages or 250 words of a poem or an excerpt or more than 10% of a total work.
- **Spontaneity:** The decision to use the material was made too late to acquire permission.
- **Cumulative effect:** The work is used in only one course in the school, a single author is not copied more than twice, or a teacher uses multiple copies in one class no more than nine times in one class over a semester.

Legal Knowledge

The guidelines on how copyright and fair use can be applied in an educational setting—combined with the benefit of hindsight provided by examples of copyright violation case law—may inspire observers of these situations to wonder how such conspicuous infringements occur. Certainly, deliberate flouting of the law is one explanation. However, research studies reveal that this subject may not be focused on as

thoroughly as one might expect in either administrator/teacher preparation or district professional learning (given the legal and financial implications that accompany accusations and findings of copyright infringement).

Hillman (1988) determined that 76% of administrator respondents ($n = 142$) had taken a course about school law as part of their administrator preparation programs (p. 8). In the study completed by Militello et al. (2009), this number increased to 87% ($n = 424$). While Hillman (1988) did not ask specifically about copyright, Militello et al. (2009) included the following question about copyright law in their study: “True or False: Under copyright doctrine of ‘fair use’ teachers can duplicate 51 magazine articles and book chapters for their classes each year if no one is charged for the material” (p.33). Subsequently, 57% of respondents answered this question correctly as false.

Hillman’s (1988) work established that 58.4% of respondents relied on their school attorney for legal advice, followed by 41% who asked other administrators in their own districts when they had questions of a legal nature. These results have changed over time. Militello et al. (2009) determined that 59% of their respondents relied on central office personnel as their source of legal information, with the school district lawyer and other district administrators reaching a close second. The collegiality between administrators may be positive for culture, but reliance on peers for legal advice may not typically be the best practice when colleagues are uninformed about current laws and school district liabilities, including those concerning copyright law.

Circumstances appear even less promising concerning preservice and new teacher preparation and regarding

professional learning. Egger and Springer’s (2019) research on music educator knowledge and understanding about copyright law suggests that preservice and professional learning offerings to address legalities about copyright may be lacking in both scope and depth.

In this study ($n = 50$), the majority of respondents (64%) reported that copyright law was not covered in any of their preservice coursework, and 76% indicated that, once employed, their school and/or district had offered no information or training on copyright law (Egger & Springer, 2019). These results compel consideration regarding if and when districts address copyright guidelines via policy and professional learning opportunities. This matter is especially important as institutions consider expanding alternative ways of providing instruction.

Distance Education Enters the Fray

For school district personnel attempting (or not, as the case may be) to adhere to copyright law, a layer of complication was added with the growth of distance education provoked (in part) by school districts’ response to the Covid-19 pandemic.

As described by Hodges et al. (2020), for some districts across the nation, the use of online instruction might fall under the category of emergency remote teaching, which they define as follows:

- a temporary shift of instructional delivery to an alternate delivery mode due to crisis
- circumstances. It involves the use of fully remote teaching solutions for instruction or education that would otherwise be delivered face-to-face or

as blended or hybrid courses and that will return to that format once the crisis or emergency has abated. (para. 12)

For other districts, however, the incorporation of various forms of distance education may be here to stay. A 2021 study by the Rand Corporation offers insight regarding the future of distance education from representative school districts throughout the country. The research was centered around the following question: “Will remote K–12 instruction outlast the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic?” They determined the answer to be yes—with some caveats and modifications (Diliberti & Schwartz, 2021).

The study asked about three different permutations of online learning: temporary remote instruction, fully online courses, and standalone virtual schools (Diliberti & Schwartz, 2021).

Results from after the pandemic began showed that one quarter (25%, $n = 292$) of the districts who engaged with the survey were interested in operating a virtual school as compared with 3% who had run a virtual school before the pandemic. Roughly 36% of surveyed districts planned to offer fully online courses, which reveals a 10% increase from pre-pandemic conditions.

While the growth of pandemic-influenced distance education did not increase dramatically in the 2022 to 2023 school year, overall trends do reveal gradual acceptance and a greater number of choices in district learning options. In March of 2021, “one-third of school principals said that their schools planned to offer remote schooling options to any families that wanted them, even after the pandemic has passed” (Kaufman & Diliberti, 2021, p. 1).

Considerations Regarding the Technology, Education and Copyright Harmonization Act

In recognition of the growth of virtual learning environments, in 2002, Congress passed Section 110(2) of the Copyright Act, which is better known as the Technology, Education and Copyright Harmonization (TEACH) Act (United States Code: Copyright Act, 2002). The main function of the TEACH Act has been to redefine the circumstances and rules under which nonprofit and educational institutions might use copyright-protected materials in a digital format.

Crews (2002) describes the TEACH Act as a positive step in recognizing the need to address copyright laws for distance education and warned that “much of the law is built around permitting uses of copyrighted works in the context of ‘mediated instructional activities’ that are akin in many respects to the conduct of traditional classroom sessions” (p. 3). In other words, the additions made to the law were predicated on minimal changes to the content, course work, type of assessments, and how instructional materials are used, despite the different modality of delivery.

Kehoe (2005) explains the tension that has accompanied the compromises made in the United States Code: Copyright Act (2002) with educators on one side, advocating for expanded user rights for the purpose of distance education, and copyright holders on the other, concerned about a threat to the clear ownership of their intellectual property. The copyright holders have wished to limit the use of their materials in part because “the dissemination and transmission of copyrighted works (as opposed to the mere ‘display’ of such works) poses a substantially greater risk of copyright piracy” (Kehoe, 2005, p. 1038).

More concretely, in a face-to-face (f2f) class, an instructor might display a painting to the students in that specific classroom for a specific length of time. When the students leave class for the day, the image of the painting does not travel with them, and its use is confined to a set group in a set time period. Should that same class be provided in a distance education format and the image of the painting is added to course materials that are consistently accessible, little would prevent students in the course from downloading and then sharing the image outside of their virtual classroom or pirating the creator's original work.

The attempt to standardize student learning experiences among f2f and distance education students while continuing to protect copyright laws was well-intentioned in design. However, Griggs (2021) describes "several caveats not applicable to in-person teaching, including limitations on the extent of use for certain types of copyrighted works and the required adherence to a list of institutional and technical specifications and restrictions" (p. 307).

Hutchinson (2003) provides a helpful vignette comparing copyright permissions before and after the TEACH Act, using the example of a History of Jazz: New Orleans class provided in both f2f and distance education formats. In the f2f class, students would likely purchase a textbook and the instructor would lead class discussions, using excerpts of various musical pieces during the class period to "illustrate each example she described during her lecture, stopping to point out specific features to which she wanted students to pay particular attention" (p. 2205).

The distance education version of this class might have students purchase CDs with the featured musical works to use as they studied at home. The fair use doctrine would apply to the

f2f class, exempting the teacher from needing specific copyright permission for each of the song excerpts that she played during her instruction.

However, prior to the TEACH Act, the following was true:

The online educator would be forced to secure a license from the copyright owner to integrate the audio clips into her course rather than asking students to purchase and play specific tracks from the CD independently. Licenses for online uses, however, particularly for popular media such as music and movies, can be prohibitively expensive. (p. 2206)

The TEACH Act allows the online History of Jazz teacher to display portions of copyrighted works and to perform entire nondramatic literary and musical works and reasonable and limited portions of all other types of works (United States Code: Copyright Act, 2002). As long as the excerpts from the selected music pieces are limited portions, as might be listened to in the f2f class, copyright exemptions apply.

For materials in a distance education course to qualify for use under the TEACH Act, the material must have been "lawfully made and acquired" (United States Code: Copyright Act, 1976, p.25). This means that the resource should be, for example, one for which the district holds a license (which is part of a purchased curriculum) or something that does not have a copyright. It cannot be a copyrighted video that the instructor has downloaded from a website without appropriate permissions.

The other major boundary for distance education is the amount of material that can be legally used. Welkowitz, writing in Gormley's blog, states that the "online exception is more

limited than the one for face-to-face teaching” (Gormley, 2020, para. 5).

The online instructor must make efforts to use as much or as little of a resource in the distance class as they might in a face-to-face environment, and not to simply post large sections of reading or visual materials for the students to study themselves. In making this decision, it is important to understand how the law defines and discerns the difference between a display and a performance.

According to Crews (2003), “displays are generally static images, whether of artwork, text, photographs, or other works; performances generally occur with the playing of music or audiovisual works and the recital of text, poetry, or plays” (p. 38).

Through consideration of these definitions, one gains a sense of the fair use doctrine’s interest in protecting the market value and commercial potential for the copyright holder, while still allowing for excerpts of the work to be used in an educational setting.

The TEACH Act thus permits the full performance of nondramatic literary works (i.e., textbooks, poems, and novels) and full performances of nondramatic musical works (i.e., a specific song or symphony) but restricts plays, movies, or operas and other full performances to reasonable and limited portions (Myers, 2019).

Leadership Recommendations

While the TEACH Act delivers statutory relief for distance educators to use certain copyrighted works in a manner similar to that of their f2f colleagues, the act is also “replete with detailed provisions that tacitly demand the active engagement of many participants inside an educational institution” (Crews, 2003, p. 36).

Considering this imposing list of details, it is also perhaps reassuring to consider, as Hachiya (2022) indicates, that it is not common for school districts to be held liable for copyright infringements made by individual employees. (While not common, it is not completely unheard of. See Hickman [2021] for an example of district liability for an alleged copyright infringement on a social media post.)

