

EFFECTIVENESS OF K-12 ADMINISTRATOR PREPARATION PROGRAMS:
A MIXED METHOD STUDY

A Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the

Degree of Doctor of Education

with a

Major in Educational Leadership

in the

Department of Graduate Education

Northwest Nazarene University

by

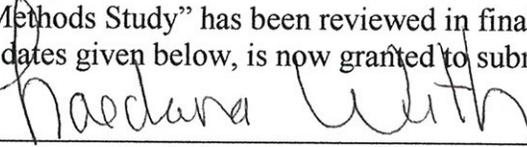
Sarah Hatfield

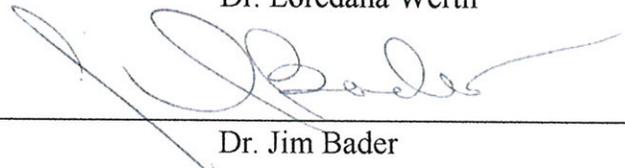
April 2013

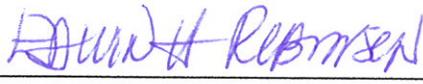
Major Professor: Loredana Werth, PhD, MS

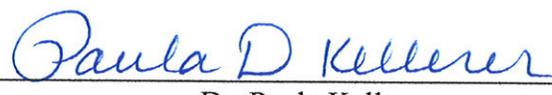
AUTHORIZATION TO SUBMIT
DISSERTATION

This dissertation of Sarah Hatfield, submitted for the degree of Doctor of Education with a major in Educational Leadership and titled "Effectiveness of K-12 Administrator Preparation Programs: A Mixed Methods Study" has been reviewed in final form. Permission, as indicated by the signatures and dates given below, is now granted to submit final copies.

Major Professor  Date 4/9/13
Dr. Loredana Werth

Committee Members  Date 4/9/13
Dr. Jim Bader

 Date 4/9/13
Dr. Edwin Robinson

Department Administrator  Date 4/9/13
Dr. Paula Kellerer

Discipline's College Dean  Date 4/9/13
Dr. Paula Kellerer

© Copyright by Sarah Hatfield 2013

All Rights Reserved

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to thank my parents, Dan & Cherry, for all of their support during this process. Without their help, this would not be possible. Thank you for mowing my lawn when I did not have time, cleaning my house when it became an absolute disaster and for always loving and supporting me. Thanks to Dr. Werth for all of her support and suggestions during this dissertation process. Also, thanks to my friend Ashley, for making this a stronger dissertation. Lastly, a big thank you goes out to all of those who participated in my study.

DEDICATION

This is dedicated to my Grandma Rose and my mom. My mom and Grandma Rose have always been a positive influence in my life and an example of what strong women look like. Sadly, my grandma passed away while I was working on my doctorate and never got to see me realize my dream. But I know that her spirit is with me supporting and cheering me on.

ABSTRACT

School principal preparation programs have the obligation to ensure administrators are ready for the challenges that face them on a regular basis. This study investigated the effectiveness of school principal preparation programs. The purpose was to determine specific areas for which K-12 administrators are unprepared and the role school principal preparation programs play in helping administrators feel prepared for their roles, responsibilities, and duties. Administrators are expected to lead a diverse population of students and staff members while maintaining a budget, meeting state and federal requirements, understanding education reforms, implementing technology, and being responsible for daily operations of a school. Through the use of a mixed-study, there were several areas participants identified as weaknesses in their principal preparation program. This study surveyed and interviewed administrators who were within their first three years of being an administrator. The most prepared responsibilities identified in this study were knowledge of school law, establishing and maintaining a vision and focus on a core set of organization goals, implementing research-based school improvement, maintaining a safe school, and developing high expectations for student learning. The least prepared responsibilities identified in the survey were dismissing staff members, developing the master schedule, developing the school calendar, and scheduling parent/teacher conferences. Interviewed participants identified creating a vision of learning, ethics, importance of diversity and equity, collaborating with stakeholders, creating a school culture, and addressing facilities/maintenance as the six ISSLC standards they were most prepared to handle. The five least prepared ISSLC standards were evaluating teachers to increase student achievement, using technology to increase student achievement, managing human resource and personnel, preparing a budget and managing finances, and evaluating curriculum and best practices.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
Chapter I Introduction.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	2
Background to the Study.....	3
Research Questions	4
Description of Terms	5
Significance of the Study	6
Delimitations.....	7
Limitations	7
Overview of Research Methods.....	8
Chapter II The Literature Review	9
Introduction.....	9
The Roles and Responsibilities of the K-12 Administrator	9
Traditional Administrative Preparation Programs	16
The Benefits of Mentoring Programs and Internships.....	20
Technology Impact on Administrative Preparation Programs.....	26
Challenges of New K-12 Administrators.....	31
Conclusion	33
Chapter III Design and Methodology	35
Research Design.....	35

