# **Matthew Clifford**

REL Midwest
Learning Point Associates
Matthew.Clifford@learningpt.org

## Susan B. Millar

System-wide Change for All Learners and Educators Wisconsin Center for Education Research University of Wisconsin–Madison sbmillar@wisc.edu Copyright © 2007 by Matthew Clifford and Susan B. Millar All rights reserved.

Readers may make verbatim copies of this document for noncommercial purposes by any means, provided that the above copyright notice appears on all copies.

WCER working papers are available on the Internet at <a href="http://www.wcer.wisc.edu/publications/workingPapers/index.php">http://www.wcer.wisc.edu/publications/workingPapers/index.php</a>. Recommended citation:

Clifford, M., & Millar, S. B. (2007). *K–20 partnership: A definition and proof of concept* (WCER Working Paper No. 2007-9). Madison: University of Wisconsin–Madison, Wisconsin Center for Education Research. Retrieved [e.g., December 15, 2007,] from <a href="http://www.wcer.wisc.edu/publications/workingPapers/papers.php">http://www.wcer.wisc.edu/publications/workingPapers/papers.php</a>

The research reported in this paper was supported by a grant from the National Science Foundation to the University of Wisconsin–Madison (EHR 0227016) for a Mathematics and Science Partnership project called the System-wide Change for All Learners and Educators (SCALE) Partnership, and by the Wisconsin Center for Education Research, School of Education, University of Wisconsin–Madison. Any opinions, findings, or conclusions expressed in this paper are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the funding agencies, WCER, or cooperating institutions.

# K-20 Partnership: A Definition and Proof of Concept Matthew Clifford, and Susan B. Millar<sup>1</sup>

School districts and institutions of higher education (IHEs) have historically attempted to improve K–12 instructional quality and student performance in relative isolation from each other, and with limited success (Clark, 1988; Edelen-Smith & Smith, 2002; Essex, 2001; Goodlad, 1988, 1991; Robinson, 2005; Smedley, 2001). The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act and efforts to improve preservice teacher education have prompted policymakers and others to rethink models of instructional improvement and teacher preparation. One possible model involves partnerships between K–12 districts and IHEs, which we call *K–20 partnerships*, to bring about fundamental and sustainable changes in teaching. K–20 partnership formation is an aspect of NCLB legislation and is enacted through the Math and Science Partnership (MSP) program of the National Science Foundation (NSF)<sup>2</sup> and the Teacher Quality Enhancement Grants program of the U.S. Department of Education (US ED).<sup>3</sup>

As a policy effort, partnerships between K–12 agencies and IHEs have the common sense appeal that "together, we are stronger." In other words, policymakers reason that the complex problem of improving teaching and learning might be better addressed by leveraging formerly isolated resources and knowledge and channeling those resources toward teacher quality improvement, student learning advancement, and organizational transformation.

Numerous studies have examined the effects of partnership-developed interventions, but only a few have associated intervention results with partnerships between K–12 and IHEs (Kingsley & O'Neil, 2004; Smedley, 2001; Clifford & Millar, 2007). To determine the value of partnerships for improving teaching, learning, and educational institutions, evaluators must make firm links between partnerships, interventions, and outcomes. The resultant models, we believe, can help practitioners construct more effective partnerships and create successful interventions.

In their requests for proposals, NSF and US ED call for rigorous evaluation of partnership effects. In our role as evaluators of an MSP, we believe that a first step in evaluating

<sup>1</sup> We acknowledge the significant contributions of our SCALE colleagues in preparation of this report, particularly (in alphabetical order) Hedi Baxter, Bill Clune, Matthew Hora, Eunice Krinsky, Dan Lauffer, Dan McDonnell, Terry Millar, Eric Osthoff, Latish Owusu-Yeboa, Andy Porter, Richard Halverson, Lauren Resnick, Natalie Tran, Lisa Wachtel, Jeff Watson, and all the members of SCALE, particularly those in the Los Angeles–Area Middle School Science Immersion Group who have provided their valuable time and insights.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> NSF stipulates that MSPs must address five features: partnership, data-based decision making, teacher workforce development, enhanced university and K–12 coursework, and organizational change. Specifically, the MSP call for proposals identifies the involvement of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) faculty and graduate students as necessary because (a) STEM higher educators have sophisticated understandings of content that, research suggests, K–12 teachers lack and need to undertake reform-oriented instruction and (b) STEM higher educators are positioned to model excellent teaching in foundation courses for preservice teachers.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The US ED Teacher Quality Enhancement Grants include (a) state grants, (b) partnership grants, and (c) teacher recruitment grants. Partnership grants provide funding to teacher preparation institutions, schools of arts and sciences, and local school districts in high-need areas for improvement of teacher education program accountability, preservice teacher content knowledge, preservice teacher acclimatization, teacher use of technology, and teacher work with diverse populations.

partnerships, their interventions, and their outcomes is defining what partnerships are and are not. Doing so also enables evaluators to determine if, in fact, NSF and US ED grantees accomplished funded work; what roles, if any, partnerships played in achieving desired ends; and, ultimately, if the NSF and US ED theory of action has merit.

In this paper, we argue that partnership, as a construct, needs further definition to distinguish it from other forms of organization and inter-organizational relationships. Having identified this problem through our literature review, we put forth the following definition, synthesized from available literature:

A K–20 partnership is an organization (i.e., a social entity in which people routinely engage together in tasks) that is formed through a formalized agreement among partners, comprising at least one actively engaged college/university and one actively engaged K–12 school district and intended to accomplish mutual benefits that the partners, alone, could not accomplish.

We test our definition through a single case, which serves as a proof-of-concept study. Our conclusion discusses the sufficiency of our definition and reports on next steps in our work.

#### **Context of Our Work**

The NSF MSP project that we are evaluating is called System-wide Change for All Learners and Educators (SCALE). SCALE has been funded from the beginning of 2003 through the end of 2007. (Information on SCALE can be found at <a href="http://scalemsp.wceruw.org">http://scalemsp.wceruw.org</a>.) SCALE aims to significantly improve mathematics and science teaching and learning in four urban areas by bringing about organizational changes in participating school districts and IHEs. NSF made the award to the University of Wisconsin–Madison (UW-Madison), and UW-Madison issued subcontracts to the other partnership organizations. The participating K–12 districts are the Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD), Denver Public Schools, Madison Metropolitan School District, and Providence Public School District. Participating IHEs are UW-Madison, California State University at Dominguez Hills (CSUDH), and California State University at Northridge (CSUN). The University of Pittsburgh, with its Institute for Learning, was a SCALE partner until late 2006.

#### **Methods**

Central to evaluators' and researchers' work is the need to define precisely what they will study. Researchers and evaluators can discern the unit of focus, ask precise questions, employ appropriate methods, and set study limitations once they have bounded the phenomena to be studied. As we sought to evaluate a K–20 partnership, we reviewed available research literature and found further definition was necessary.

Researchers and evaluators use multiple methods to define constructs. Generally speaking, these methods involve synthesis of the global—or general—perspective through literature review or Delphi study. Then, definitions are tested and refined by taking the local perspective into account, which often involves observing the phenomenon in the field. Definitions are finalized after several iterations of testing and refinement, once the researchers

and evaluators feel confident that the definition adequately describes the phenomenon and enables others to distinguish the phenomenon from other like phenomena in the field. To us, Geertz's (1983) phrase, "continuous dialectical tacking," adroitly describes this general method.

In this paper, we describe the first iteration of continuous dialectical tacking. We report findings from a literature review that identified problems with the ways researchers define K–20 partnership. We then draw upon the reviewed and other literature to create an initial definition and test that definition by making observations on a single case of a working group that expert nominees believe to be an excellent example of K–20 partnership.

## The Global Perspective: Literature Review Methods and a Partnership Definition

Literature reviews and Delphi studies can be used to survey expert opinions on a given topic. Previous studies of K–20 partnerships have used literature review to identify salient variables in partnership formation and productivity (Clark, 1988; Essex, 2001; Smedley, 2004) and Delphi study to describe variations in partnership definition apparent in the field (Kingsley and Waschak, 2004).

We chose to conduct a literature review to describe how evaluators and researchers use the term K–20 partnership and to synthesize a definition from the research literature. The literature review also served to situate the following questions: (a) How is our partnership defined? (b) Why and how do partnerships form? (c) What factors in partnership are associated with success/failure? (d) What outcomes have been associated with partnership activity? and (e) What inquiry methods have been used to study partnership? The first question is salient to our discussion here.

The literature review sampling method led to a review of often-cited, rigorous research on K–20 partnerships published in the past 10 years and influential studies from other fields. We began with an initial scan of recent empirical studies located in juried education journals via keyword search of three online databases (JSTOR, Ingenta, and ERIC) and Google Scholar. The scan produced over 10,000 hits, indicating that the literature base on K–20 partnerships or related terms is quite large. We then narrowed the search by considering (a) the number of citations to the article, which is an indicator of importance in the field, and (b) methodological rigor and transparency in the article, which is a necessary criterion for answering our research questions. Although we started with a focus on K–20 partnerships because of our work with MSPs, we recognized early on the multidisciplinary nature of the research base on partnerships and included significant studies from business and health care research as well. At present, our queriable EndNote database contains 77 abstracts, 58 of which focus on K–20 partnerships.