It is also worth noting the following regarding the Coronavirus Aid, Relief, and Economic Security (CARES) Act:

The CARES Act authorizes the Register of Copyrights to temporarily adjust statutory deadlines for copyright owners and other affected parties if she determines that a national emergency declared by the President is generally disrupting the normal operation of the copyright system. (U.S. Copyright Office, 2021, para. 3)

Much of the CARES Act relief comes in the form of deadline extensions for the holder of intellectual property and not in that of lifting copyright law to allow distance educators impunity in their use of either analog or digital resources.

School systems still using emergency remote teaching protocols may wish to investigate these accommodations more thoroughly with their legal counsel if there are outstanding concerns.

Engaged and proactive district and school leaders would be wise to consider the policy-based, technological, and instructional demands of the TEACH Act to ensure that they have designed an environment that allows for best use of instructional resources, respects the intellectual property rights of the creators of

these resources and complies with the law.

The following practices, regulations, and policies should be in place for institutions, technology directions and instructors technology directors in educational establishments offering distance education:

- Concerning institutional status, the institution must be a government body or an accredited nonprofit educational institution. Elementary and secondary schools shall be recognized as such by the applicable state certification or licensing procedures.
- The educational institution must have policies regarding copyright. In the case of K12 school systems, this is likely board policy that has been reviewed and approved by the elected school board. The language in the TEACH Act is somewhat lacking in detail, but Crews (2002) suggests that “policies would specify the standards educators and others will follow when incorporating copyrighted works into distance education” (p. 5).
- The institution must “accurately describe, and promote compliance with, the laws of United States relating to copyright” (Crews, 2002, p. 6). These materials must be provided to “faculty, students, and relevant staff members” (p. 6). This means that, in addition to just having a policy, the institution must make additional efforts to communicate expectations about compliance to copyright law, whether in a f2f or distance setting.
- The TEACH Act specifically states that institutions must provide “notice to students that materials used in connection with the course may be subject to copyright protection” (United States Code: Copyright Act, 2002, p.26. This notice could be included in the materials used for the distance education class and not sent as a separate entity. Only enrolled students in a class may use the materials that are placed on the distance learning platform. Therefore, both the institution and the instructor must take care to limit how and by whom the course content is accessed.
- Concerning institutional controls on dissemination and storage, the main concerns here are with how long the material is stored in the institutional system and how the institution might control further dissemination of the materials beyond the students who are legally enrolled in the class. Crews (2002) notes that “both of these restrictions address concerns from copyright owners that students might receive, store, and share the copyrighted content” (p. 6). The institution must make some attempt to guard against unauthorized sharing of the materials.
- In considering the length of time that copies are retained, the act addresses how long an institution may retain the materials on its servers, system, or network. The institution must take precautions to protect the materials so that only

authorized people may access them, particularly after a specific course has been completed. As long as the materials are stored as prescribed by law, the institution may use the materials for future iterations of the course.

Moreover, the following practices should be in place for instructors in educational establishments that offer distance education:

- Concerning the type and amount of work used, the TEACH Act differentiates between the display and performance of works. For display, the act says that use must be of an amount comparable to that which is typically displayed in the course of a live classroom session. The performance of dramatic and audiovisual works must be comprised of “reasonable and limited portions” (United States Code: Copyright Act, 2002, p. 25).
- Regarding course supervision, the copyrighted materials that are used must be part of a course that is directly supervised by the instructor and part of the regular course offerings of the institution. This regulation underscores that the materials must be for educational purposes and not used in any other manner (e.g., an entertainment capacity).
- Concerning the digitization of instructional materials, questions can arise about if and how much

a teacher might be able to scan or otherwise digitize analog teaching materials to be placed online for a distance course. Understandably, this has been a sticking point for copyright holders, who fear that once their creations are converted to a digital format, they could be shared endlessly with little recognition or recompense. The TEACH Act does permit digitizing analog works if the works are not already available in digital form. In addition, commercial works marketed for the educational market, such as electronic texts or workbooks, cannot be used under the TEACH Act exemption. The same restrictions about the portions of material that could be used online would still apply.

The University of Texas Libraries have created a checklist to identify which of the TEACH Act guidelines have been met and which still might need to be completed to keep the institution and individual instructors in compliance with law. The checklist is presented in Appendix A (University of Texas, 2022).

Conclusion

Distance education opens opportunities for institutions to meet the needs of some students and their families. When school closures were common due to public health concerns, the move to distance learning was an important choice made by institutions to support families. Furthermore, research has demonstrated that there is interest in increasing options for this type of learning.

The decision to offer or expand distance education should be one that is made by a collective group of people, including administrators, teachers, and technology personnel, within an institution. Under the requirements of the TEACH Act, individuals in each one of these roles have specific tasks to accomplish. Moreover, the achievement of each of these tasks is

necessary to ensure compliance with the TEACH Act as part of copyright law.

It is crucial for districts to recognize their own responsibilities in protecting both the instructors involved in distance teaching and the intellectual property rights of the creators of materials that can be found online.

Author Biography

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Appendix A

Use this handy checklist to see if you are ready to use the TEACH Act.

- My institution is a nonprofit accredited educational institution or a government agency.
- It has a policy on the use of copyrighted materials.
- It provides accurate information to faculty, students, and staff about copyright.
- Its systems will not interfere with technological controls within the materials I want to use.
- The materials I want to use are specifically for students in my class.
- Only those students will have access to the materials.
- The materials will be provided at my direction during the relevant lesson.
- The materials are directly related and of material assistance to my teaching content.
- My class is part of the regular offerings of my institution.
- I will include a notice that the materials are protected by copyright.
- I will use technology that reasonably limits the students' ability to retain or further distribute the materials.
- I will make the materials available to the students only for a period of time that is relevant to the context of the class session.
- I will store the materials on a secure server and transmit them only as permitted by this law.
- I will not make copies other than the one I need to make the transmission.
- The materials are of the proper type and amount that the law authorizes as follows:
 - entire performances of nondramatic literary and musical works,
 - reasonable and limited parts of a dramatic literary, musical, or audiovisual work, or
 - displays of other works, such as images, in amounts similar to typical displays in face-to-face teaching.
- The materials are not among those the law specifically excludes from its coverage:
 - materials specifically marketed for classroom use for digital distance education,
 - copies I know or should know are illegal, or
 - textbooks, course packs, electronic reserves, and similar materials typically purchased individually by the students for independent review outside the classroom or class session.
- If I am using an analog original, I checked before digitizing it to be sure of the following:
 - I copied only the amount that I am authorized to transmit.
 - There is no digital copy of the work available except one with technological protections that prevent my using it for the class in the way the statute has authorized.

(adapted from <https://guides.lib.utexas.edu/copyright/teachactchecklist>)

Evaluation of a Social Determinant of Health: Academic Achievement through Physical Education Policy

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Abstract

Physical activity can meaningfully influence educational outcomes. However, physical activity among youth remains insufficient (World Health Organization, 2018). Youth who are not physically active are more likely to encounter chronic health issues including obesity, depression, and anxiety (Bartelink et al., 2019, Bélair et al., 2018, Krebs, 2003). School-sponsored physical education (PE) is one way for students to participate in physical activity. Nevertheless, many school administrators respond to pressures to increase student standardized test scores by replacing access to PE with more time in tested subjects (Center on Education Policy, 2007, 2008). This study explores national associations of PE policies and academic achievement on standardized tests through a fixed effects panel data analysis. Findings enhance the limited literature on PE policy associations with academic achievement.

Key Words

education policy, education administration, academic achievement, physical education, physical activity

One way to help youth do well academically is through physical activity (PA). PA improves cognitive learning in a child's formative years, in addition to improving their physical, mental, and fiscal health. Physical education (PE) structures PA for students in schools. Originally, policies were developed to guide implementation of PE availability and quality in schools.

However, although numerous studies have focused on PA as a conduit to maintaining physical emotional, financial, and social health (Cawley et al., 2013; Christiansen et al., 2018; Kosteas, 2012), limited studies have been conducted to see if PE policies are working to impact academic achievement. The World Health Organization (WHO) and Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) have also advocated for PA due to the positive effects of PA on an individual's whole being (WHO, 2018; CDC, 2018) the rise in incidences of obesity, and the lack of policy and oversight for K–12 PE.

Given the lack of research in this area, this study examined the association between PE policies and academic achievement.

The study focused on PE policies and academic achievement in mathematics and reading results of eighth graders to capture the nature of increasing behavioral and cognitive dissonance (Wills et al., 2019), and increasing body mass index (Fryar et al., 2018) in the transition from childhood to adolescence occurring during this critical grade level. Furthermore, the study aligns with U. S. Department of Health and Human Services (HHS) objectives of increasing the proportion of eighth graders with math and reading skills at or above the proficient level (HHS, 2020).

This study investigated the following questions concerning PE and academic achievement:

1. Does the change in PE policies, as measured by mandated PE time, predict current mean reading performance in U.S. states?
2. Does the change in PE policies, as measured by mandated PE time, predict current mean math performance in U.S. states?
3. Does the change in PE policies, as measured by mandated teacher certification in PE, predict current mean reading performance in U.S. states?
4. Does the change in PE policies, as measured by mandated teacher certification in PE, predict current mean math performance in U.S. states?

Literature Review

The concept of physical fitness initially came to prominence in American culture in the early 19th century (Welch, 2004). European migration from countries such as Germany and Sweden inspired the concept of health and fitness through gymnastics. Soon after, the first school in the United States merged this fitness concept with education to offer PE. Welch (2004) explained the original intention of PE was to better prepare students physically for war.