Participants.....	38
Data Collection	42
Analytical Methods.....	46
Limitations	48
Roles of the Researcher	48
Protection of Human Rights and Approval.....	49
Chapter IV Results	
Introduction.....	51
Quantitative Results	52
Qualitative Results	70
Summary of the Results	83
Chapter V Conclusion	
Introduction.....	85
Summary of Results	86
Research Question #1	88
Research Question #2	92
Research Question #3	96
Conclusions.....	100
Recommendation for Further Research	101
Implications for Professional Practices.....	104
References.....	107
Appendix A.....	122
Appendix B.....	123

Appendix C	125
Appendix D	131
Appendix E	132
Appendix F	133
Appendix G	134
Appendix H	135
Appendix I	136
Appendix J	139
Appendix K	141

List of Tables

Table 1 <i>Functions of a Principal</i>	10
Table 2 <i>State Participants</i>	39
Table 3 <i>Grade Level Administrators</i>	40
Table 4 <i>Number of Participants in their Graduating Year</i>	41
Table 5 <i>Interview Participant Demographics</i>	42
Table 6 <i>Gender</i>	53
Table 7 <i>State Employed</i>	54
Table 8 <i>Number of Years as an Administrator</i>	55
Table 9 <i>Year Administrative Program was Completed</i>	55
Table 10 <i>State Principal Preparation Program Resided</i>	56
Table 11 <i>Types of Institution</i>	57
Table 12 <i>Current Grade Level of Administration</i>	57
Table 13 <i>Internship Requirement</i>	58
Table 14 <i>Gender Preparedness</i>	61
Table 15 <i>Internship Percentage</i>	62
Table 16 <i>No Significant Difference</i>	67
Table 17 <i>State Comparison with Statistical Difference</i>	68
Table 18 <i>Overall Preparedness</i>	69
Table 19 <i>Interviewed Participants</i>	70
Table 20 <i>Top Five Frequent Codes for Areas Least Prepared</i>	71
Table 21 <i>Top 3 Frequent Themes for Colleges/Universities</i>	72
Table 22 <i>Top 2 Frequent Codes Responsibilities Most Prepared</i>	77

Table 23 *Most and Least Prepared ISLLC Standards*80

List of Figures

Figure 1 *Overall Preparedness*.....68

Chapter I

Introduction

In the United States there are currently 190,000 K-12 administrators, 2,544,000 classroom teachers, and 53,277,000 students (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). It is the responsibility of the approximate three million K-12 administrators and teachers to ensure the 53 million students learn. Principals have always had the duty to ensure students at their school learn. However, the responsibilities of a principal have changed throughout the years. Principals were primarily viewed as managers in the early 1900's, with changes in laws, there is now an increased emphasis on student achievement, and more accountability. Principals are no longer managers, but leaders (Duncan, Range, & Scherz, 2011; Harris, Ballenger, & Leonard, 2004).