After identifying literature that met our criteria, Clifford & Millar (2007) conducted a conceptual analysis to answer the literature review questions. The conceptual analysis identified four patterns (discussed below) in the way researchers defined partnership. As a result of the review, we recognized a need to further define the term K-20 partnership for ourselves. We then

\_

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> While we attempted to be thorough, we acknowledge that our review is not comprehensive. A more comprehensive review would require more time and resources than are currently available.

synthesized a definition by drawing on reviewed and additional literature from organizational analysis, leadership, education, health care, and business fields.

# The Local Perspective: Proof of Concept via Case Study

Proof-of-concept studies test and elaborate upon researchers' initial understanding of terms and theories. Our proof-of-concept study uses case methods as a means of testing our emergent K–20 partnership definition, which is an appropriate use of the method (Yin, 1994; Eisenhardt, 1989). The proof-of-concept research study question is:

How well does the observed phenomenon—a working group that expert nominees consider to be a successful K–20 partnership—align with our proposed definition?

The research question requires us to determine if the identified working group, which expert nominees consider to be a K–20 partnership, exhibits characteristics that we associate with that term. Thus, a subquestion is: Is the identified group a K–20 partnership, as we define it? Reciprocally, we want to know if our definition sufficiently describes partnership by making general observations in the field. Thus, a second subquestion is: If the given case is a K–20 partnership, then what, if any, changes to our definition need to be made to accommodate our field observations?

As noted, we used case methods to answer the research question. Case methods are prevalent in organizational and inter-organizational research because they allow researchers to attend to the multiple data streams necessary to characterize complex systems within or between organizations. Case study was appropriate for our purpose because it enabled us to get a detailed look at formal and informal social processes within a partnership over one year's time. Below, we describe our procedures and further describe our rationale.

Case selection. We selected a case that very likely would meet our definition of a K–20 partnership. Yin (1994) recommended that researchers select cases that provide good opportunities to build, and potentially elaborate upon, emergent constructs or theories. Once our partnership definition appears to represent best cases, counterfactual cases can be selected to test whether the definition has adequate power to distinguish K–20 partnerships from other types of organizations or groups.

Our case was selected from the SCALE MSP. SCALE is a large, loosely coupled entity organized into nearly 100 working groups, which we define as multiple people joined together to accomplish some task or take part in some organized collective action. We reasoned that some of the SCALE working groups would be examples of K–20 partnership and some would not. The selected case was:

- 1. Recommended by knowledgeable SCALE practitioners as a good example of K–20 partnership, however they defined that term;
- 2. Involved in teacher professional development, identified by the NSF MSP as a core K–20 partnership purpose;

- 3. Deemed to be successful by outcome measures obtained by independent studies (Osthoff et al., 2007); and
- 4. Mature (the group was in its second iteration of offering teacher professional development) and thus amenable to observation of routines and norms, two indicators of formal organization.

*Case design.* A case study can employ multiple methods to build and test theory about a bounded phenomenon. Our case method included interviews, observations, and document review to explore participant motivations and goals, and formal/informal work processes.

We used semistructured interviews to answer Subquestions #1 and #2 (shown in Table 1). Semistructured interviews enable researchers to explore the breadth of perspectives among participants on a common experience (e.g., participation in shared tasks) and allow respondents to present context-sensitive factors in their own terms, while maintaining the study's focus. We chose semistructured interviews because we needed data to identify and describe the variability of inputs and outcomes, as perceived by the working group participants, and we anticipated respondents would provide a wide range of responses that might make complex connections between themselves, their K–12 districts or IHEs, and the SCALE working group.

We used document review, observations, and interviews to answer Subquestions #3 and #4 (Table 1) via task analysis. Task analyses describe (a) the work and experiences of members of a single role group (e.g., IHE faculty, K–12 teachers) or (b) the ways in which people work systematically to complete complex tasks in their organizations. Task analyses tend to describe what and how tasks are completed and by whom. Previous task analysis findings suggest people engage in many tasks, some of which are reflected in their official job descriptions, and tap into official/formal and unofficial/informal organizational practices to accomplish those tasks (see e.g., Halverson & Clifford, 2006). We used document review to gather data on official/formal working group operations and participation and interview and observation to gather data on unofficial/informal working group operations and participation. In our task analysis, we created task categories such as *leadership* or *design work* to describe how tasks were accomplished by individuals in the group over time.

Table 1 lists our research questions and, for each question, the data-gathering method and sample sizes.

Table 1
Case Questions, Method, and Sample

Subquestion	Data-gathering method	Sample from presented case
Q1. What motivates people and their organizations to engage in cross-organizational work?	Interview	13 interviews (approximately half of group participants)
Q2. What learning or other benefits, if any, are realized?	Interview	10 interviews with group participants

Subquestion	Data-gathering method	Sample from presented case
Q3. What tasks do people engage in to complete their work?	Observation, document review, interview	Document review; 8 audio- recorded, observed meetings spanning 46 hours of group work; 13 interviews
Q4. How is work distributed across people and organizations?	Observation, document review, interview	Document review; 8 audio- recorded, observed meetings spanning 46 hours of group work; 13 interviews

## The Global Perspective: Patterns in the Ways Researchers Define Partnership

We conclude that researchers address partnership in four ways: (a) they do not define partnership, (b) they define partnership as an organization populated by members of two or more other organizations, (c) they define partnership by contrasting it with other types of interorganizational relations, or (d) they provide observable and measurable definitions but do not specify sufficient conditions or indicators of partnership. We also conclude that a more precise definition is needed to support evaluation studies. Later in this section, we present and explain a definition of K–20 partnership that we believe will support more effective evaluation of and research on partnerships.

# Pattern 1: No Definition

Approximately 40% of reviewed educational articles used the term *partnership* but did not define it. The following two quotations typify this group:

This article will provide an overview of the school/university partnership that provided the context for the study and present findings from our study of beginning teachers' classroom research projects. (Davis & Higdon, 2005, p. 101)

The GUIE partnership stakeholders consist of the Gear Up grant receiving university, five middle schools selected from within the university catchment area, and the high schools that the middle school students ultimately attend. Additional stakeholders include the communities that each of these schools are located within, as well as the families that comprise communities. (Mayers & Schnorr, 2003, p. 108)

Each of the studies reported outcomes that the researchers attributed to a partnership. Without a definition of partnership, however, it remains unclear whether these outcomes should be attributed to partnership or to some other factor in the social environment under consideration.

#### Pattern 2: Definition by Reference to Member Organizations

The second pattern in the literature is to define partnership as an organization comprised of members from two or more other organizations (Essex, 2001). We view this approach as problematic because the definitions of *organization* and *membership* remain ambiguous. In the

absence of a definition of *organization*, evaluators can view *partnership* as encompassing such a broad range of relationships that the term loses its value (Podolny & Page, 1998). For example, some researchers consider partnership to be a formalized entity with legal standing, while others view partnership as a loosely coupled network of individuals who interact in dyads on occasion but not as a single group (Podolny & Page, 1998; Vangen & Huxham, 2003; Edelen-Smith & Smith, 2002). Given that researchers underspecify *organization*, other evaluators and researchers will be challenged to determine if a gathering of people is or is not a partnership.

Similarly, the meaning of *membership* is ambiguous. Because membership denotes affiliation with a group and group recognition of that affiliation, it can encompass a very wide range of relationships. For example, public K–12 schools have service agreements with vending machine providers, agreements with other government agencies on referral procedures, and contracts with curriculum publishers. All of these organizations are parties to an agreement with educational institutions and publicly recognized through formalization of the agreement as such. Although each of the examples meets basic criteria for membership in an agreement, it remains unclear if the relationships represent a partnership.

## Pattern 3: Definition by Association

The third pattern in the literature is to define partnership by associating it with other forms of inter-organizational relations, each of which is underdefined. For example:

In this article, we present glimpses of partnership nested within a network of schools that have chosen to work closely with Miami University. (Badiali & Flora, 2000, p. 146)

Higher education consortia are forming K–12 partnerships and alliances that are linking with individual public schools and their school systems. (Druckman & Peterson, 2002, p. 11)

In these examples, Badiali and Flora and Druckman and Peterson defined partnership by contrasting it with networks and consortia. Druckman and Peterson also likened partnership to an alliance. However, these authors did not specifically define these terms. In our literature review, we found the term *partnership* used interchangeably with joint venture, network, consortium, collaborative, and alliance. The business and health care literature also include contractual agreements and outsourcing arrangements, law firms, and administration-union contracts under the partnership umbrella.

# Pattern 4: Definitions Without Specific Indicators

A minority of studies articulated observable and measurable features that define partnership or employed a definition a priori in investigating partnership outcomes. However, we found that when observable and measurable partnership features were provided, authors did not

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Kochan (2000) viewed the Saturn automobile company as a partnership between management and a labor organization; Lang and Gordon (1995) considered large law firms to be partnerships; and Robinson and Darling-Hammond (2005) considered professional development schools to be partnerships between teacher education programs and K–12 districts.

quantify or articulate partnership features adequately to allow researchers to determine with certainty if a particular phenomenon is a partnership. In other words, observable and measurable indicators of partnership were not identified by even the best definitions.