Eventually, the importance of fitness and its impact on education was expanded in the 19th century by physicians in American universities with a goal to teach people how to take care of their bodies (Park, 1987). As Americans began to move into cities, the disease rate increased, and there was a decline in health and fitness (Roetert & Pate, 2019). However, interest in sport arose with the mandate for

youth to receive public education, and visionaries like John Dewey promoted educating the whole child and noted that playing games aided the child in learning; these factors helped to encourage PE in American public schools (Welch, 2004).

The influence of schools on student physical activity was highlighted through Kahan and McKenzie (2017) study of the association between school and neighborhood characteristics and student achievement on fitness tests. Due to the greater correlations between school characteristics and fitness achievement scores, the study suggested the school holds the responsibility for supporting students with the opportunity to engage in activity that can promote their health and well-being.

The study revealed school variables impacted children's PA more than did neighborhood variables. School variables included incidents of crime, availability of free and reduced lunch programs, and school size. Neighborhood variables included crime within neighborhoods, walkability within the town, and neighborhood demographics.

Furthermore, schools are in a unique position to promote recommendations from governmental organizations (Kahan and McKenzie, 2017). In 2015, the U.S. Congress passed the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), which identified PE as a critical component of a well-rounded education, thus allowing schools to allocate federal funds to PE. In 2017, schools began to receive federal funding for PE under the ESSA.

Policy analysts referred to lack of federal oversight embedded in the policy (Adler-Greene, 2019). The ESSA leaves the development and enforcement of educational legislation to the states, and in the process,

removes much of the state accountability from the federal government.

As schools are identified by the federal government as an agent to promote PA through physical education, PA can also positively impact personal finances, including as much as a 10% higher salary (Kosteas, 2012). Kosteas also found a relationship between PA and lower debt. Kosteas used a fixed effects model to control for variability such as the amount of vigorous exercise undertaken by a participant. Biddle and Asare (2011) studied mental health in correlation with PA, and the lack thereof, within a child and adolescent population.

Although they found inconsistent or small positive correlations between mental health and PA, the consistent correlations between sedentary lifestyle and its negative effect on cognition demonstrated positive impact of PA. The study concluded an association between PA and improvement in psychosocial outcomes among children and adolescents.

Several studies have analyzed the association between PE in schools and academic achievement. Carlson et al. (2008) explained that PE is linked with academic benefit, and the increased time in PE does not impact the academic performance of elementary students in a negative way. Dexter (1999) concluded that academic ability is maximized when students are involved in sports during PE. Ericsson (2008) studied 251 elementary students over a three-year period to analyze effects of lengthening physical education on motor skills, attention, and cognition. His findings indicated that students who have more days per week in physical education score higher in math, reading, and writing.

Comparatively, Tremarche et al. (2007) found that students that spent more time in PE achieved higher scores on standardized tests, while Sallis et al. (1999) found within a 2-year

study that doubling PE time raised reading scores. Some studies developed experimental designs to explore the association between PE and academic performance. Budde et al. (2008) conducted an experimental study including 115 teenagers between 13 and 16 years old at a high-performing school to look at the association between coordinated exercise and academic performance. He found that coordinated exercise improved academic scores. This supports the benefit PE has for students.

Design and Method

The research design selected for this study is non-experimental and correlational. Preexisting data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) and Society of Health and Physical Educators (SHAPE America) *Shape of the Nation* report were analyzed using fixed effects panel regressions (NAEP, 1998, 2002, 2007, 2011, 2013, 2017; SHAPE America, 1997, 2001, 2006, 2010, 2012, 2016).

The dependent (outcome) variables were the NAEP reading and math scores, due to the study alignment with HHS objectives of increasing the proportion of eighth graders with math and reading skills at or above the proficient level (HHS, 2020).

The predictor variables were mandated PE time and teacher certification, since school-sponsored PE policies are a way to structure student participation in PA, PE availability, and PE quality in schools. Calendar year was included as a control variable in this study to account for natural changes in reading and math scores from year to year that may otherwise be confounded with changes in PE policies. Two data sources were analyzed to answer the research questions. The first data source was the NAEP mathematics and reading assessments. The assessments measured students'

mathematics and reading knowledge and were distributed to students across the nation. The data from the following years were reviewed: 1998, 2002, 2007, 2011, 2013, and 2017. The data are publicly available through the National Center for Education Statistics. The second data source used was the *Shape of the Nation* report. This is a national study and measured school policies specific to health. The study was conducted in 1997, 2001, 2006, 2010, 2012, and 2016. The data are publicly available through the SHAPE America website.

The NAEP and *Shape of the Nation* data were compiled into an electronic spreadsheet and imported into SPSS for statistical analysis. To conduct the fixed effects panel regressions, the data were entered in long format, meaning that each case represented data from one state for one year.

To account for the fact that the NAEP and *Shape of the Nation* data were not collected in the same calendar years and the fact that newly mandated PE policies need time to take effect, corresponding NAEP and *Shape of the Nation* data were offset by one year (e.g., *Shape of the Nation* data from 2016 was matched with NAEP data from 2017). Means and standard deviations were reported for continuous variables, and frequencies and percentages were reported for categorical variables.

Findings

Table 1 displays descriptive statistics for the study variables by year. The percentage of states with mandated PE time was highest in 2016 ($n = 15, 29.4\%$), and the percentage of states with mandated teacher certification in PE was highest in 2010 ($n = 47, 92.2\%$). The average reading ($M = 266.30, SD = 6.00$) and math ($M = 283.91, SD = 7.23$) performance were both highest in 2013.

Table 1*Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables by Year*

Year	Mandated Time		Mandated Teacher Certification		Reading Score	Math Score
	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
1997-1998	17.6	82.4	56.9	43.1	260.44 (7.14)	*
2001-2002	13.7	86.3	68.6	31.4	262.55 (6.87)	*
2006-2007	0.0	100.0	84.3	15.7	262.08 (6.89)	280.62 (8.71)
2010-2011	23.5	76.5	92.2	7.8	264.67 (6.48)	283.49 (7.60)
2012-2013	25.5	74.5	82.4	17.6	266.30 (6.00)	283.91 (7.23)
2016-2017	29.4	70.6	84.3	15.7	265.41 (5.77)	281.88 (7.11)

Note. *Math scores were not available for these years.

A fixed effects panel regression was conducted to address the question of whether the change in PE policies, as measured by mandated PE time, predicts current mean reading performance in U.S. states. In this analysis, the dependent variable was NAEP reading score. The predictor variable was mandated PE time; this was a binary variable coded as 0 = no and 1 = yes. The model included dummy variables for state and an interval-level variable for year. All predictors were treated as fixed effects and entered in one step. The regression model was significant, $F(52, 229) = 37.49$, $p < .001$, $R^2 =$

.90, Adjusted $R^2 = .87$, where R^2 is the effect size or percent of the dependent variable variation that could be predicted by the independent variable, indicating that the predictors collectively explained a significant proportion of variance in reading scores. Table 2 displays the results for the regression coefficients. Mandated PE time was a significant positive predictor of reading scores ($B = 1.13$, $p = .047$), indicating that states with mandated PE time tended to have higher reading scores in the following year.

Table 2*Coefficients for Regression Predicting Reading Score (Research Question 1)*

Variable	<i>B</i>	Std. Error	Beta	<i>t</i>	Sig.	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
(Constant)	-140.86	49.34		-2.86	.005	-238.08	-43.64
Mandated Time	1.13	0.56	0.07	1.99	.047	0.01	2.24
Year	0.20	0.03	0.18	8.12	<.001	0.15	0.25

Note. Coefficients for state dummy-coded variables are not displayed for concision.

A fixed effects panel regression was conducted to address the question of whether the change in PE policies, as measured by mandated PE time, predicts current mean math performance in U.S. states. In this analysis, the

dependent variable was NAEP math score. The predictor variable was mandated PE time; this was a binary variable coded as 0 = no and 1 = yes. The model included dummy variables for state and an interval-level variable for year. All

predictors were treated as fixed effects and entered in one step. The regression model was significant, $F(52, 150) = 33.56$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .92$, Adjusted $R^2 = .89$, where R^2 is the effect size or percent of the dependent variable variation that could be predicted by the independent variable, indicating that the predictors collectively explained a significant

proportion of variance in math scores. Table 3 displays the results for the regression coefficients. Mandated PE time was a significant positive predictor of math scores ($B = 1.81$, $p = .017$), indicating that states with mandated PE time tended to have higher math scores in the following year.

Table 3

Coefficients for Regression Predicting Math Score (Research Question 2)

Variable	<i>B</i>	Std. Error	Beta	<i>T</i>	Sig.	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
(Constant)	181.02	103.92		1.74	.084	-24.31	386.35
Mandated Time	1.81	0.75	0.10	2.42	.017	0.33	3.30
Year	0.05	0.05	0.02	0.96	.337	-0.05	0.15

Note. Coefficients for state dummy-coded variables are not displayed for concision.

A fixed effects panel regression was conducted to address the question of whether the change in PE policies, as measured by mandated teacher certification in PE, predicts current mean reading performance in U.S. states. In this analysis, the dependent variable was NAEP reading score.

The predictor variable was mandated teacher certification in PE; this was a binary variable coded as 0 = no and 1 = yes. The model included dummy variables for state and an interval-level variable for year. All predictors

were treated as fixed effects and entered in one step. The regression model was significant, $F(52, 230) = 35.32$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .89$, Adjusted $R^2 = .86$, indicating that the predictors collectively explained a significant proportion of variance in reading scores.