In 2002, the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) became law. It was a reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act that was first enacted in 1965 and then reauthorized in 1994 (U.S. Department of Education, 2004). NCLB encompassed many portions of education, but its core purpose is to increase student achievement and hold schools more accountable for student progress. The main goal of NCLB is to have all students be proficient on state tests by the 2013-2014 school year (U.S. Department of Education, 2004). Schools are given an Adequately Yearly Progress (AYP) status depending on how their students perform on the state standardized tests. If schools fail to receive AYP two years in a row, technical assistance will be available to support these schools and students are given a choice to attend a different public school. If the school fails to meet AYP after three years, educational services would be offered, with the chance the state government would intervene and make changes to the school. If a school fails to meet AYP, that failure falls on the shoulders of the K-12 administrator.

With the requirements of NCLB it is essential that administrative preparation programs prepare administrators for their responsibility to ensure that all students learn. Next to the classroom teacher, the school administrator has the most impact on student achievement (Blasé & Blasé, 2003; Castallo, 2001; Clifford, 2010; Duncan & Stock, 2010; Lambert, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Lewis et al., 2007; Lowe & Brigham, 2002; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005; Steiner & Kowal, 2007), so it is imperative that principal preparation programs produce effective administrators. In 1996, the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) formed the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) who was in charge of creating standards that addressed the school administrator as the education leader of the school (Council of Chief State School Officers, 1996).

Statement of the Problem

The roles, responsibilities, and duties of a K-12 administrator are numerous. If administrators are not ready for their new role as a school leader then the school can suffer. The purpose of this mixed study was to investigate if principal preparation programs are effectively preparing new administrators for their many roles and responsibilities. Administrators' responsibilities include, but are not limited to, daily operations of their school, budgets, student discipline, evaluations of teachers and staff, student achievement, maintaining a safe school environment (Adamowski, Therriault, & Cavanna, 2007; Daresh, 2007; Duncan & Stock, 2010; Shoho & Barnett, 2010; Styron & LeMire, 2009). It is the responsibility of the principal preparation program to ensure that future administrators are ready for their new roles as principal. However, there seems to be a consensus that principal preparation programs are not meeting the requirements that are necessary for a principal to be successful (Basom & Yerkes, 2004; Bingham & Gottfried, 2003; U.S. Department of Education, 2000; The Education

Alliance at Brown University, 2003; Farkas, Johnson, & Duffet, 2003; Levine, 2005; Quinn, 2005). It is important to identify areas of the principal preparation program that can be improved in order to produce the most effective school administrators.

Background to the Study

The purpose of this mixed study was to investigate if principal preparation programs are effectively preparing ethical and reflective administrators for their many roles and responsibilities. There are approximately 500 principal preparation programs (Young & Brewer, 2008) responsible to ensure that the 500,000 K-12 Administrators (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012) are prepared for their responsibilities as a school leader. The job description of an administrator has changed over the years from that of a manager to that of a leader (Harris et al., 2004). In the early 1900s, administrators performed clerical tasks, managed the school, and started maintaining the school budget. As legislation changed during the 60's and 70's, the principal had to ensure that laws were being followed (Harris et al., 2004). Now in the 21st century principals implement policies that influence performance (Styron & Lemire, 2009) and effective administrators are known as visionaries, change initiators, and problem solvers (Harris et al., 2004).

There are many different ways for principal preparation programs to prepare future administrators. Most states require some type of internship to obtain administrative licensure (Alsbury & Hackmann, 2006; Daresh, 1995; Education Commission of the States, 2011; Silver, Lochmiller, Copland & Tripps, 2009). Through these internship opportunities, future administrators can learn skills, techniques, and methods that can give them the experience they need to become an effective administrator. With the advances in educational technology, future administrators do not even have to leave their home in order to obtain their administrative degree

(Chi-Sing & Beverly, 2008; Choi, Browne-Ferrigno, & Muth, 2005; Dabbagh, 2004). Online education has become more and more popular, especially with those in rural areas (Chi-Sing & Beverly, 2008; Choi et al., 2005), and it is proving to be just as effective as the traditional manner of brick and mortar education (Chapman, Diaz, Moore, and Deering, 2009; Gallagher & Poroy, 2005; The Sloan Consortium, 2011). Regardless of how future administrators obtain their administrative certificate, whether it be through distance learning or brick and mortar learning, the quality of the principal preparation program is imperative to ensure that the administrator is effective in their new position as a school leader.