Pattern 4 is best exemplified by two quotations. Goodlad's (1988, 1991) definition is the most often cited a priori definition found in our literature review:

A school-university partnership represents a planned effort to establish a formal, mutually beneficial inter-institutional relationship characterized by the following:

- Sufficient dissimilarity among institutions to warrant the effort of seeking complementarity in the fulfillment of some functions.
- Sufficient overlap in some functions to make clearly apparent the potential benefits of collaboration.
- Sufficient commitment to the effective fulfillment of these overlapping functions to warrant the inevitable loss of some present control and authority on the part of the institution currently claiming dominant interest. (Goodlad, 1991, p. 59)

While Goodlad (1991) said a sufficient amount of dissimilarity, overlap, and commitment is necessary in a school-university partnership, he did not specify what he meant by *sufficient*, nor did he say whether all three characteristics are necessary. Similarly Catelli, Padovano, and Costello (2000) defined an *authentic partnership* between schools and universities as follows:

Whether the relationship is symbiotic or organic, what is clear is that in authentic partnership, as opposed to other types of joint ventures, the school and university do act as equal partners. They agree at the outset to work side by side on preselected matters pertaining to schooling and teacher education—often sharing physical resources, monies, personnel and administrative decisions either immediately or in later phases of their partnership relationship. More specifically, their ultimate goals are to institutionalize the partnership in their respective settings, create an inter-institutional structure that will permit change and improvement to occur at both levels, and strive toward a new seamless system of education. Formal contracts or letters of understanding forecasting their intent and outlining the *terms of the initial phases are characteristic of these partnerships*. (p. 227).

From our perspective, Goodlad and Catelli et al. identified the criteria for successful partnership. They did not, however, specify in observable and measurable terms the sufficient amount, or acceptable range, of the criteria. Articulating minimum sufficiency can help evaluators, practitioners, and policymakers determine if partnerships exist and which partnerships are associated with effective outcomes and conditions.

Based on our review of the literature, we conclude that there exists a good deal of ambiguity in the definition of K–20 partnership. We believe that K–20 partnerships hold great potential for helping participating actors and their organizations learn, change, and improve. However, without a more precise definition, education researchers will be challenged (a) to

determine the value of partnerships for improving organizational change and vitality and (b) to explain why partnerships form, what they do, and what outcomes are attributable to them.

# Toward a Partnership Definition That Supports Evaluation and Research

For discussion purposes, here again is our definition of partnership:

A K–20 partnership is an organization (i.e., a social entity in which people routinely engage together in tasks) that is formed through a formalized agreement among partners, comprising at least one actively engaged college/university and one actively engaged K–12 school district and is intended to accomplish mutual benefits that the partners, alone, could not accomplish.

Below, we unpack this definition.

## An Organization

The first phrase—"an organization (i.e., a social entity in which people routinely engage together in tasks)"—defines partnership as a type of organization and differentiates it from simple financial exchanges, non-routine interactions, and other social relationships (Gulati & Singh, 1998). Organizational analysis has produced multiple definitions of the term *organization*. We believe that the term refers to a set of social relations and routines that facilitates work in exchange for rewards to attain goals (Yanow, 2000; DiMaggio & Powell, 1991; Podolny & Page, 1998; Lang & Gordon, 1995). Thus, we expect that the following indicators of organization should apply to K–20 partnership:

- Goals are shared among participants (March & Simon, 1958); and
- Routines are established paths of interpersonal interaction that persist over time, represent the ways in which organizations work to achieve their goals, and are frequently developed through trial and error (Hutchins, 1995; Giddens, 1984).

Researchers seeking to establish that a group is a K–20 partnership would need to show, minimally, that people within the group interact routinely to complete tasks. By *routinely*, we mean that group members complete at least two cycles of an explicit, formalized work procedure. Researchers would also need to show that group members share at least one of the goals to be addressed by the work at hand.

## A Formalized Agreement Among K-20 Partners

The second phrase of the definition—"that is formed through a formalized agreement among partners, comprising at least one actively engaged college/university and one actively engaged K–12 school district"—requires that the partners include at least one college or university and one K–12 school district, describes their relationship as established through a formal agreement, and specifies the nature of their interaction as "actively engaged." We explain our decision to include these criteria below.

We require that K–20 partnerships include at least two members and that these members represent two types of organizations—K–12 school districts and colleges/universities—that organizational theorists define as *firms*. A firm is a type of organization that has legal standing and public recognition, in which people interact to achieve tasks and goals within a set of sociotechnical systems (Kochan & Rubinstein, 2000; Holmstrom & Roberts, 1998). Thus, partnerships involve cross-organizational work and co-mingling of the constituents of the firms' work systems.

We include this criterion in our definition to differentiate K–20 partnerships from intraorganizational relations, which are formal or informal relationships among subdivisions within a firm. For example, an agreement between two university departments or an agreement between engineers and line employees are examples of intra-organizational relations. These intraorganizational relationships may be examples of partnerships, but not of K–20 partnerships.

Requiring that the members of K–20 partnerships be organizations rather than individuals differentiates partnerships from other forms of inter-organizational relations among K–12 and higher education organizations. Our literature review identified two studies (see Briscoe & Prayaga, 2002; Nelson, 2005) that defined partnership as two or more individuals from K–12 and higher education institutions who work collaboratively. Given the number of relationships school organizations are engaged in, we find these authors' definition of partnership too broad; for them, partnerships could be potentially as ubiquitous as meetings. From our perspective, K–20 partnerships must entail formalized arrangements between member organizations, such that the partner organizations commit to supporting the work undertaken by those individuals in their organization who actually participate in the partnership. Thus, an inter-organizational interaction between two individuals (e.g., one professor and one K–12 educator) from different organizations would be a *partnership* if the individuals participated on the basis of a commitment from their home organizations, but would only be a *relationship* in the absence of organizational commitment.

Lastly, our definition sets active engagement among K–12 and college/university members as a criterion. By active engagement, we mean that human, financial, and material resources from partnering organizations must be employed in jointly enacted work intended to achieve partnership goals. We included active engagement as a criterion to differentiate the interorganizational relationships in partnership from "paper participation," which involves a commitment without actual participation. Although we believe a partnership involves active engagement by its partnering organizations, we note that each partner's level of resources and engagement need not be equal (Farrell & Scotchmer, 1988).

The second phrase of our definition differentiates partnerships from firms and less formal inter-organizational relations. Researchers and evaluators seeking to establish that a particular inter-organizational relationship constitutes a K–20 partnership should be able to demonstrate that this group (a) was formed through a formal agreement that was signed by upper echelon leaders of K–12 districts and colleges/universities (e.g., college dean, provost) and dedicates organizational resources to cross-organizational work and (b) actively engages resources and representatives from K–12 and higher education institutions in work intended to achieve partnership goals.

## Pursuit of Mutual Benefits

The third phrase of our partnership definition—"and is intended to achieve mutual benefits"—focuses on intended mutual benefits and, by implication, the motivation to form partnerships. Benefit may include financial gain, knowledge advancement, improved reputation, development and provision of goods and services, and organizational/professional learning and change. Our literature review suggests that K-20 partnerships are often formed to develop and maintain (a) professional development schools (Robinson & Darling-Hammond, 2005), (b) curriculum (Radinsky & Bouillon, 2001; Nelson, 2005), (c) in-service professional development (Grundy & Robison, 2001; Waddle & Conway, 2005; Epanchin & Colucci, 2002; Mariage & Garmon, 2003; Townsend & Boca, 2003; Firestone & Fisler, 2002; Marlow & Nass-Fukai, 2000; Briscoe & Prayaga, 2002; Carlone & Webb, 2005; Gomez, Bissell, Danziger, & Casselman, 1990), (d) research (Waddle & Conway, 2005), and (e) student recruitment/retention programming (Mayers & Schnorr, 2003). In business, partnership participation frequently has been associated with organizational vitality (Lang & Gordon, 1995) and increased competitiveness (Amaldoss & Meyer, 2000). The NSF MSP program emphasizes that partnerships can change K-12 and higher education practices and systems and improve instructional quality and student achievement.

Although we note that partnerships are intended to provide mutual benefits, mutuality does not mean equality. While all partners do some work and receive some benefit, partners need not do so equally (Farrell & Scotchmer, 1988; Klijn, 1996).

Researchers employing our definition to determine if a given group is a K–20 partnership would need to show, minimally, that all K–12 and college/university participants state that they anticipate that their organizations will receive some benefit, as defined broadly above. For NSF MSP programs, benefit statements should include improved organizational practices, instructional quality, and, ultimately, student learning.

# Interdependence

The fourth phrase in our definition—"that the partners, alone, could not accomplish"—focuses on interdependence among partners. We have already stated that partnerships involve cross-organizational engagement in work to achieve mutual benefits. If the partners viewed themselves as capable of achieving these ends by themselves, they would likely not form partnerships, but rather would remain self-sufficient. Though the amount of interdependence may vary, partnerships must involve at least one person from each partner organization in some form of joint work. Partnership analyses suggest considerable variation in how work flows within partnerships. For example, people in partnering organizations may work semi-autonomously and competitively, cooperatively, or collaboratively (Gulati & Singh, 1998; Uzzi, 1997). Researchers seeking to establish that a given group is a K–20 partnership would also need to show that members from K–12 school district and college/university institutions complete tasks through joint work.

## The Local Perspective: Testing the Definition in the Field

Our literature review pointed to a need to further define partnership, which led to our initial definition. With definition in hand, we ventured into the field to test how well our definition describes the group we were already studying, because it met our criteria for case selection and because SCALE informants and others considered it a good example of partnership. The case describes the motivation, tasks, work distribution, and benefits of the Los Angeles–Area Middle School Science Immersion Group (LAMSIG) as it existed in 2005–2006.<sup>6</sup> We first describe the circumstances leading to the formation of LAMSIG, and then present the case in four sections, each of which considers whether LAMSIG meets the four criteria stated in our definition of a K-20 partnership.