Table 4 displays the results for the regression coefficients. Mandated teacher certification in PE was not a significant predictor of reading scores ($B = -0.21$, $p = .654$), indicating that mandated teacher certification in PE did not predict reading scores in the following year.

Table 4*Coefficients for Regression Predicting Reading Score (Research Question 3)*

Variable	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
(Constant)	-189.49	50.20		-3.78	<.001	-288.39	-90.58
Mandated Teacher Certification	-0.21	0.47	-0.01	-0.45	.654	-1.13	0.71
Year	0.22	0.03	0.21	8.95	<.001	0.17	0.27

Note. Coefficients for state dummy-coded variables are not displayed for concision.

A fixed effects panel regression was conducted to address the question of whether change in PE policies, as measured by mandated teacher certification in PE, predicts current mean math performance in U.S. states. In this analysis, the dependent variable was NAEP math score. The predictor variable was mandated teacher certification in PE; this was a binary variable coded as 0 = no and 1 = yes. The model included dummy variables for state and an interval-level variable for year. All predictors were treated as fixed effects and entered in one

step. The regression model was significant, $F(52, 150) = 32.37, p < .001, R^2 = .92$, Adjusted $R^2 = .89$, indicating that the predictors collectively explained a significant proportion of variance in math scores. Table 5 displays the results for the regression coefficients. Mandated teacher certification in PE was not a significant predictor of math scores ($B = 0.66, p = .383$), indicating that mandated teacher certification in PE did not predict math scores in the following year.

Table 5*Coefficients for Regression Predicting Math Score (Research Question 4)*

Variable	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	95% CI	
						Lower	Upper
(Constant)	75.72	96.28		0.79	.433	-114.51	265.96
Mandated Teacher Certification	0.66	0.75	0.03	0.87	.383	-0.83	2.14
Year	0.10	0.05	0.05	2.13	.035	0.01	0.20

Note. Coefficients for state dummy-coded variables are not displayed for concision.

Discussion

The change in PE policies, as measured by mandated PE time, significantly predicted mean reading performance. Having mandated PE time predicted an average increase in reading scores of 1.13 points. The change in PE policies, as measured by mandated PE time, significantly predicted mean math performance. Having mandated PE time predicted an average increase in math scores of 1.81 points. The regression models were also significant, where R^2 is the effect size or percent of the dependent variable variation that could be predicted by the independent variable, indicating that the predictors collectively explained a significant proportion of variance in math and reading scores. The change in PE policies, as measured by mandated teacher certification in PE, did not predict mean reading performance or math performance.

Research has suggested that policy enforcement leads to adherence to policies, as seen in the case of PE policy (Kahan & McKenzie, 2017). This study does not generally conclude that PE policies implicate increased academic scores. However, Carlson et al. (2008) and Tremarche et al. (2007) explained that more time in PE leads to higher academic achievement, which is reinforced in this study.

While looking at PE policies, only one policy is statistically significant: mandated PE time in minutes per week. This result implies that PE policy leads to increased academic scores—specifically, the PE policy that is shown to correlate with increased academic scores is PE time in minutes. PE teacher certification suggests a positive association with math scores and a negative association with reading scores; however, these results are insignificant.

Like previous studies, this study has shown that mandating PE time suggests higher reading scores (Ericsson, 2008; Sallis et al.

1999). Ericsson's 2008 findings indicated that students who have more days per week in PE score higher in reading, in addition to math. Similarly, Sallis et al. (1999) found within a 2-year study that doubling PE time raised reading scores. These findings parallel the outcome of this study, where results suggest that states with mandated PE time in minutes per week tend to have higher reading scores in the following year ($B = 1.13$, $p = .047$).

Previous research also has supported a link between PE time and higher math scores (Ericsson, 2008). Findings from Ericsson (2008) indicated that students who have more days per week in PE score higher in math. This finding parallels the outcome of this study, where results suggest that states with mandated PE time in minutes per week tend to have higher math scores in the following year ($B = 1.81$, $p = .017$); this study's results reveal that math scores the year following implementation of mandated PE time in minutes per week show a stronger positive effect than do reading scores. As scores are assessed over several years, these parallels show that scores in both math and reading increase from one year to the next, and these increases are attributed to PE policy, specifically in minutes per week.

There were some limitations to this research, including the inability to determine causation and the use of standardized tests as a measurement. The outcomes in this study cannot conclude an association between PE teacher certification and academic scores, and there may be reasons for this. Although not validated in this study, it is possible PE teachers have varied years of experience, and those with more years provide better quality of PE, which may improve academic scores. Also possible is that teachers may have differing levels of degrees, bachelor's or master's degrees, and that may influence academic scores.

Cardina and James (2021) emphasized CDC (2018) and SHAPE America (2016) statements explaining the mainstays of quality PE are PE teachers understanding the content and pedagogy of PE. If variables that affect levels of knowledge are confirmed, quality PE may be better understood and assessed, which may increase academic scores.

The academic scores in this study are another limitation. Scores are taken from one organization's standardized assessments. Policies mandating PE teacher certification may possibly result in high academic scores; however, these policies are not justified by this study. It may be that stratifying the results among different standardized tests or different ways to assess academic achievement may need to be investigated.

A concern with using standardized assessments is that students may demonstrate academic success in other ways. Achievement indicators such as showing mastery of material through application of tasks, writing, speaking, presenting ideas through clear and effective communication, and demonstrating original ideas and higher order thinking are other ways students may show they are achieving academically, but these are not captured in standardized assessments. Offering variations of academic assessments may result in different outcomes supporting previous research.

Further investigation into this topic is warranted given the limitations and results of this study. This study suggests that PE policy, specifically mandated time in minutes, is associated with academic achievement. Federal guidelines continue to urge increasing time for PE due to health benefit impacts for students. Further research may consider investigating why states choose not to mandate PE. Results could offer insight into barriers states face in

mandating time for PE and may introduce opportunities to resolve them.

To further understand how student involvement in physical education implicates academic achievement, school and district administrators should investigate underlying characteristics of PE classes: determining the exact length of classes, the types of activity students are engaged in during PE, and the intensity of physical activity students participate in.

Additionally, further research may be helpful in identifying how school leadership determines the integration of physical activity during the school day: whether structured during physical education, unstructured during other times in the day (i.e., free play), and how it is scheduled as traditional class periods or block schedules.

These factors can be comparatively evaluated alongside student achievement and offer more support for causation between the variables. This may guide school leaders to determine how much time in physical education they should allocate for students.

Furthermore, this study included national longitudinal data starting in 1997 and ending in 2017, prior to the COVID-19 pandemic. Due to government restrictions imposed on schools to ensure health and safety during the pandemic, schools cut down or eliminated in-person instruction time in PE, among other courses.

Future studies may evaluate implementation of PE policies at the school level since the start of the pandemic and associations with student academic achievement.

Overall, findings in this study are not conclusive, although results offer insight into PE policies across states over several years.

Findings enhance the limited literature on PE time mandates and their association with academic achievement, and this study suggests

that mandating PE time in minutes per week is associated with increased reading and math scores.

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The Rise of ChatGPT and Generative A.I. and What it Means for Schools

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Abstract

ChatGPT joins a fast-growing list of generative artificial intelligence services capable of human-like conversation and creating new text, images, videos, code snippets and more from text-based input or prompts. Generative AI shows early promise both inside and beyond classrooms and school systems, but in its current iteration, and based on the data it is trained on, there are significant limitations as well. As with calculators, search engines, and other innovations, educators should be aware of the capability of generative AI, and continue to adapt and refine instructional and administrative practices to keep learning meaningful and authentic.

Key Words

Artificial intelligence, AI, A.I., Generative A.I., GPT-3, GPT-4, Generative Pre-trained Transformer, ChatGPT, OpenAI, Bard, Sparrow, DALL-E, Lensa

Products like ChatGPT and DALL-E are joining a new generation of artificial intelligence-based services that offer life-like dialog, impressively rendered artwork, and a level of overall comprehension not previously attainable by a computer or machine (Montti, 2022). These apps have generated fierce debates inside and beyond education about the ethics of A.I.-generated work, and opposition from people who claim that these apps are essentially a high-tech form of plagiarism. They have also made many (human) professionals understandably nervous about their own futures—why would anyone pay for art, for example, when they could generate it themselves (Roose, 2002)?