Research Questions

Creswell (2008) states, “research questions narrow the purpose into specific questions that the research would like answered or addressed in the study” (p. 70). Several research questions will help explore the topic at hand in further details. The central research question of this research study is:

How are principal preparation programs developing future administrators for their duties and responsibilities?

The two sub questions for this study are:

1. What areas are novice-administrators ill-prepared for when beginning a new K-12 administrative role?
2. How can principal preparation programs better develop future principals for their duties and responsibilities?

Description of Terms

There are numerous terms, definitions, and acronyms in the field of education. Even those in the education field may find them confusing. Researchers use operational definitions to define variables (Creswell, 2008). An operational definition is defined as “the specification of how you will define and measure the variable in your study” (p. 160). The following terms are used throughout this research study.

Adequate yearly progress (AYP). AYP is a measure by which schools, districts, and state are held accountable for student performance under No Child Left Behind. There are several elements that define the yearly progress. They include: state tests, graduation rate, benchmarks for student progress, measurements for reading, language and math, and at least 95 percent of each subgroup (economically disadvantaged, students with disabilities, English-language learners, and each subgroup of racial classification) (Education Week, 2011).

Administrator. An administrator within a school district is usually the superintendent, principal, and vice-principal/assistant principal. Some school districts consider special education directors, curriculum directors, and instructional coaches administrators. For this study, the term administrator will reference a principal, assistant principal and directors.

Certificate/License. In order for teachers to become an administrator they must receive their certificate/license. Depending on the state future administrators attend their principal preparation program, will determine if they receive a certificate or license, however, these terms are synonymous. Each state has their own requirements for obtaining an administrative certificate/license.

Council of chief state school officers (CCSSO). The CCSSO is a nonprofit organization who head departments of elementary and secondary education in the United States, the District

of Columbia, the Department of Defense Education Activity and the five U.S. extra-state jurisdictions: American Samoa, Bureau of Indian Education, Northern Mariana Islands, Puerto Rico, and Virgin Islands (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2012).

Interstate school leaders licensure consortium (ISLLC). The ISLLC is a program under the CCSSOO who was charged with creating standards for school leaders (Council of Chief State School Officers, 1996). The ISSLC standards were created to ensure that the education leaders' primary responsibility is to improve teaching and the learning of all children.

Internship. Most states require students in an administrative program at a university or college to complete an internship during their administrative program. The hours and duties that a prospective administrator must complete vary from state to state and from university to university.

Mentoring. Various school districts have a mentoring program in place for new administrators. The mentor may be another administrator at the school where the new administrator is employed, or the mentor may be an administrator at another school within the same school district.

No child left behind (NCLB). NCLB is the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1994 (Education Week, 2011).

Significance of the Study

It is imperative that K-12 administrators are prepared for their position as elementary, middle or high school principals. The roles, responsibilities and duties of a K-12 administrator are vast and the learning curve of new principal is enormous. The responsibilities of the principals include, but are not limited to, the daily operation of the school, the budget, discipline of the students, staff evaluations, and most importantly student achievement. If a new

administrator is unprepared for the myriad of responsibilities that they are now required to perform for their new position as a school leader then the school may suffer. If a future administrator is improperly trained, the school may experience such issues as improper budgeting, low teacher morale and decreased retention (Meyer & Macmillan; 2011; Protheroe, 2006; Schmidt-Davis & Bottoms, 2011). Also, student achievement can suffer, which in turn can have an impact on a school's Adequate Yearly Progress and their funding. Principal preparation programs need to ensure that the skills necessary for administrators to be effective are being taught in their program. This study can impact principal preparation programs in the way they develop future administrators. Changes in principal preparation programs may occur after the results of this study are analyzed.