The purpose of LAMSIG in 2005–2006 was to provide in-service teacher professional development in support of improved middle school science teaching in LAUSD, the second largest district in the United States. LAMSIG was a programmatic outgrowth of collaboration among some SCALE partners (UW-Madison, LAUSD, CSUDH, and CSUN) and some partners of the Quality Educator Development (QED) project (CSUDH, LAUSD, and UW-Madison). OED is a US ED-funded Teacher Quality Enhancement Grant administered by CSUDH.

In the fall of 2003, as SCALE was beginning, a team of district leaders and academics articulated a concept of science teaching and learning called *immersion*. Immersion is a type of inquiry-based science instruction that is informed by research, national science teaching standards, and national curricula. Immersion (a) engages all students in an inquiry process of asking questions and providing evidence-based explanations; (b) encourages teachers to guide, rather than dictate, learning; (c) provides time and support for students' active development of deep understanding of core science concepts as outlined by the National Science Education Standards; and (d) provides opportunities for students to make connections among key concepts and between classroom learning and places outside school where learning may be applied. SCALE leaders coined the term to break from past reform efforts and to build consensus around a vision of rigorous teaching.

The year 2003 was an opportune time for immersion science development in LAUSD. California standards and testing policies were being scaled up to address science, LAUSD had just begun a curriculum revision/selection cycle, and district-level science administration had been restructured to provide greater oversight and support for elementary and secondary science. LAUSD administrators were reworking policy to support national science and state standards, but like many districts, LAUSD supported a diverse science curriculum representing different approaches to science teaching. Informed by recent research and the University of Pittsburgh's Institute for Learning (IFL), LAUSD administrators sought to increase instructional coherence in science without alienating teachers or losing teachers' flexibility to address diverse student learning needs and interests. Immersion offered LAUSD a new, possibly unifying, term for reform-oriented science education that could be accepted by various factions within the district.

and main tasks, and also varied by partner organization. The leaders observed that they encouraged the use of different names for the group as a strategy to encourage group ownership. Although known by different names, by 2006 group membership was generally stable. Leaders reviewing this text viewed Los Angeles-Area Middle School

Science Immersion Group as, in many ways, more descriptive of group activities than other variants.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Los Angeles-Area Middle School Science Immersion Group is a researcher-coined name. LAMSIG leaders stated that the group name actually used by participants shifted over time, along with changes in the group membership

As part of its curriculum revision effort, LAUSD began developing science instructional guides that laid out a scope and sequence of standards-aligned activities. Grade 4 through 8 instructional guides were released in 2003. At the same time, LAUSD administrators recognized the need for teacher professional development and curriculum unit exemplars as a means of ensuring that the instructional guides would be used in such a way as to support reform-oriented science teaching. With regard to teacher professional development, the district viewed both inservice and preservice emphases as important, given the level of teacher attrition.

However, LAUSD lacked the capacity to provide the needed in-service teacher professional development and ongoing support for teachers engaged in immersion science teaching. Like many large districts, LAUSD relied on multiple organizations, including the California State Universities, to provide in-service teacher professional development programming. According to LAUSD administrators we interviewed, professional development programming often did not align with LAUSD standards, curricula, and guidelines. In addition, the professional development programming was not sustained and supported over time. Because SCALE, as a project, includes regional IHEs, its leaders saw an opportunity: They could offer the K–12 district partner, LAUSD, opportunities to align and improve the in-service teacher education services that regional IHEs already were providing, and possibly bring preservice teacher education into alignment with LAUSD policies as well.

In early 2004, UW-Madison and LAUSD staff sought to identify examples of immersion curriculum units from commercial or NSF-funded materials because the LAUSD timeline for instructional guide rollout for physical, life, and earth sciences in Grades 4 through 7 was only 3 months. The expectation was that, once curriculum samples were identified, LAUSD and another SCALE partner, the IFL, would provide teacher professional development to introduce and support immersion. Unfortunately, UW-Madison staff could not locate ready-made units that met the criteria for immersion or that could be supported financially or politically by local administrators. As one LAUSD administrator commented:

If you just develop or locate something and hand it to the district, then they [district people] say, "Well, this doesn't suit our needs." So then you must involve the district people along the way. . . . We benefit from getting a unit developed, you know, tailormade to our situation.

That is, an immersion unit needed not only to meet criteria for reform-oriented instruction and state/national standards, but also to be relatively inexpensive and leverage existing curricula and laboratory equipment. Further, local teacher leaders and administrators had to be sufficiently knowledgeable about the unit and the pedagogy it represented to provide high-quality teacher professional development. In response to these challenges, in January 2005 SCALE leaders sought a new direction: They would write tailored immersion units that would supplant existing units. To do so, SCALE and the newly funded QED project formed LAMSIG. As noted earlier, LAMSIG included LAUSD, CSUDH, and UW-Madison. Upper echelon administrators at each of these institutions chose to be involved in QED and SCALE. Additionally, LAMSIG included science faculty members from CSUN.

## Evidence of LAMSIG Status as an Organization, as Indicated by Shared Goals

We defined a K–20 partnership as an organization that is formed by at least one K–12 district and at least one IHE. One feature that distinguishes organizations from mere groups is the

shared goals of their members (Fisher & Fisher, 1997). Data from official documents, observations of the procedure for creating these documents, and interview data all suggested that LAMSIG members, considered in terms of role groups, shared some, but certainly not all, goals.

In 2006, LAMSIG leaders created a graphic (Figure 1) to represent the group's goals (located at the bottom of the graphic), objectives, and tasks. The graphic was reviewed by all LAMSIG members prior to its use in publications and presentations.

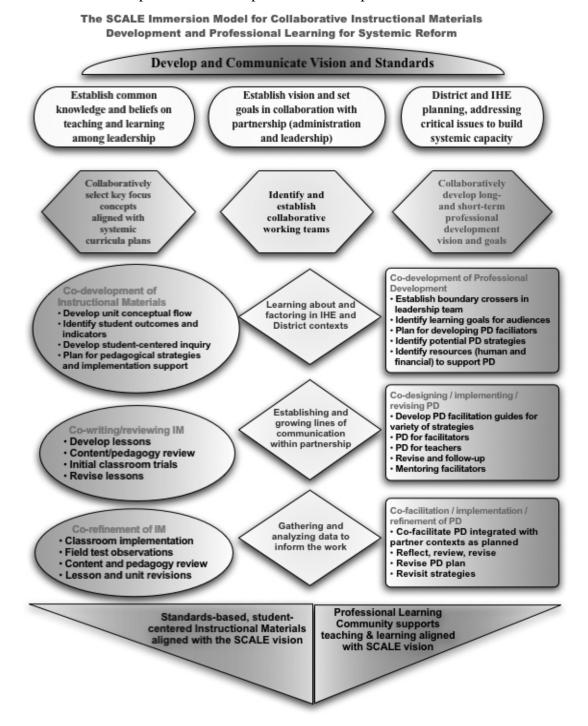


Figure 1. LAMSIG members' representation of their scope of work.

While Figure 1 officially represented LAMSIG goals and LAMSIG member approval indicates that the goals were shared, our interview protocol also asked members to discuss their goals for participation. Table 2 displays the goals mentioned by people in different role groups. Interview data (n = 15) indicate that people in the different role groups mentioned 10 goals, 3 of which were shared across role groups.

Table 2
Goals Mentioned by LAMSIG Interviewees by Organizational Role Group

	Goal	K–12 teachers	K-12 administrators	CSU faculty	UW-Madison faculty & staff
1	Learn about science inquiry and immersion	X			X
2	Build ownership/accountabilit y for initiative		X		X
3	Build partnership				X
4	Develop professional developers/leaders		X		X
5	Increase student learning	X	X	X	X
6	Increase K–12 instructional quality	X	X	X	X
7	Develop immersion unit examples	X	X	X	X
8	Improve teaching by encouraging teacher use of immersion		X		X
9	Send consistent message about district policy		X		
10	Improve leadership capacity		X		X

In Table 2, an *X* means that all members of the interviewed constituent group mentioned this goal. Application of this criterion to data representation may suggest to readers that little variation within role groups was observed, but in fact we found roles groups were not uniform. Our analysis thus far has not identified variations in the ways LAMSIG members understood these goals or their importance. However, in light of prior research on school and university perspectives on partnership and collaboration, we are confident that notable differences existed (Bullough & Kauchak, 1997; Carlone & Webb, 2005; Davis & Feldman, 2003; Radinsky & Bouillon, 2001).

The finding suggests that LAMSIG met one minimal criterion for K–20 partnership, according to our definition: LAMSIG members shared at least one goal. These findings on shared goals raise at least two questions about sufficiency that would be helpful to address:

- In the LAMSIG case, shared goals were associated with core, official group operations, but would a group be considered a partnership if shared goals were not associated with the official or intended charge?
- If different role groups interpret apparently shared goals differently, how much difference can be tolerated before the goals cannot be judged to be actually shared?

## Evidence of LAMSIG Formalized Agreement, Membership, and Active Engagement

According to our definition, if LAMSIG is to be considered a K–20 partnership, it must have been formed through a formalized agreement between at least one actively engaged college/university and one actively engaged K–12 school district. Our observation and interview data suggest LAMSIG met these criteria for a K–20 partnership. We cite as evidence (a) the SCALE/QED proposals, which were officially supported by the participating institutions' leaders, (b) LAMSIG funding patterns, and (c) member participation in LAMSIG activities.