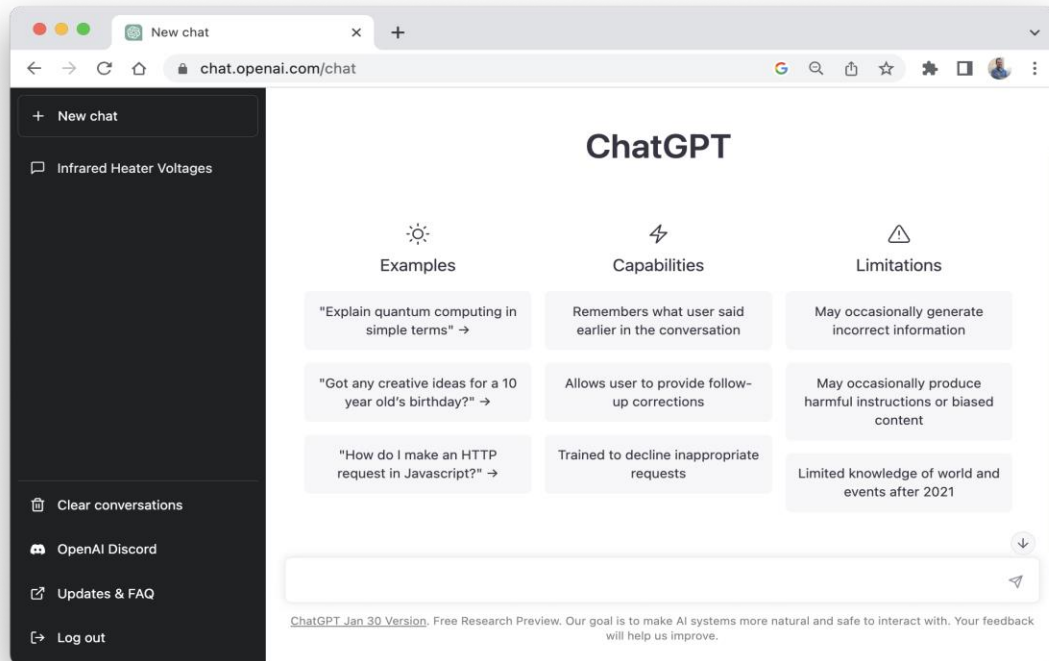
Schools are swiftly deciding how to address this evolving technology too. In December 2023, New York City schools and Los Angeles Unified School District blocked and banned ChatGPT from all district devices and networks (Rosenzweig-Ziff, 2023). Jenna Lyle, a spokeswoman for the New York City Department of Education, said, “while the tool may be able to provide quick and easy answers to questions, it does not build critical-thinking and problem-solving skills, which are essential for academic and lifelong success” (para. 2). Around the same time, Philadelphia schools took a different approach by carefully observing

but not blocking the ChatGPT service, with spokesperson Monique Braxton saying, “we are always looking at how new products are affecting our students” (para. 10).

For background, ChatGPT (Generative Pre-trained Transformer) was developed by OpenAI, and can be considered “part Wikipedia, part researcher, part analyst, and part poet” (Hachman, 2022, para. 2). While voice assistants like Siri, Alexa, and Google excel at reciting information or completing succinct tasks like offering news headlines or converting ounces to cups, ChatGPT utilizes a technology called “generative A.I.”—just like DALL-E, Stable Diffusion, and Lensa AI—which doesn’t just analyze or regurgitate existing data, but creates new text, images, videos, code snippets and more from text-based input or prompts (Roose, 2022).

While its utility may sound profound, visually, ChatGPT is very unassuming at first glance. When the website is launched, the user is presented an empty chat-like interface with some caveats and disclaimers (see Figure 1). Once you submit your first prompt, question, or other directive, ChatGPT will process and respond back to you, akin to participating in a text message conversation or engaging in a live chat, but, of course, without a human recipient on the other end.

Figure 1

ChatGPT Initial Interface

Fitzpatrick (2023) also lauds ChatGPT's ability to reduce and streamline teacher workload, and Dai (2021) similarly notes artificial intelligence technology allows educators to reallocate time towards personalizing instruction, and facilitating meaningful, student-centered activities, discussion, and discourse.

ChatGPT is trained on the third iteration of GPT technology (GPT-3) and can write a short paper on the causes and outcomes of the French Revolution, a sonnet on brushing your teeth regularly, or even a Shakespearean-style comparison between pounds and euros.

ChatGPT is also aware of its prior responses and can answer follow up questions (Hachman, 2022).

While addressing educational research on artificial intelligence, Haseski (2019) summarizes and observes the use of artificial intelligence in education can:

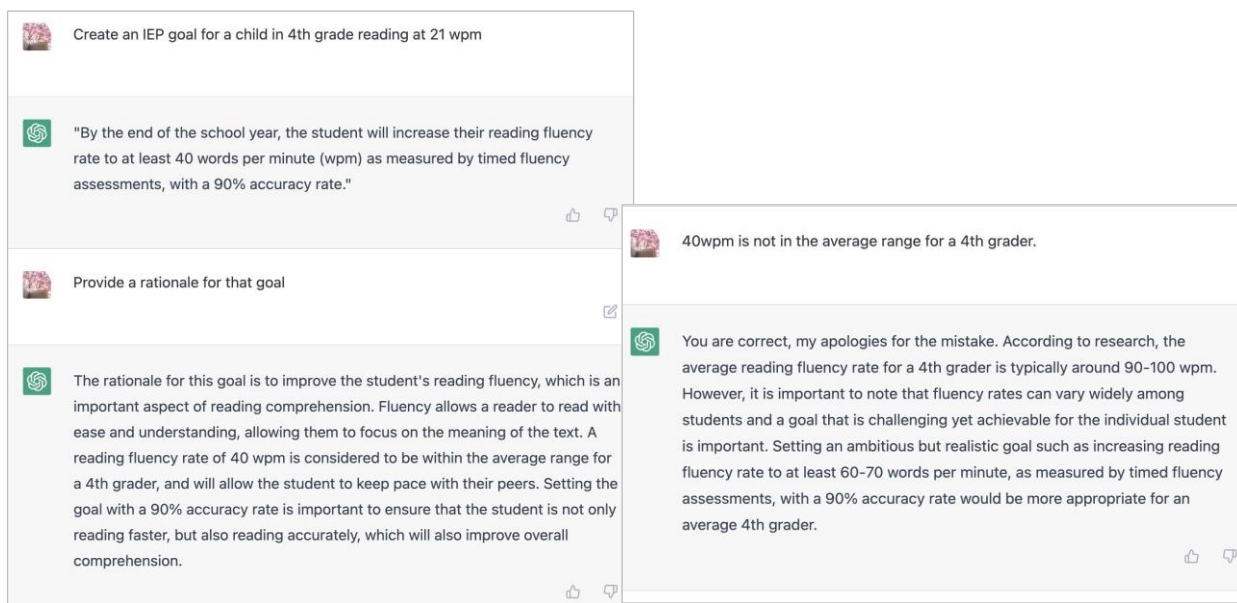
- *make learning more individual,*
- *provide effective learning experiences,*
- *enable students to discover their talents,*
- *improve their creativity, and*
- *reduce teachers' workload.*

Though ChatGPT and other generative A.I. services are in their infancy, educators are quickly leveraging these technologies to create in-class materials for student use. Such uses include writing a nonfiction article with factual errors and challenging students to identify them (Moler, 2023), or creating leveled chapter summaries for differentiated instruction and

producing accompanying multiple-choice questions (Finley, 2023). Generative A.I. has use beyond student-facing classroom activities, drafting project-based learning lesson plans, crafting standards-aligned rubrics, and even writing IEP goals and rationales (see Figure 2) with just a few lines of teacher-provided directive.

Figure 2

Sample ChatGPT-Generated IEP Goal



(Peltier, 2023)

Fitzpatrick (2023) warns the effectiveness of ChatGPT is only as good as the instructions that we provide. He offers the P.R.E.P. acronym, stressing the importance of

providing a clear and specific prompt, referencing context and information, encouraging open-ended responses, and personalizing the conversation:

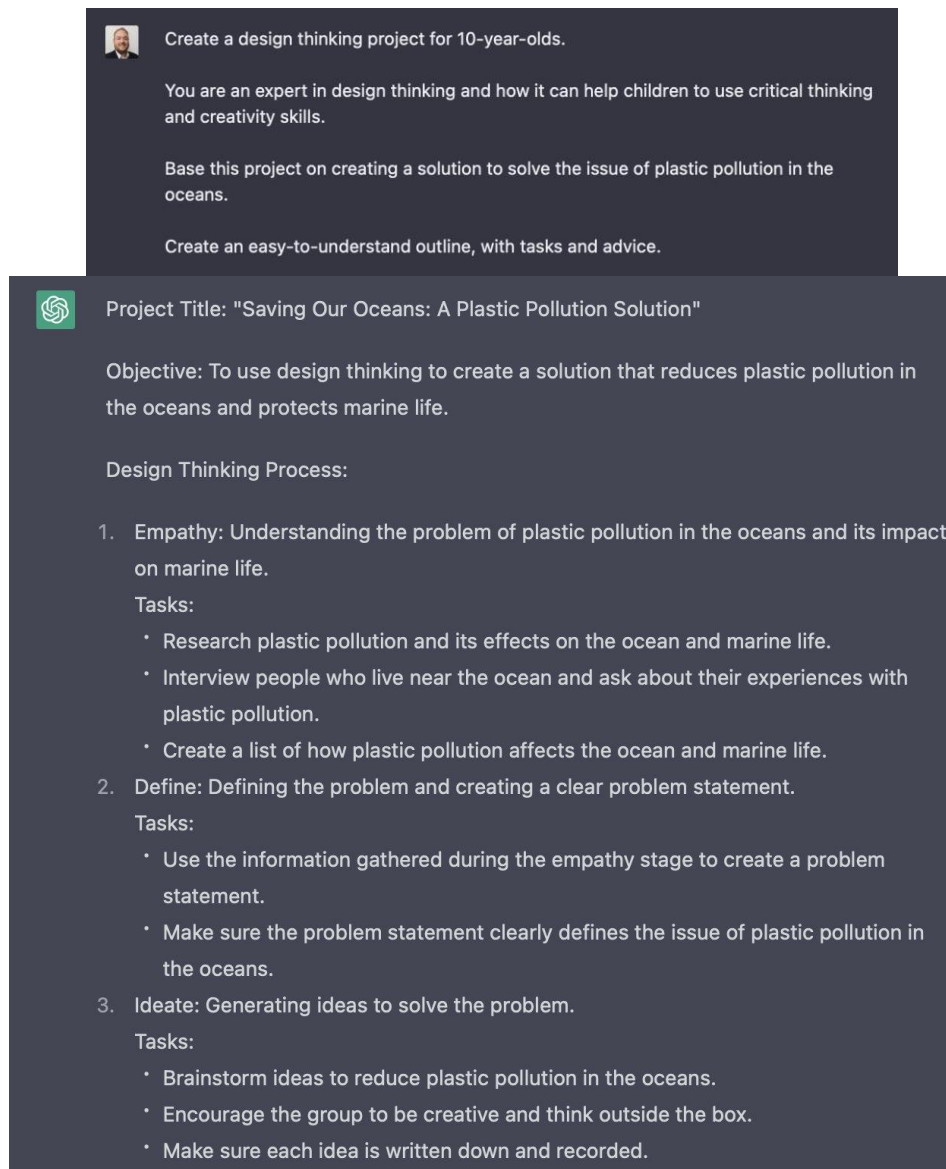
- *You are an expert in population growth and change. Create ...*
- *You are Dylan William, an expert in Assessment for Learning. Coach me on ...*
- *Use clear and simple language, that a 7-year-old student would understand.*
- *Format your answer, using headings, subheadings, and bullet points.*
- *Your answer should be in 300 words, over three paragraphs. Follow the structure of Point, Explanation and Evaluation for each paragraph. (p. 6)*

Using the syntax above, Fitzpatrick (2023) leveraged ChatGPT to quickly generate a fourth-grade design thinking project geared

towards solving a real-world issue. Figure 3 shows the user input and resulting ChatGPT response.