Delimitations

This study employs a mixed method design that included participants from seven Western states including Idaho, Nevada, Montana, Oregon, Utah, Washington and Wyoming. All participants were within their first three years as a K-12 administrator. The quantitative survey was piloted with seven principals who provided feedback about the quality and validity of the survey questions. The qualitative component of this study included open-ended questions on the survey and interviewing eight principals all within their first three years of being a principal. The study included two interviews with each participant for a total of 16 interviews.

Limitations

Marshall and Rossman (2011) note the limitations of a study allows the readers make a decisions about its usefulness. The limitations to this study would be that participants in this study were all K-12 administrators within the seven Western states and may not represent the

entire United States. In addition, race, age, gender, and ethnicity may have impacted the results obtained from this study.

Overview of Research Methods

In order to answer the research questions, a mixed-method investigative study was thought to be the best research method to answer the research questions. Participants were administrators within their first three years as an administrator. All participants were located in Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming. The quantitative portion of the study was an electronic survey that was distributed to all administrators within those seven states. The participants were asked to rank their principal preparation programs on a likert scale from 1-5. The results of the quantitative study were then analyzed using a Mann-Whitney *U* test, with the level of statistical significance set at $p < 0.05$ for all statistical analysis. A Cohen's *d* was calculated to determine the effect size for each comparison.

The qualitative portion of this investigative study included interviewing eight administrators twice, for a total of 16 interviews, and open-ended questions on the electronic survey. The eight participants were located in Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming. Each participant was within their first three years of being an administrator. The first round of interviews occurred during October 2012 and November 2012. The second round of interviews occurred during November 2012 and December 2012.

Chapter II

The Literature Review

Introduction

A typical progression of principals is to obtain their teaching certificate, teach for a few years, then obtain an administration degree and become an administrator. Teachers who pursue careers in administration have their own reasons for becoming an administrator (Adams & Hambright, 2004; Barton, 2011; Bass, 2006; Cranston, 2007; Shoho & Barnett, 2010). But regardless of why a teacher goes into administration, the success of her school will fall on her shoulders. The responsibilities of a K-12 administrator are daunting and new administrators may find themselves unprepared for their new role as a school leader. K-12 Administrators are responsible to manage their school budget, evaluate staff members, maintain the day to day operations of the school and be the instructional leader (Adamowski et al., 2007; Chan, Webb, & Bowen, 2003; Daresh, 2007; Duncan & Stock, 2010; Styron & LeMire, 2009). Therefore, if a principal is unprepared for any of those responsibilities, the school may experience an influx of students, inadequate funding, or poorly qualified teachers. The responsibility to ensure administrators are ready for their new responsibilities as the leader of their school falls on the shoulders of the principal preparation programs.

The Roles and Responsibility of the K-12 Administrator

The duties and tasks of a K-12 administrator are numerous including budgeting, managing, scheduling, disciplining, evaluating teachers, working with parents, organizing, being the instructional and curriculum leader, and implementing a vision (Adamowski et al., 2007; Chan et al., 2003; Daresh, 2007; Duncan et al., 2011; Duncan & Stock, 2010; Styron & LeMire, 2009). According to the 130 assistant principals that Chan et al. (2003) surveyed, curriculum

development, instructional support, teacher observation/evaluation, maintaining a safe climate, and meeting with parents are the five most important responsibilities of a school principal.

Communication, instructional leadership, and curriculum development were identified as the three most important skills of a principal (Chan, et al. 2003).

Table 1 lists the 21 functions of a principal that Adamowski et al. (2007) identified in their study of 33 principals.