LAMSIG came into being through a formalized agreement among participating institutions. As discussed above, SCALE and QED are each grant-funded projects convened through formalized agreements among upper level leaders in LAUSD, CSUDH, UW-Madison, the IFL, and other participating institutions. LAMSIG formation drew upon SCALE and QED staff time and funding, and these funding decisions were recommended by leadership committees consisting of participating institutions' upper administrators and approved by the respective principal investigators. Additionally, the participating organizations negotiated intellectual property rights and use agreements for LAMSIG-produced immersion units that represent an additional type of agreement.

As further evidence of organizational support, LAMSIG staff time and materials were paid for by additional grant funding that could have been dedicated to other operations. For example, the LAUSD secondary science director viewed LAMSIG as aligned with LAUSD's California state MSP grant and drew upon that and other funding to open staff lines for science specialists and teacher leaders who would participate in LAMSIG.

We pulled in the components of standard instruction into the process, which is [SCALE] Goal One, in looking at the supports in the system to accomplish a rigorous instructional program with high expectations that's effort-based, . . . [and] the pre/in-service component, that was drawn right into it because when QED was formed, you know, that brought up the support for LA, in terms of capacity. Then all of the other factors related to that goal all of a sudden fell into place. [LAUSD secondary science director]

As the quote shows, the LAUSD secondary science director pulled together different funding streams to capitalize upon possible synergies between programs, to focus resources to achieve reforms, and to present a coherent approach to science instruction and reform.

While formalized K–12 and IHE institutional commitment is a necessary component for K–20 partnership, our definition also requires different organizational representatives to be actively engaged in cross-organizational work. Our document review and observational data indicate that LAMSIG members came from different organizations. Our criteria for membership

were participation in group activities and a sense of belonging to the group. In everyday usage, membership is commonly determined by reviewing official documents, such as budgets or meeting agendas, but these documents may be inaccurate because individuals listed in these documents may never actually participate. To avoid this problem, we reviewed LAMSIG official roles and other documents and observed meetings and e-mail traffic. To qualify as a participating member of LAMSIG, an individual not only had to be included on LAMSIG member rolls (a recognition by the group of individual membership), but also had to routinely participate in virtual or face-to-face meetings. Table 3 presents LAMSIG group membership by role group during the 2005–2006 academic year and also shows that both K–12 and IHE members from partnering institutions actively participated in and were publicly recognized as members of LAMSIG.

Table 3

LAMSIG Participation by Number of People in Organizational Role Groups

Organization	Role within organization	No. participating in LAMSIG
	Teacher leaders	6
LAUSD	Subdistrict science specialists	9
	Central office science administrators	3
UW-Madison	Academic staff (includes SCALE science immersion team and administration)	5
	STEM professors (the SCALE PI)	.5
	Administrators (the SCALE PI)	.5
	STEM professors	8
CSUs	Education professors	5
	Administrators	1
Consultants	WestED	2
Consultants	IFL	1

#### Evidence of LAMSIG Interdependence and Routine

According to our definition, K–20 partnerships involve some interdependence among participating organizations, which means that partnerships accomplish goals that the partnering organizations, working alone, could not accomplish. We've also said that K–20 partnerships are organizations and defined *organization* as a social entity in which people routinely engage in tasks together.

To test for interdependence and routine, we conducted a task analysis. Although task analyses are used to describe the tasks of individuals occupying the same role group in the same or similar organizations, we modified this technique to assess how individuals with different roles from different organizations contribute to task accomplishment (see Spillane, Camburn, & Pareja, 2007; Halverson & Clifford, 2006). Our analysis (a) identified tasks and task sequences that LAMISG completed, (b) described how often task cycles were completed, to determine if

the work was routine, and (c) described who connected to whom, and how, during task completion, to ascertain interdependence among members from different home organizations. We drew on official documents (i.e., meeting agendas and procedures documents), meeting observations, and interviews to ascertain how work flow occurred within the group and if the work was routine.

Implicitly embedded in the goals stated in Figure 1 and Table 2 (above) are three major tasks and subtasks undertaken by the LAMSIG:

- 1. *Leadership and management*, which involved selecting and supporting LAMSIG members, coordinating partner organization initiatives and resources, setting agendas, managing workflow, developing grants, and planning;
- 2. *Instructional materials development*, which involved researching, writing, reviewing, pilottesting, and revising immersion units;
- 3. *In-service professional development design*, which involved designing events, training event facilitators, and recruiting teachers.

Figure 1 represents these tasks as intertwined and co-dependent: leadership, instructional materials development, and professional development design all needed to occur simultaneously in order for LAMSIG to achieve its goals. In actuality, leadership tasks and instructional materials design and revision required relatively continuous activity, while professional development design began and ended in 8 months' time.

We followed LAMSIG, both as a whole and through its subdivisions, as it worked to complete these three major tasks during the 2005–2006 academic year. A synopsis of our analysis follows.

Were the tasks routine? By definition, organizational routines are established paths of interpersonal interaction that persist over time and serve as a method for organizations to achieve their goals (March & Simon, 1958). Routines constitute collective understanding of how goals can be achieved in context, are developed through trial and error, and represent collective and ongoing learning about how work can be most effectively accomplished (Hutchins, 1995; Giddens, 1984). In more mature organizations, routines are typically codified in procedures that are enacted by members' work, but routines can also exist in organizations without codified procedures. Ascertaining if partnerships have established routines presents a challenge to researchers because tasks may be integrated into the normal workplace activities of partnership members, thus blurring the line between work specific to the partnership and work specific to participating organizations.

At the point of data collection, some LAMSIG operations had matured to the point where tasks had been arrayed and partially codified into routines, and a second iteration of tasks was under way. In particular, LAMSIG members had codified instructional materials design and professional development design tasks into published procedures, and LAMSIG was in its second iteration of enactment of the tasks. LAMSIG members worked to represent and explain their procedures to non-LAMSIG groups. In particular, in 2005–2006, in response to the addition of new LAMSIG members and decisions to increase the number of immersion units to be

developed and professional development institutes to be offered, LAMSIG leaders revised their group procedures. These were adaptations of procedures that LAMSIG members had employed previously and in different contexts.

To illustrate our points, we discuss implementation of the collaborative instructional materials design procedure. The collaborative process of developing LAMSIG's immersion units was formulated by the UW-Madison SCALE science immersion team and then approved and supported by the CSU and LAUSD leaders within the LAMSIG leadership subgroup. Progress through the steps of the process (listed in the left-hand column in Figure 1, above) is tracked and reported by a UW-Madison science immersion team member. Each immersion unit is designed by an Immersion Unit Advisory Team (IUAT), a subgroup of LAMSIG with expertise in the content area. An IUAT has at least one K–12 teacher, STEM faculty member, K–12 subdistrict science administrator, and UW-Madison immersion science team member. Each design cycle takes approximately 5 months to complete.

Thus far, the design procedure has been used in two of three middle school unit designs: Plate Tectonics (sixth grade) and Density and Buoyancy (eighth grade). The third unit, Variation and Natural Selection (seventh grade), was not co-developed, written, or refined collaboratively due primarily to time restrictions. Instead, SCALE science immersion team members wrote this unit, and K–12 administrators and IHE faculty IUAT members reviewed and commented on the unit. In light of the short timelines for the sixth- and eighth-grade units, the LAMSIG team found that use of the collaborative design process pressed them (particularly the SCALE science immersion team members who facilitated the process) to the limits of their capacity.

In contrast to the instructional materials design and professional development design tasks, leadership tasks appeared to be only partially routinized. A subgroup of LAMSIG, which included LAUSD and CSUDH upper administrators and the principal investigators from SCALE and QED, took on LAMSIG leadership tasks (e.g., recruitment of members, decision making, agenda setting, event planning). The LAMSIG leadership subgroup followed a set meeting agenda, but the tasks of member recruitment, event coordination, and member support continued to challenge the group. No established division of labor or procedure emerged for these tasks. The members of this subgroup often spent their meeting time (re)negotiating work parameters, responsibilities, timelines, and group decision-making processes.

Our analysis of LAMSIG operations suggests that the group had established some routines and that the routines continued to evolve as the group added members and situations changed. Clearly, LAMSIG viewed its three main tasks, and their corresponding routines, as the scope of the group's work, as illustrated in Figure 1. The three routines fit together: Leadership

members made several presentations about their collective instructional materials and professional development design work at national conferences.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> The instructional materials design procedure was borrowed from Biological Science Curriculum Studies (BSCS), a nonprofit corporation that develops and supports science textbooks and other curricula. The UW-Madison science immersion team modified the BSCS process to engage LAMSIG members in the writing/revision process and to teach them about collaborative curriculum development. LAMSIG members have shared the instructional materials design procedures with the LAUSD elementary science team and other content-area teams. In addition, LAMSIG

The UW-Madison science immersion team has since informed BSCS of these modifications, and BSCS has integrated the modifications into the collaborative design process that they use.

routines run parallel with and support the routines used to complete instructional materials and professional development design tasks. During the first iteration, the instructional materials and professional development design routines are sequential, because professional development designs are informed by the instructional materials, although in 2005–2006, these routines overlapped.