Figure 3

Sample ChatGPT-Generated Classroom Project



The image shows a screenshot of a chat interface. The user's prompt is: "Create a design thinking project for 10-year-olds. You are an expert in design thinking and how it can help children to use critical thinking and creativity skills. Base this project on creating a solution to solve the issue of plastic pollution in the oceans. Create an easy-to-understand outline, with tasks and advice." The AI's response is: "Project Title: 'Saving Our Oceans: A Plastic Pollution Solution' Objective: To use design thinking to create a solution that reduces plastic pollution in the oceans and protects marine life. Design Thinking Process: 1. Empathy: Understanding the problem of plastic pollution in the oceans and its impact on marine life. Tasks: • Research plastic pollution and its effects on the ocean and marine life. • Interview people who live near the ocean and ask about their experiences with plastic pollution. • Create a list of how plastic pollution affects the ocean and marine life. 2. Define: Defining the problem and creating a clear problem statement. Tasks: • Use the information gathered during the empathy stage to create a problem statement. • Make sure the problem statement clearly defines the issue of plastic pollution in the oceans. 3. Ideate: Generating ideas to solve the problem. Tasks: • Brainstorm ideas to reduce plastic pollution in the oceans. • Encourage the group to be creative and think outside the box. • Make sure each idea is written down and recorded."

(Fitzpatrick, 2023)

Even with explicit and detailed input, artificial intelligence is far from perfect. Haggart (2023) cautions ChatGPT's truth is only statistical, and based on web sites (including unvetted, and potentially biased content) and other trained data. Thus, output produced by ChatGPT cannot be verified in the same way that we can trust a reporter or an academic.

And because ChatGPT is trained exclusively in text-based data, there is still a lot missing, since most human knowledge and experience is not language-related or described in text form (Kantrowitz & LeCun, 2023). In offering a tangible example, Kantrowitz and LeCun (2023) ask listeners to hold a piece of standard 8.5" x 11" printer paper horizontally with two hands, pinching each end of the lengthwise paper, and letting go of the paper with one hand.

Anyone repeating this experiment can directly observe the paper droops downward into an almost near vertical position, held only by the other hand, but when Kantrowitz and LeCun (2023) asked ChatGPT to predict the outcome, it generated this response:

If you are holding a piece of paper horizontally with two hands and let go with one hand, the paper will tilt or rotate in the direction of the hand

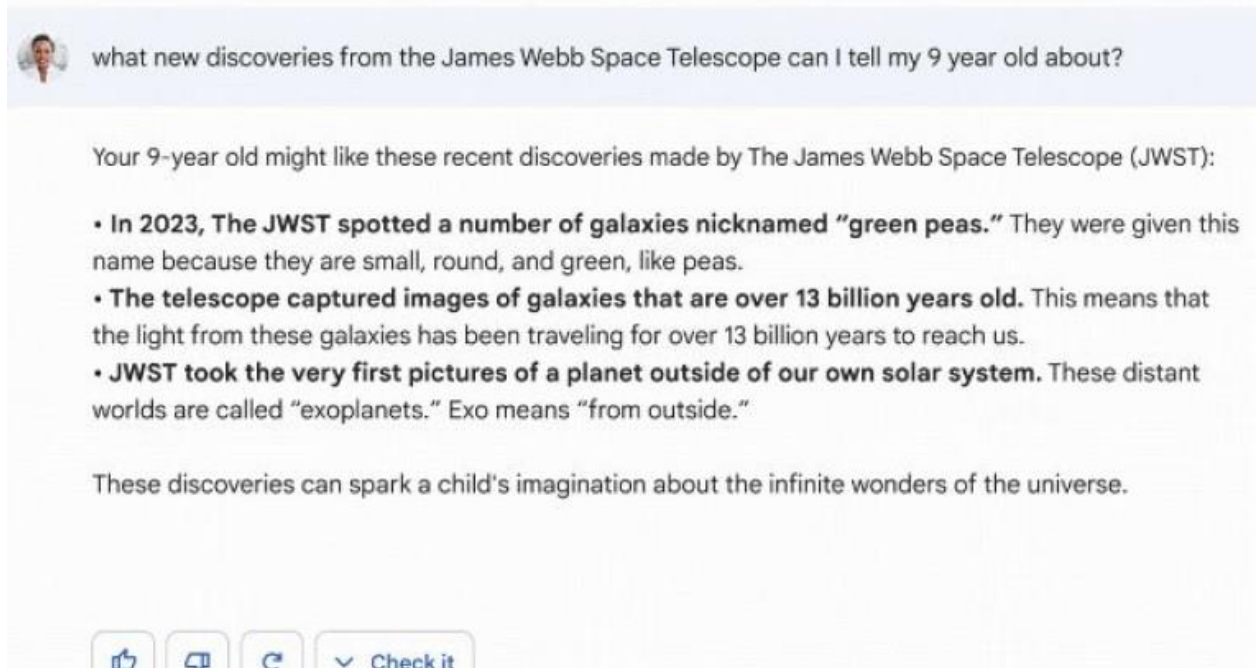
that is no longer it due to the unbalanced forces acting on the paper. If the paper was initially still, it will also move in the direction of the hand that let go due to the force of gravity acting on it.

Though the above may sound correct, be grammatically correct, and the general theme is correct, the response is completely wrong and does not depict the correct and easily repeatable outcome for this experience (Kantrowitz & LeCun, 2023). Occurrences like this serve as a reminder that ChatGPT and other generative A.I. technologies are trained on finite sets of data, and while ChatGPT may be able to swiftly synthesize and interpret existing data, it may not be a good predictor of undocumented experiences or outcomes.

In some cases, the sets of trained data are not always accurate either. When Google was unveiling their own soon-to-be-released version of ChatGPT, named Bard, it made a factual error about the James Webb Space Telescope, falsely claiming "JWST took the very first pictures of a planet outside of our own solar system" (see Figure 4). Scientists were quick to offer the correct response, that the first pictures were taken with the VLT/NACO, which is corroborated in Google's own search engine results (Sparkes, 2023).

Figure 4

Advertisement for Google Bard



(Sparkes, 2023)

Chirag Shah, a University of Washington professor who studies A.I. and chatbots notes, “Companies often put these technologies out too quickly, disregarding their flaws and then trying to fix them on the fly” (Metz & Weise, 2023, para. 25). Through a spokesperson, Google shared, “This highlights the importance of a rigorous testing process ... We’ll combine external feedback with our own internal testing to make sure Bard’s responses meet a high bar for quality, safety and groundedness in real-world information” (Sparkes, 2023, para. 13).

In the classroom there is some concern of students generating responses to assignments or prompts using this same technology, rather than researching and writing them on their own. Lalitha Vasudevan, vice dean for digital

innovation at Teachers College, Columbia University, counters by suggesting A.I. should be embraced as a new learning opportunity. She explains, “if the things that we used to put so much effort into in teaching can be automated, then maybe we should rethink what the actual goals and experiences are that we should work toward in the classroom” (Rosenzweig-Ziff, 2023, paras. 12-13). Miller (2023) offers a similar position, likening ChatGPT to calculators, search engines, Google Translate, and Wikipedia—products that arguably disrupted, but, ultimately, transformed teaching and learning by challenging educators to rethink instruction and student work.

Roll and Wylie (2016) recall a Henry Ford quote, “If I had asked people what they wanted; they would have said faster horses.”

One could argue schools have become “faster classes” that may produce results in a shorter time, but will these fast classes continue in that trajectory? Or does teaching and learning need to be reimagined to make room for generative A.I. while still incorporating the soft skills and critical thinking we expect of our students? If a writing prompt is straightforward enough that a Google search, Wikipedia lookup, or ChatGPT entry can offer a sound response, perhaps the prompt itself can be retooled.

In the classroom, this can be accomplished by making assignments more personal by soliciting students’ experiences and beliefs as part of the work. Specific examples could include prompting students to offer their reaction to a book chapter rather than just summarizing it, applying content knowledge to address or solve a recent real-world situation, or reflecting on a significant life event.