Table 1

Functions of a Principal

Functions of a Principal	Functions of a Principal
Determining number/type of faculty & staff	Determining extracurricular activities
Allocating resources	Program adoption decision
Hiring	Curriculum pacing and sequencing
Teacher pay or bonuses	Methods and materials
Assigning teachers	Student discipline policies/procedures
Transferring unsuitable teachers	Controlling student dress
Discharging unsuitable teachers	Parent involvement requirements
Assigning non-instructional duties	Time spent on instruction vs. operational issues
Teacher and student calendar	Controlling the school facility
Controlling school calendar	Engaging in private fundraising
Allocating time for instruction	

The ranking of importance of each of these functions varied among those surveyed. Hiring, assigning teachers, discharging unsuitable teachers, transferring unsuitable teachers, and time spent on instruction versus operational issues were viewed as the five most important

functions of an effective school leader (Adamowski et al. 2007). Even though those five functions were deemed the most important, Adamowski et al. (2007) found the control a principal has over those functions varied. The amount of great deal of control a principal had over these functions ranged from 6.67% to 33.33% (Adamowski et al. 2007). Time spent on instructional vs. operational issues had the highest amount of control with 33.33%, followed by hiring and assigning teachers with 26.67% and transferring or discharging unsuitable teachers with 6.67% (Adamowski et al. 2007).

In addition, Marzano et al. (2005) identified 21 responsibilities of an effective school leader. Although the authors state that a K-12 administrator does not have to be accountable for all 21 responsibilities, they can be distributed among a leadership team. Marzano et al. (2005) note nine of the responsibilities are the principal's alone. These include optimizer, affirmation, ideals/beliefs, visibility, situational awareness, relationships, communication, culture, and input. All of the responsibilities are important, but situational awareness, outreach, monitoring/evaluating, flexibility, and discipline have a direct correlation to student achievement (Marzano et al., 2005).

The most important responsibility of the K-12 administrator is that of the instructional leader (Blase & Blase, 2003; Castallo, 2001; Lambert 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Lewis, Cruzeiro, & Hall, 2007; Lowe & Brigham, 2002, Marzano et al., 2005; Reames, 2010). The Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) revamped the standards for establishing high quality instruction and organization learning set by the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) as the following (Clifford, 2010):

- Strategically allocate staffing and other resources to areas of high need
- Closely monitor teaching and learning quality

- Establish and maintain a vision and focus on a core set of organizational goals
- Build trust and professional community among educators
- Ensure that schools are safe learning environments for students and staff
- Use data to reflect upon and improve classroom and organization practices

The ISSLC standards consist of six standards with each standard containing between three and nine functions (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008). The six standards include:

- An education leader promoted the success of every student by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by all stakeholders.
- An education leader promotes the success of every student by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.
- An education leader promoted the success of every student by ensuring management of the organization, operation, and resources for safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.
- An education leader promotes the success of every student by collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.
- An education leader promotes the success of every student by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.
- An education leader promotes the success of every student by understanding responding to, and influencing the political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008).

Administrators are responsible for the learning of all students within the walls of their school including but not limited to those with disabilities, those that are gifted, the homeless, the “normal,” and those whose first language is not English. Gaziel (2007) states, “principals influence student learning indirectly by developing a school mission that provides an instructional focus for teachers throughout the school, and this creates a school environment that facilitates student learning” (p. 19). Lewis et al. (2007) assert it is the principals major responsibility to ensure all students are learning no matter where that learning is taking place. Soehner and Ryan (2011) state “it is our job to ensure that the learning environment is conducive for both teachers to teach and students to learn” (p. 279). Besides the classroom teacher, the principal has the most influence on student achievement (Blasé & Blasé, 2003; Branch, Rivkin, & Hanushek, 2013; Castallo, 2001; Clifford, 2010; Duncan & Stock, 2010; Lambert 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Lewis et al., 2007; Lowe & Brigham, 2002; Marzano et al., 2005; Steiner & Kowal, 2007). Student achievement can be raised or lowered depending on the quality of administrator (Branch et al., 2013). Branch et al. (2013) found that highly effective administrators raised student achievement in a single year, where as ineffective principals lowered student achievement in that same period of time.