Were the participating organizations interdependent? Tasks are often completed by multiple people in organizations, and task routines are translated into a division of labor. A division of labor creates interdependent relationships among workers or firms that are attempting to complete tasks and achieve goals (Engestrom, 2000). Firms, such as K–12 districts and IHEs, have their own procedures and divisions of labor and are able to act semi-autonomously to complete tasks "in-house." In partnerships, according to our definition, K–12 districts and IHEs combine personnel, financial, and other resources to complete tasks that, working alone, they could not complete. If LAMSIG is a partnership, we should see evidence of a crossorganizational division of labor.

Organizational research provides us with a taxonomy for describing divisions of labor. Table 4 displays interdependent divisions of labor derived from organizational research and uses sports metaphors to help explain the terms. We sought evidence of these working relationships in LAMSIG's completion of its three tasks: leadership, professional development design, and development of instructional materials.

Table 4
Types of Organizational Interdependence<sup>8</sup>

Interdependence type	Definition
Pooled	Each person and/or firm contributes complementary work performed simultaneously, as in a rowing team.
Sequential	Each person and/or firm independently completes a discrete task, and the tasks are serially arrayed to complete the product/service, as in a relay race squad.
Parallel	Each person and/or firm works independently through an entire process, and the combined results constitute the desired outcome, as in Ryder Cup team play in golf.
Competitive	Each person and/or firm works independently and competitively to more efficiently produce a more effective product, process, or service, as in a boxing match. The results are intended to make all competitors better, and outcomes may or may not be shared.

\_

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Thompson (1967) categorized interdependencies within organizations. Gulati and Gargiulo (1999) and Clark (1988) applied Thompson's and others' work to partnerships. We added a fourth category, *competitive*, to reflect research, mainly from the software development field, on how competing firms work together to create innovative products and procedures.

Our analysis suggests that all of the LAMSIG tasks were undertaken via a cross-organizational division of labor, thus providing evidence of interdependence and additional evidence that LAMSIG is a K–20 partnership. Our analysis of how LAMSIG completed its tasks provides an on-the-ground look at a potential partnership's division of labor (see Table 5). Combined with our analysis of membership (above), our analysis of interdependence indicates that LAMSIG conducted cross-organizational work that brought human knowledge and political and financial resources to bear on instructional materials and professional development design. Our analysis of interdependence also shows that LAMSIG is a dynamic organization in that the division of labor was organized according to task. Moreover, our task analysis indicates that in the case of leadership and instructional materials development, LAMSIG used multiple interdependent divisions of labor to complete the task. The analysis also points to a division of labor that we call *facilitated*, meaning that one or more partnership members are responsible for linking other members through a process.

Table 5 *LAMSIG Interdependence* 

Task	Interdependence type
Leadership	<ul> <li>Pooled for coordination of LAMSIG operations</li> <li>Parallel for leaders' efforts to change their own organizations to support K-12/IHE partnership</li> </ul>
Instructional materials design	<ul> <li>Parallel for LAMSIG instructional materials development</li> <li>Pooled or sequential for content and pedagogy design</li> </ul>
Professional development design	<ul> <li>Pooled for decision making about professional development design</li> <li>Parallel for unit-specific institute design</li> </ul>

To explain how we made these judgments, we provide the following case example. By design, the LAMSIG collaborative instructional materials design procedure begins when LAUSD administrators and UW-Madison science immersion team members pool their knowledge about standards, policy, and curriculum design to identify possible areas for improved curriculum units through informal analysis of LAUSD textbooks and instructional guides. Next, an Immersion Unit Advisory Team (IUAT) is convened from the LAMSIG group. IUAT members work together in both face-to-face and virtual meetings to negotiate common language, key issues, and immersion unit design. LAMSIG IUATs range in size from 7 to 12 members. Within each IUAT, a UW-Madison science immersion team member introduces other team members to instructional design methods and materials (e.g., mapping a conceptual flow, using design templates), thereby linking members in a process that facilitates instructional materials design. The UW-Madison team member is primarily responsible for producing the immersion unit, while other members review and critique it. This facilitated design process allows IUAT members to question and negotiate the content and pedagogy integrated into their immersion unit.

Although each IUAT pooled cross-organizational resources to design immersion units, LAMSIG's division of labor during instructional materials design is best described as parallel. While instructional materials design tasks were under way, three separate but coordinated IUATs

operated within LAMSIG. Each IUAT worked independently and asynchronistically through similar processes toward the common goal of developing one science immersion unit per K–12 school year. With any designed procedure, situations often dictate variation in actual use. As noted above, LAMSIG used the intended collaborative design procedure for two middle school unit designs (Plate Tectonics for sixth grade, and Density and Buoyancy for eighth grade), but not for the third (Variation and Natural Selection for seventh grade). Due to time restrictions, this third unit was written entirely by SCALE science immersion team members and reviewed and critiqued by K–12 administrators and IHE faculty members in the IUAT. Despite this variation in process, each IUAT was characterized by a division of labor and exhibited both pooled and sequential interdependence.

This evidence of LAMSIG routine and interdependence suggests that according to our definition LAMSIG is a partnership. However, the case also raises questions about the sufficiency of our definition:

- We observed that LAMSIG twice enacted formalized leadership, instructional materials design, and professional development design procedures. Is a single iteration an adequate indicator that a routine has been established?
- The case suggests that LAMSIG represents a departure from previous IHE and K-12 relationships in the region, but our data collection occurred within a year of LAMSIG formation. Do we have adequate evidence that cross-organizational work has become routine?
- We note that LAMSIG's divisions of labor were differently configured according to task, but our partnership definition does not take partnership flexibility or dynamism into account. Should it?

## Evidence of Mutuality of LAMSIG Benefits

Our definition of K–20 partnerships also highlights the importance of mutual benefit, meaning that participating organizations and their representatives receive something of worth as a result of partnership activity. While the term *partnership* frequently connotes equal sharing of benefits, observation of partnerships indicates that not all partners view partnership participation as equally beneficial (Gulati & Gargiulo, 1999; Kingsley & Waschak, 2005; Smedley, 2001). Partners may receive different types of benefits from participation, may weight these benefits quite differently, and may receive different proportions of benefits based on participation or risk.

To determine if LAMSIG provided mutual benefits and, if so, how equal the benefits were, we turned to interviewee responses to questions pertaining to benefits, such as (a) why they persisted in LAMSIG and (b) what they learned, if anything, from participation and how they learned it. Responses to these questions resulted in statements like the following:

Then, there is the real mundane thing, which is I want to keep the [science field] department healthy, and to do that I need people who are going to get into college and do well. Unless we have good teaching happening in seventh, eighth, and ninth grade, we're not going to have them. [STEM faculty member]

Interview data analysis helped us identify (a) what types of benefits were received, (b) who received which type, and (c) from whom. In the examples above, the LAUSD subdistrict administrator received tailored curriculum units from the entire LAMSIG group, and the STEM faculty member believed he would receive better quality students, eventually, as a result of teachers' use of immersion units. Table 6 displays results from our analysis.

Table 6
Benefits Mentioned by LAMSIG Interviewees

Who received	What received	From whom/what
		K–12 administrators,
	Legitimacy and power	group participation
		UW-Madison science
K–12 teachers		immersion team, K–12
K-12 teachers	Instructional moves and tools	teacher colleagues
	Knowledge of available resources	STEM faculty
	Content knowledge	STEM faculty
	High-quality curriculum units	Group participation
		K–12 teachers, STEM
	Knowledge of available resources	faculty
	Insights on teacher experiences	K–12 teachers
		UW science immersion
	National perspective on instructional change	team
	Knowledge of how to design and conduct high-	UW science immersion
K-12	quality teacher professional development	team
administrators	Assistance in sending a coherent message about	UW science immersion
adillilistrators	district instructional policies	team
		K–12 administrator
	Resources and strategies for instructional change	colleagues
	Content knowledge	STEM faculty
	Improved teacher quality through IHE change	STEM faculty
	Deepened understanding of science inquiry	Group participation
	High-quality curriculum units	Group participation
		K–12 teachers, K–12
	Knowledge of K–12 teaching and administration	administrators
	Knowledge of how to motivate students	K–12 teachers
		UW-Madison science
STEM faculty	National perspective on instructional change	immersion team
	Knowledge of available resources	STEM faculty colleagues
	Knowledge of how people learn science	Group participation
	High-quality curriculum units	Group participation
	Better quality students, eventually	Group participation
UW-Madison	Access and knowledge to test ideas	Group participation
science	Vehicle for sustaining change effort beyond	
immersion	SCALE	Group participation
team	Feedback on ideas, materials	Group participation
Court	Knowledge of district systems	Group participation

Table 6 suggests LAMSIG participation resulted in mutual benefit because individuals from each of the represented organizations received some knowledge, political capital, and materials that could be used in their work in their home institution. The benefits were received both from colleagues in other organizations and from role group colleagues (i.e., teacher to teacher, faculty to faculty) with whom they reported having limited opportunities to interact within their organization. Additional data collection and analysis would be needed to learn how different groups weighted these benefits, if specific benefits were associated with different LAMSIG interventions, or if these benefits resulted in changes in practice in the participants' home organizations.

#### **Conclusions**

The National Science Foundation and the U.S. Department of Education are emphasizing K–20 partnerships in an effort to hasten the pace of instructional quality improvements and organizational change in K–12 districts and IHEs. Evaluators and researchers are ascertaining the effects, if any, of partnerships and their interventions on student achievement, teacher quality, and organizational change. This paper raises questions about our ability to associate important changes with partnership, given the ambiguity of the term that is evident from our literature review.