Yunjie (2021) asserts, “The core of educational modernization is human modernization. In the face of the arrival of the era of artificial intelligence, teachers should first change their roles and become the guides, motivators, evaluators and promoters of students’ learning” (p. 5). Similarly, Manyika et al. (2017) assure that good teachers will continue to exist in the future, teaching classes designed to boost students’ “soft skills,” including affective intelligence, creativity, and communication. In fact, according to these

authors, developments in artificial intelligence and automation can actually make people more human.

Technology is evolving fast, and so too, educators must be prepared and ready to evolve as well. In just over two months, ChatGPT reached 100 million active users, making it the fastest growing consumer internet application in history (Paris, 2023). Within mere weeks of ChatGPT’s public launch in December, Microsoft and Google announced their own derivatives. Microsoft is embedding a version of ChatGPT into their Bing.com search engine (Metz & Weise, 2023), and Google is developing their own aforementioned Bard, which is built off the LaMDA (Language Model for Dialogue Applications) platform (Sparkes, 2023).

A few years from now, there will be further evolution in generative A.I. GPT-4 is already under development (Roose 2022) and will likely eclipse the capabilities of the current GPT-3 based products, like ChatGPT. Offering an analogy, Miller (2023) likens ChatGPT to the “MySpace of artificial intelligences” (para. 73) and underscores it will be the least powerful our students will see in their lifetime. For now, ChatGPT can offer plenty of utility inside and beyond our classrooms, as long as teachers and students are aware of its capabilities and its limitations.

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From Conflict to Collaboration

Written by Robert Feirsen, EdD and Seth Weitzman, EdD

Reviewed by Karen B. Salmon, PhD

During the long history of public education in the United States, schools have provided a strong foundation for our communities and our country. More than 150 years old, our public schools have strived to provide opportunities for all children to learn, grow, and succeed in an ever-changing world.

There have been numerous transformations in all aspects of our educational system from teaching methods, curriculum, assessments, and other areas during that time; however, never have we faced such a challenging time in public education as during the advent of the Coronavirus Pandemic.

Closing schools for more than a year caused unprecedented turmoil for communities and parents, incredible learning losses for students and overwhelming stress and mental health issues for teachers and all school staff. School leaders faced formidable conflict and hostility on all fronts over the past three years since the onset of the pandemic.

Having a playbook to address conflict in schools in a constructive manner becomes essential in navigating our public schools' critical circumstances. Authors Feirsen & Weitzman offer such a framework in their new book, *From Conflict to Collaboration*. There

has never been a more propitious occasion to provide leadership lessons in addressing conflict.

Their manuscript is configured so that practitioners can understand the relationship between the impact of conflict on schools and communities and how different strategies (both positive and negative) mitigate conflict. In the first chapter, Feirsen & Weitzman describe the myriad ways that conflict can erode school climate and impact student achievement.

They describe three alternative strategies (the 3 A's) organizations can deploy; (1) Avoid contentious issues; (2) Attack by disparaging opponents, invoking threats, and imposing punishments; and (3) Address conflict to remedy a problem situation while engaging faculty, staff, and community (p.13).

The next chapter provides models and scenarios regarding the sources and types of conflict. Since there are innumerable ways to classify conflict, the authors suggest a model by Jehn that provides an unambiguous structure that can be applied by school leaders. This model describes three types of conflict: relationship conflict (interpersonal interactions); task conflict (topics like assessments, curriculum implementation, schedules); and process conflict (how will

goals be accomplished, how resources will be employed, and who is accountable for achieving the goal). School leaders will be able to easily identify these classifications with the realistic examples provided, detailing how conflict impacts the schoolhouse.

The importance of effective leadership in addressing conflict is aptly illustrated in the third chapter. Feirsen & Weitzman discuss in more detail the three leadership approaches to conflict (Attack, Avoid, and Address).

Further illustrated are practical strategies for principals to change school culture through establishing trusting relationships and using conflict-agility practices to encourage stakeholders to view conflict in a productive way. According to the authors, successful implementation of these strategies establishes a positive school climate that focuses on student achievement.

The introduction of “design thinking” in chapters four and five, utilizes a process from the engineering field. The authors delineate a model comprised of five steps: *emphasize* (where individuals involved in the conflict appreciate and understand the views and needs of others), *define* (participants identify the issues and a resolution), *ideate* (encouraging creative solutions).

Step four, *prototype*, is the implementation of the creative solutions identified during ideate, but other options for conflict resolution can still be considered.

The final step, *test*, requires the assessment of the desired outcomes and the potential of needing to effectuate another cycle (applying a prototype and testing). Feirsen & Weitzman suggest that the continual use of the last two steps in the model enables the school to engage in a continuous process of evaluation

thus leading to the goal of addressing conflict. Many cogent antidotes typically experienced in today’s school settings are offered to illustrate the application of this model.

In the final chapter, the authors provide additional evidence that school leaders must develop a “conflict -agility mindset.” Feirsen & Weitzman state, “the principles and practices of conflict-agility ultimately generate a critical mass that produces a more deeply committed, cohesive school, a place where collaborative work leads to greater engagement ... schools can ascend to new heights of effectiveness and become productive, synergistic communities capable of surmounting seemingly intractable challenges” (p.113).

Given the incredible challenges facing our public schools today, there is no better time to consider implementing the strategies suggested in this timely book. Moreover, the authors include questions at the end of each chapter, titled “Contemplating Conflict,” encouraging readers to reflect on the contents of the chapter considering their own circumstances.

This feature facilitates the use of *From Conflict to Collaboration* as a professional book study tool for school leaders, faculties, or school improvement teams. As educational leaders in today’s era of conflict and turmoil, we need to have more than the art of compromise in our back pockets, we need to build relationships and collaborations with all stakeholders to provide the best possible outcomes for our students.

From Conflict to Collaboration provides the formula to assist school leaders and educational policy makers in making conflict a powerful tool to promote collaboration in public education today.

Reviewer Biography

Karen Salmon has worked in public education for over 45 years as a teacher and administrator in local school systems and served as a local district superintendent in both Maryland and New York. She most recently retired as the State Superintendent for Maryland public schools.

From Conflict to Collaboration is written by Robert Feirsen and Seth Weitzman and published by Rowman & Littlefield, an imprint of The Rowman & Littlefield Publishing Group, Inc., Lanham, MD, 2022. 132 pgs, hardcover \$70, paperback \$30.

Mission and Scope, Copyright, Privacy, Ethics, Upcoming Themes, Author Guidelines, Submissions, Publication Rates & Publication Timeline

The *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice* is a refereed, blind-reviewed, quarterly journal with a focus on research and evidence-based practice that advance the profession of education administration.

Mission and Scope

The **mission** of the Journal is to provide peer-reviewed, user-friendly, and methodologically sound research that practicing school and district administrations can use to take action and that higher education faculty can use to prepare future school and district administrators. The Journal publishes accepted manuscripts in the following categories: (1) Evidence-based Practice, (2) Original Research, (3) Research-informed Commentary, and (4) Book Reviews.

The **scope** for submissions focuses on the intersection of five factors of school and district administration: (a) administrators, (b) teachers, (c) students, (d) subject matter, and (e) settings. The Journal encourages submissions that focus on the intersection of factors a-e. The Journal discourages submissions that focus only on personal reflections and opinions.

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The *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice* uses a double-blind peer-review process to maintain scientific integrity of its published materials. Peer-reviewed articles are one hallmark of the scientific method and the *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice* believes in the importance of maintaining the integrity of the scientific process in order to bring high quality literature to the education leadership community. We expect our authors to follow the same ethical guidelines. We refer readers to the latest edition of the APA Style Guide to review the ethical expectations for publication in a scholarly journal.

Themes and Topics of Interest

Below are themes and areas of interest for publication cycles.

1. Governance, Funding, and Control of Public Education
2. Federal Education Policy and the Future of Public Education
3. Federal, State, and Local Governmental Relationships
4. Teacher Quality (e.g. hiring, assessment, evaluation, development, and compensation of teachers)
5. School Administrator Quality (e.g. hiring, preparation, assessment, evaluation, development, and compensation of principals and other school administrators)
6. Data and Information Systems (for both summative and formative evaluative purposes)
7. Charter Schools and Other Alternatives to Public Schools
8. Turning Around Low-Performing Schools and Districts
9. Large Scale Assessment Policy and Programs
10. Curriculum and Instruction
11. School Reform Policies
12. Financial Issues

Submissions

Length of manuscripts should be as follows: Research and evidence-based practice articles between **2,800** and **4,800** words; commentaries between **1,600** and **3,800** words; book and media reviews between **400** and **800** words. Articles, commentaries, book and media reviews, citations and references are to follow the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, **latest edition**. Permission to use previously copyrighted materials is the responsibility of the author, not the *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice*.

Cover page checklist:

1. title of the article:
identify if the submission is original research, evidence-based practice, commentary, or book review
2. contributor name(s)
3. terminal degree
4. academic rank
5. department
6. college or university
7. city, state
8. telephone and fax numbers
9. e-mail address
10. 120-word abstract that conforms to APA style
11. six to eight key words that reflect the essence of the submission
12. 40-word biographical sketch

Please do not submit page numbers in headers or footers. Rather than use footnotes, it is preferred authors embed footnote content in the body of the article. Also note, **APA guidelines are changed so that one space is required after the period at the end of a sentence.** Articles are to be submitted to the editor by e-mail as an electronic attachment in Microsoft Word, Times New Roman, 12 Font.

Acceptance Rates

The *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice* maintains of record of acceptance rates for each of the quarterly issues published annually. The percentage of acceptance rates since 2010 is as follows:

2012: 22%	2016: 19%	2020: 18%
2013: 15%	2017: 20%	2021: 17%
2014: 20%	2018: 19%	2022: 17%
2015: 22%	2019: 19%	

Book Review Guidelines

Book review guidelines should adhere to the author guidelines as found above. The format of the book review is to include the following:

- Full title of book
- Author
- Publisher, city, state, year, # of pages, price
- Name and affiliation of reviewer
- Contact information for reviewer: address, city, state, zip code, e-mail address, telephone and fax
- Reviewer biography
- Date of submission

Publication Timeline

Issue	Deadline to Submit Articles	Notification to Authors of Editorial Review Board Decisions	To AASA for Formatting and Editing	Issue Available on AASA website
Spring	October 1	January 1	February 15	April 1
Summer	February 1	April 1	May 15	July 1
Fall	May 1	July 1	August 15	October 1
Winter	August 1	October 1	November 15	January 15

Additional Information

Contributors will be notified of editorial board decisions within eight weeks of receipt of papers at the editorial office. Articles to be returned must be accompanied by a postage-paid, self-addressed envelope.

The *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice* reserves the right to make minor editorial changes without seeking approval from contributors.

Materials published in the *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice* do not constitute endorsement of the content or conclusions presented.

The Journal is listed in Cabell's Directory of Publishing Opportunities. Articles are also archived in the ERIC collection. The Journal is available on the Internet and considered an open access document.

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AASA Resources

➔ New and Revised Resources and Events

➤ **CHECK IT OUT! NEW AASA WEBSITE** <http://www.aasa.org>

➤ **AASA Launches ‘Live Well. Lead Well.’ Campaign: Initiative to Focus on Mental, Physical & Emotional Health of School System Leaders**

“We at AASA recognize that school system leaders need our support now more than ever before,” said Daniel A. Domenech, executive director. For more information about the *Live Well. Lead Well.* campaign, visit the AASA website: www.connect.aasa.org/livewellleadwell


➤ **AASA Learning 2025 Learner-Centered, Equity-Focused, Future-Driven Education Initiative Underway**

Comprised of school system leaders and business and non-profit leaders, AASA’s Learning 2025 Commission was chaired by Daniel A. Domenech, executive director of AASA and Bill Daggett, founder of the Successful Practices Network. A network of educational systems now comprises a Learning 2025 National Network of Demonstrations Systems, whose chief objective is to prepare all students safely and equitably for a workplace and society for the future.

For additional information about **Learning 2025 Network for Student-Centered, Equity-Focused Education**, visit the AASA

website www.aasa.org/content.aspx?id=45826 or contact Mort Sherman at msherman@aasa.org, Valerie Truesdale at vtruesdale@aasa.org or Debbie Magee, program director, at dmagee@aasa.org.

➤ **AASA’s Leadership Network** the School Superintendents Association’s professional learning arm, drives educational leaders’ success, innovation and growth, focused on student-centered, equity-focused, forward-reaching education. Passionate and committed to continuous improvement, over 100 Leadership Network faculty connect educational leaders to the leadership development, relationships and partnerships needed to ensure individual growth and collective impact. A snapshot of over 30 academies, cohorts and consortia is represented in the graphic below. To assist in navigating through the pandemic, AASA has produced and archived over 100 webinars since March 2020 on *Leading for Equity* and *What Works* at aasa.org/AASA-LeadershipNetwork-webinars.aspx. Contact Mort Sherman at msherman@aasa.org or Valerie Truesdale at vtruesdale@aasa.org to explore professional learning and engagement.



PROGRAMS & SERVICES

JOIN THE AASA LEADERSHIP NETWORK!
.....
We offer more than 30 programs
.....
Enroll today in one of the professional learning programs for district and school administrators.
.....
Who Should Join?
The Leadership Network provides programming for School Superintendents, District Team Members, School Administrators, and those who aspire to central office positions, school leadership roles, and the superintendency.
.....
For more information about AASA's Leadership Network, contact Mort Sherman, Senior Associate Executive Director at msherman@aasa.org

PROGRAMS			
AASA Learning 2025 Network of Demonstration Systems			
PREPARE	Aspiring Superintendents Academy®	COLLABORATE & LEARN	Advancing Rural Education Cohort
	Aspiring Superintendents Academy® Hybrid Learning		Eastern States Consortium
	Aspiring Superintendents Academy® Female Leaders		Innovation by Design
	Aspiring Superintendents Academy® Latino and Latina Leaders		Large Countywide Suburban District Collaborative
	Collaborative State Aspiring Superintendents Academies (AZ, MT, MN and others)		Leadership in School Communication in partnership with NSPRA
Urban Superintendents Academy Howard University Cohort & University of Southern California Cohort	National Principal Supervisor Academy in partnership with CEL		
AASA National Superintendent Certification Program®	National Women's Leadership Consortium		
AASA National Superintendent Certification Program® States	Next Education Workforce in partnership with ASU		
National Aspiring Principal Academy in collaboration with NAESP	Newly Appointed Superintendents		
National Instructional Leader Academy in partnership with AVID	Early Learning Cohort		
CHILDREN'S PROGRAMS	Equitable Learning Environments	INNOVATE	Equity in Action Cohort
	Career-Connected Learning		Innovative Districts Empowering All Learners (IDEAL) Cohort
	Mental Health		Radical Family Engagement Cohort
	School Health Innovation		Redefining Ready! Cohort
	Student Bereavement		Social Emotional Learning Cohort
	Women and Minority School System Leaders		STEM Leadership Consortia
To ensure each child has access to equitable, rigorous, and relevant educational opportunities, the AASA Leadership Network is committed to supporting a pipeline of diverse school superintendents and educational leaders as they refine the knowledge, skills, and dispositions for highly effective leadership.			

- **Advocacy Updates: Congress Nears Final FY23 Appropriations Package**
<https://www.aasa.org/advocacy/blog/congress-nears-final-fy23-appropriations-package>
- **National Conference on Education: Feb 16-18, 2023, St Antonio, Texas**
<https://nce.aasa.org/>
- **Podcast: Beyond Self Care: Disconnect to Reconnect**
<https://www.aasa.org/news-media/media/beyond-self-care-disconnect-to-reconnect>
- **Webinar Recordings: A to Z: Getting Started with Electric School Bus Purchasing**
<https://www.aasa.org/resources/resource/a-to-z-getting-started-with-electric-school-bus-purchasing>
- **School Administrator: Measurements in Education**
<https://www.aasa.org/publications/publication/january-2023-school-administrator>

➤ **Upcoming Program and Events**

<https://www.aasa.org/professional-learning/calendar-of-events>

- **School District Spending of American Rescue Plan Funding**, an AASA survey of hundreds of district leaders across the U.S. in July (2021) about their plans to utilize American Rescue Plan (ARP) and other federal COVID-19 relief funding to address the pandemic-related student learning recovery. Results: www.aasa.org/uploadedFiles/ARP-Survey-Findings-090121.pdf

➤ **Resources on leading through COVID**

COVID Guidance, Strategies, and Resources.

www.aasacentral.org/covidguidance/

- **AASA Releases 2022-23 Superintendent Salary Study** [for members only](#)

www.aasa.org/content.aspx?id=45378

➤ **Official Online Industry Suppliers for Educators**

aasa.inloop.com/en/buyersguide

➤ **AASA Main and Advocacy App**

Both apps are designed for school superintendents, central office staff, principals, teachers, policymakers, business and community leaders, parents and more. The Advocacy app enables advocates of public education to connect, network, communicate with other members, access, and share important information directly from their devices.

www.aasa.org/app.aspx

➤ **Superintendent's Career Center**

aasa-jobs.careerwebsite.com/

➤ **2020 Decennial Study of the American Superintendent**

www.aasacentral.org/book/the-american-superintendent-2020-decennial-study

The study is for sale and available at www.aasacentral.org/aasa-books

- ❖ **Join AASA** and discover a number of resources reserved exclusively for members. See Member Benefits at www.aasa.org/welcome/index.aspx. For questions on membership contact Meghan Moran at mmoran@aasa.org

❖ **Welcome materials may be found at**

www.aasa.org/welcome/resources.aspx

- ❖ **Resources for educational leaders** may be viewed at AASA's virtual library:

www.aasathoughtleadercentral.org

- ❖ Learn about AASA's **books program** where new titles and special discounts are available to AASA members. The AASA publications catalog may be downloaded at www.aasacentral.org/aasa-books



Upcoming AASA Events

AASA Legislative Advocacy Conference, July 11-13, 2023, Hyatt Regency on Capitol Hill, WDC

AASA 2024 National Conference on Education, Feb. 15-17, 2024, San Diego, CA

The 2024 National Conference on Education call for proposals is open now through May 31, 2023.

<https://www.aasa.org/news-media/news/2023/03/20/nce-2024-call-for-proposals-now-open>

AASA Learning 2025 National Summit on Social Emotional Learning, Leadership Development, Equity, Curriculum & Assessment, College-Career-and Life-Readiness, June 26-28, 2023

<https://www.aasa.org/professional-learning/event/2023/06/26/default-calendar/aasa-learning-2025-national-summit>

Redefining Ready! Summit for College- Career-and Life-Readiness, October 16, 2023

<https://www.aasa.org/professional-learning/event/2023/10/16/default-calendar/redefining-ready-october>

STEM Leadership Consortium Meeting, November 1-3, 2023

<https://www.aasa.org/professional-learning/event/2023/11/01/default-calendar/stem-leadership-consortium-meeting-nov>

STEM Leadership Consortium Meeting, February 14, 2024

<https://www.aasa.org/professional-learning/event/2024/02/14/default-calendar/stem-leadership-consortium-meeting-nce24>