We sought to diminish this ambiguity by, among other things, distinguishing K–20 partnership from other forms of social interactions among K–12 districts and IHEs. We formulated a partnership definition and tested it against a case of successful K–20 partnership. Our definition of partnership is:

A K–20 partnership is an organization (i.e., a social entity in which people routinely engage together in tasks) that is formed through a formalized agreement among partners, comprising at least one actively engaged college/university and one actively engaged K–12 school district and is intended to accomplish mutual benefits that the partners, alone, could not accomplish.

In unpacking this definition, we identified the presence of shared goals, formal agreements, active cross-organizational membership, cross-organizational and interdependent work routines, and mutual benefits as attributes of K–20 partnerships. From our perspective, all of these features must be present for a group to be considered a K–20 partnership.

Our case-based proof-of-concept study focused on a SCALE working group that expert nominees consider to be a good example of K–20 partnership and for which we have some independent measures of success. Results from the proof-of-concept study suggest that our definition is adequate, in that all identified criteria were found to be present and we did not find other features at work that were not addressed by the criteria. Analysis of interviews, observation, and document review data indicates that LAMSIG members included people representing a K–12 district and three IHEs and that these people used routines to jointly carry out agreed-upon tasks and achieved results that benefited all the participants and their home organizations.

The case raises questions about the sufficiency of our K–20 partnership definition, however. Specifically, we noted that the LAMSIG routines, division of labor, goals, and benefits changed during the course of data collection and with shifts in the group's tasks. We also observed differences in the number of shared goals, mutual benefits, and iterations of LAMSIG's curriculum design protocol. This suggests LAMSIG changed over time, while maintaining its value to the diverse and emergent interests of its participants. LAMSIG met basic criteria for K-20 partnership, but evidence of sustainability while changing suggests, possibly, an additional criterion or level of organizational functioning beyond basic.

While we offer a definition of K–20 partnership, we do not provide a taxonomy that describes, in observable and measurable language, variations in characteristics above the most basic level. A taxonomy might be useful to practitioners who seek to design K–20 partnerships that will effectively influence present organizational or regional educational situations. Developing a taxonomy likely would require additional research to further explore our definition and determine how partnerships vary according to the constructs developed above. Such research would be particularly useful when identified characteristics can be associated with effective outcomes such as organizational, teacher quality, or student learning improvements.

# **Bibliography and References Cited**

- Allexsaht-Snider, M., & Deegan, J. G. (1995). Educational renewal in an alternative teacher education program: Evolution of a school-university partnership. *Teaching & Teacher Education*, 11(5), 519–530.
- Amaldoss, W., & Meyer, R. J. (2000). Collaborating to compete. *Marketing Science*, 19(2), 105–126.
- Badiali, B., & Flora, R. (2000). Beyond collaboration: Accounts of partnership from the Institute for Educational Renewal based at Miami University. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 75(3), 145–160.
- Barnett, M., & Higgenbotham, T. (2006). International Conference of the Learning Sciences.
- Bitter, C. S., Levine, R., & Mitchell, J. (2004, April). *University and K–12 school partnerships: How does one make this happen?* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego, CA.
- Blackler, F., Crump, N., & McDonald, S. (2000). Organizing processes in complex activity networks. *Organization*, 7(2), 277–300.
- Bohen, S. J., & Stiles, J. (1998). Experimenting with models of faculty collaboration: Factors that promote their success. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, *100*, 39–55.
- Brinkerhoff, J. M. (2002). Assessing and improving partnership relationships and outcomes: A proposed framework. *Evaluation and Program Planning*, 25(3), 215–231.
- Briscoe, C., & Prayaga, C. (2002). Teaching future K–8 teachers the language of Newton: A case study of collaboration and change in university physics teaching. *Science Teacher Education*, 88, 947–969.
- Bullough, R., & Kauchak, D. (1997). Partnerships between higher education and secondary schools: Some problems. *Journal of Education for Teaching: International Research and Pedagogy*, 23(3), 215–234.
- Carlone, H., & Webb. S. (2005). On (not) overcoming our history of hierarchy: Complexities of university/school collaboration. *Science Education*, *90*, 544–568.
- Catelli, L., Padovano, K. & Costello, D. (2000). Action research in the context of a school-university partnership: Its value, problems, issues and benefits. *Educational Action Research*, 8(2), 225–242.
- Clark, R. (1988). School-university relationships: An interpretive review. In K. A. Sirotnik & J. L. Goodlad (Eds.), *School-university partnerships in action: Concepts, cases and concerns* (pp. 32–66). New York: Teachers College Press.

- Clarke, C. (2003). Partnership and collaboration: A bibliography to support 'Partnerships: benefits, limitations and doing it better'—an LSDA policy seminar. London, UK: Learning and Skills Development Agency.
- Clifford, M. (2007). *A literature review on K–20 partnerships: What we know and how we know it.* Madison: University of Wisconsin–Madison, Wisconsin Center on Education Research.
- Consortium for Policy Research in Education. (2000). *Bridging the K–12/postsecondary divide* with a coherent K–16 system (CPRE Policy Brief). Philadelphia: Author. Retrieved November 27, 2007, from http://www.cpre.org/images/stories/cpre\_pdfs/rb31.pdf
- Cross, R., & Borgatti, S.P.(2001). Beyond answers: Dimensions of the advice network. *Social Networks*, 23, 215–235.
- Cyert, R. M., & March, J. G. (1963). A behavioral theory of the firm. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Das, T. K., & Teng, B. S. (2001). Trust, control, and risk in strategic alliances: An integrated framework. *Organization Studies*, 22(2), 251–283.
- Davies, B. G. (2004). *Public/private partnerships in education: Their nature and contribution to educational provision and improvement.* Nottingham, UK: National College for School Leadership. Retrieved November 27, 2007, from <a href="http://www.ncsl.org.uk/mediastore//image2/randd-davies-partnerships.pdf">http://www.ncsl.org.uk/mediastore//image2/randd-davies-partnerships.pdf</a>
- Davis, B. H., & Higdon, K. A. (2005). School/university partnership: Supporting beginning teachers' inquiry in urban school settings. *Teaching & Learning*, 19(2), 100–116.
- Davis, K., & Feldman, A. (2003). Wearing the letter jacket: Legitimate participation in a collaborative science, mathematics, engineering, and technology education reform project. *School Science and Mathematics*, 103(3), 121–134.
- Denning, K. A., & Shastri, K. (1993). Changes in organizational structure and shareholder wealth: The case of limited partnerships. *The Journal of Financial and Quantitative Analysis*, 28(4), 553–564.
- DiMaggio, P., & Powell, W. (1991). *The new institutionalism in organizational analysis*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Doz, Y. L. (1996). The evolution of cooperation in strategic alliances: Initial conditions or learning processes? *Strategic Management Journal*, *17*, 55–83.
- Druckman, R., & Peterson, L. M. (2002). Partnerships with K–12 education. *New Directions for Higher Education*, 120, 11–18.
- Dutta, S., & Weiss, A. M. (1997). The relationship between a firm's level of technological innovativeness and its pattern of partnership agreements. *Management Science*, 43(3), 343–356.

- Eckel, P. (1998). Thinking differently about academic departments: The academic department as a team. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 100, 27–37.
- Edelen-Smith, P. J., & Smith, G. J. (2002). The nature of the people: Renewing teacher education as a shared responsibility with colleges and schools of education. *Remedial and Special Education*, 23(6), 336–349.
- Eisenhardt, K. M. (1989). Building theories from case study research. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(4), 532–550.
- Engestrom, Y. (2000). Activity theory as a framework for analyzing and redesigning work. *Ergonomics*, 43(7), 960–974.
- Epanchin, B. C., & Colucci, K. (2002). The professional development school without walls: A partnership between a university and two school districts. *Remedial and Special Education*, *6*, 350–359.
- Essex, N. L. (2001). Effective school-college partnerships, a key to educational renewal and instructional improvement. *Education*, 121(4), 732–737.
- Farrell, J., & Scotchmer, S. (1988). Partnerships. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 103(2), 279–297.
- Firestone, W. A., & Fisler, J. L. (2002). Politics, community, and leadership in a school-university partnership. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *38*(4), 449–493.
- Fisher, K., & Fisher, M. D. (1997). The distributed mind: Achieving high performance through the collective intelligence of knowledge work teams. New York: AMACOM.
- Frymier R. J., & Flynn, R. (1992). *School-university collaboration*. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.
- Geertz, C. (1983). "From the native's point of view": On the nature of anthropological understanding. In C. Geertz, *Local knowledge: Further essays in interpretive anthropology* (pp. 55–70). New York: Basic Books.
- Giddens, A. (1984). The constitution of society. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Ginsberg, R., & Rhodes, L. K. (2003). University faculty in partner schools. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 54(2), 150–162.
- Gomez, M., Bissell, J., Danziger, L., & Casselman, R. (1990). *To advance learning: A handbook on developing K–12 Postsecondary partnerships*. Lanham, MD: University Press of America.
- Goodlad, J. I. (1988). School-university partnerships: Rationale and concepts. In K. A. Sirotnik & J. I. Goodlad (Eds.), *School-university partnerships in action: Concepts, cases and concerns* (pp. 3–31). New York: Teachers College Press.

- Goodlad, J. I. (1991). School-university partnerships. *The Education Digest*, 56(8), 58–61.
- Grant, R. M. (1996). Toward a knowledge-based theory of the firm. *Strategic Management Journal*, 17, 109–122.
- Greenlaugh, T., & Robert, G. (2004). Diffusion of innovations in service organizations: Systematic review and recommendations. *The Milbank Quarterly*, 82(4), 581–629.
- Grundy, S., & Robison, J. (2001). Interrupting the way things are: Exploring new directions in school/university partnerships. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 29(3), 203–217.
- Gulati, R., & Singh, H. (1998). The architecture of cooperation: Managing coordination costs and appropriation concerns in strategic alliances. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 43(4), 781–814.
- Gulati, R., & Gargiulo, M. (1999). Where do interorganizational networks come from? *American Journal of Sociology*, 104(5), 1439–1496.
- Halliday, J., & Asthana, S. N. (2004). Evaluating partnership: The role of formal assessment tools. *Evaluation*, 10(3), 285–303.
- Halverson, R., & Clifford, M. (2006). Evaluation in the wild: A distributed cognition perspective on teacher assessment. *Education Administration Quarterly*, 42(4), 578–619.
- Hamel, G. (1991). Competition for competence and inter-partner learning within international strategic alliances. *Strategic Management Journal*, *12*, 83–103.
- Hardy, B., Hudson, B., & Waddington, E. (2004). Assessing strategic partnership: The partnership assessment tool. London: Nuffield Institute for Health.
- Holmstrom, B., & Roberts, J. (1998). The boundaries of the firm revisited. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 12(4), 73–94.
- Huberman, M. (1990). Linkage between researchers and practitioners: A qualitative study. *American Educational Research Journal*, 27(2), 363–391.
- Hutchins, E. (1995). Cognition in the wild. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Kingsley, G., & Waschak, M. (2005, September). Finding value and meaning in the concept of partnership. Paper presented at the National Science Foundation Math & Science Partnership Evaluation Summit, Minneapolis, MN.
- Kingsley, G., & O'Neil, D. V. (2004, March). *Performance measurement in public-private partnerships: Learning from praxis, constructing a conceptual model.* Paper presented at the 65<sup>th</sup> annual conference of the American Society for Public Administration, Portland, OR.

- Kirschenbaum, H., & Reagan, C. (2001). University and urban school partnerships: An analysis of 57 collaborations between a university and a city school district. *Urban education*, *36*(4), 479–504.
- Kirst, M., & Venezia, A. (2001). Bridging the great divide between secondary schools and postsecondary education. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 83(1), 92–97.
- Klijn, E. (1996). Analyzing and managing policy processes in complex networks: A theoretical examination of the concept policy network and its problems. *Administration & Society*, 28(1), 90–119.
- Kochan, T. A., & Rubinstein, S. A. (2000). Toward a stakeholder theory of the firm: The Saturn Partnership. *Organization Science*, 11(4), 367–386.
- Koput, K., Powell, W., & Smith-Doerr, L. (1996). Interorganizational collaboration and the locus of innovation: Networks of learning in biotechnology. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *41*(1), 116–145.
- Krasny, M. E. (2005). University K–12 science outreach programs: How can we reach a broad audience? *BioScience*, *55*(4), 350–359.
- Laguardia, A. (1999). A survey of school/college partnerships for minority and disadvantaged students. *The High School Journal*, 82(2), 97.
- Landal, C., & Ohana, C. (2006). *Emerging conceptions of effective K12–higher education partnerships*. Paper presented at the MSP RETA Summit, Minneapolis/St. Paul, MN.
- Lang, K., & Gordon, P. J. (1995). Partnerships as insurance devices: Theory and evidence. *RAND Journal of Economics*, 26(4), 614–629.
- Lehmann, T., & Ristuben, P. J. (1983). Colleges in partnership: Four ventures in successful program collaboration. *Journal of Higher Education*, *54*(4), 381–398.
- Lewison, M., & Holliday, S. (1997). Control, trust, and rethinking traditional roles: Critical elements in creating a mutually beneficial university-school partnership. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 24(1), 105–126.
- Li, S., & Rowley, T. (2000, August). *Popular, talented, and nice: How firms evaluate and select interorganizational partners*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Academy of Management, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.
- March, J. G., & Simon, H. A. (1958). Organizations. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Mariage, T. V., & Garmon, M. A. (2003). A case of educational change: Improving student achievement through a school-university partnership. *Remedial and Special Education*, 24(4), 215–234.

- Marlow, M., & Nass-Fukai, J. (2000). Collegiality, collaboration, and kuleana: Three crucial components for sustaining effective school-university partnerships. *Education*, 121(1), 188–194.
- Martinez, M., & Klopott, S. (2005). The link between high school reform and college access and success for low-income and minority youth. Washington, DC: American Youth Policy Forum.
- Mayers, C. M., & Schnorr, D. L. (2003). Getting it together: Effective strategies for university/school partnerships. *Education*, 124(1), 108–114.
- Mohr, J., & Spekman, R. (1994). Characteristics of partnership success: Partnership attributes, communication behavior, and conflict resolution techniques. *Strategic Management Journal*, *15*(2), 135–152.
- Nelson, T. H. (2005). Knowledge interactions in teacher-scientist partnerships: Negotiation, consultation, and rejection. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *56*(4), 382–395.
- Osthoff, E., Clune, W., White, P., Ferrare, J., Kretchmar, K., & Kelly, K. (2007). *Tentative findings of the SCALE study of middle school immersion in LAUSD: A conversation with LAUSD immersion professional development facilitators*. Madison: University of Wisconsin, Wisconsin Center for Education Research. Retrieved December 13, 2007, from <a href="http://www.scalemsp.org/files/research/Products/SCALE\_Gr\_Immersion\_Study\_Yr\_5">http://www.scalemsp.org/files/research/Products/SCALE\_Gr\_Immersion\_Study\_Yr\_5</a> report.pdf
- Peel, H. A., & Peel, B. B. (2002). School/university partnerships: A viable model. *The International Journal of Educational Management*, 16(7), 319–325.
- Podolny, J. M., & Page, K. L. (1998). Network forms of organization. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 24, 57–76.
- Pope, C., & Robert, G. (2006). Lost in translation: A multi-level case study of the metamorphosis of meanings and action in public sector organizational behavior. *Public Administration*, 84(1), 59–79.
- Provan, K. G., & Milward, H. B. (1995). A preliminary theory of interorganizational network effectiveness: A comparative study of four community mental health systems. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 40, 1–33.
- Radinsky, J., & Bouillon, L. (2001). Mutual benefit partnerships: A curriculum design for authenticity. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *33*(4), 405–430.
- Rakow, S. J., & Robinson, L. W. (1997). Public school/university partnerships. *The Education Digest*, 63(3), 64–69.
- Robinson, M. (2005). The theory of tensegrity and school/college collaboration in music education. *Arts Education Policy Review*, 106(3), 9–17.

- Robinson, S., & Darling-Hammond, L. (2005). Change for collaboration and collaboration for change: Reforming teaching through school-university partnerships. In L. Darling-Hammond (Ed.), *Professional development schools* (pp. 203–219). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Sandholtz, J. H. (2001). Inservice training or professional development: Contrasting opportunities in a school/university partnership. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 18(7), 815–830.
- Smedley, L. (2001). Impediments to partnership: A literature review of school–university links. *Teachers & Teaching*, 7(2), 189–209.
- Spillane, J. P., Camburn, E. M., & Pareja, A. S. (2007). Taking a distributed perspective on the school principal's workday. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 6(1), 103–125.
- Spillane, J., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J. (2001). Investigating school leadership practice: A distributed perspective. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *30* (3), 23–28.
- Thompson, J. D. (1967). Organizations in action: Social science bases of administrative theory. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Townsend, G. M., & Boca, A. M. (2003). Stories of collaboration: A middle school science teacher and a physics professor. *Education*, 123(4), 721–732.
- Trubowitz, S. (1986). Stages in the development of school-college collaboration. *Education Leadership*, 43(5), 18–21.
- Uzzi, B. (1997). Towards a network perspective on organizational decline. *The International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 17(7/8), 111–155.
- Vangen, S., & Huxham, C. (2003). Nurturing collaborative relations: Building trust in interorganizational collaboration. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 39(1), 5–31.
- Venezia, A., & Kirst, M. W. (2003). Fix K–16 disconnections, or betray the college dream. *The Education Digest*, 68(9), 34–39.
- Waddle, J. L., & Conway, K. D. (2005). School reform through a school/university partnership. *Current Issues in Education*, 8(8). Retrieved November 28, 2007, from http://cie.asu.edu/volume8/number8/index.html
- Walker, C. M., Gosz, J., & Huinker, D. (2006). *Measuring the effect of the Milwaukee Mathematics Partnership on student achievement*. Retrieved November 28, 2007, from <a href="http://hub.mspnet.org/index.cfm/12694">http://hub.mspnet.org/index.cfm/12694</a>
- Winkler, A., & Frechtling, J. (2005). *Evaluating new versus mature partnerships: How evaluation questions may change based on partnership longevity*. Retrieved November 28, 2007, from http://fom.mspnet.org/index.cfm/14101

Yanow. D. (2000). Seeing organizational learning: A 'cultural' view. *Organization*, 7(2), 247–268.

Yin, R. K. (1994). Case study research: Design and methods. New York: Sage.