Instructional leaders use their training, experience, and education to help improve instruction of teachers. Hidalgo (2005) and Green (2010) note in order for the administrator to be the instructional leader, administrators need to communicate what is incorporated in good teaching. Constant and ongoing communication with teachers to ensure effective instruction is needed (Soehner & Ryan, 2011). Administrators need to express their expectations for instruction practices, grading, and student achievement (Hidalgo, 2005). The use of supervision and evaluation as part of being the instructional leader is time consuming for the administrator,

but when implemented correctly, the benefits far outweigh the negatives (Hidalgo, 2005; Lewis et al., 2007). With the use of proper instructional leadership, teachers improve their teaching which in turn means that students are more likely to learn (Lewis et al., 2007). Instructional leadership behaviors that will increase student learning include making instructional suggestions to teachers, providing professional development opportunities, giving feedback, modeling effective instruction, supporting collaboration, soliciting opinions, and praising effective teaching (Blasé & Blasé, 2000). Gaziel (2007) suggests that “schools that make a difference in students’ learning are led by principals who make a significant contribution to the effectiveness of staff and in the learning of pupils in their charge” (p. 18).

Effective school administrators are not only the instructional leader of the school, they also set directions of the school by building a shared vision and creating high expectations for both students and staff, along with developing people by providing support and resources to staff members (Protheroe, 2011). Six hundred and fifteen college students identified leadership, communication, caring, understanding, and knowledge as the top five characteristic traits of effective principals according to Schulte, Slate and Onwuegbuzie (2010). Vanderhaar, Munoz, and Rodosky (2006) list the three most effective leadership practices as situational awareness, intellectual stimulation, and input. While Nettles and Herrington (2007) claim that effective principals have eight common traits including: communicating the school’s mission consistently, developing standards for teaching and learning, providing clear goals, being visible, recognizing the schools focus is teaching and learning, building a culture of trust and sharing, not accepting ineffective teachers, and having an effective staff. Schulte et al. (2010) use adjectives to describe the top five characteristics of an effective administrator as the following:

- Leader: Team leader, authoritative, supports staff, supervisor, leads by example, knows what is going on, management skills, and empowers others.
- Communication: Good communication skills, straight-forward, good communication between all stakeholders, provides feedback, and reads body language.
- Caring: Compassionate, giving, kind, nurturing, and thoughtful.
- Understanding: Sympathetic, understand students, and comprehends.
- Knowledgeable: Knows subject, knows changes in education, knowledge of developmental stages, knowledge of students needs, and informed.

The Southern Regional Education Board identified 13 factors that are crucial to being a good leader (Butler, 2008). The thirteen factors are:

- Create a mission
- Set high expectations
- Encourage quality instruction
- Implement a caring environment
- Use data
- Keep focused
- Involve parents
- Understand change
- Use sustained professional development
- Organize time and resources
- Use resources
- Seek support

Becoming an effective administrator does not happen overnight. It can take years before an administrator obtains the skills necessary to be considered effective. The natural progression to be an effective administrator is first become a teacher and then attend a quality principal preparation program.

Traditional Administrative Preparation Programs

There are approximately 500 university programs that offer principal preparation programs that include Masters, Specialist's, and Doctoral degrees (Young & Brewer, 2008). These universities are responsible for preparing administrators for their roles and responsibilities. Harris (2006) found in her survey of 69 award-winning principals that preparation programs need to incorporate the six themes. The six themes are described as leadership with a mission, leadership for a positive campus culture, leadership to communicate and collaborate, leadership for curriculum and instruction, leadership for school improvement, and leadership for diversity (Harris, 2006).

In the first theme, the mission incorporates setting direction, developing people and re-designing the organization (Harris, 2006). The second theme described how a positive campus culture consists of a principal understanding the school's culture and change process before the principal can improve the tasks of teaching and learning in the school. Harris (2006) also states in this theme that positive school cultures stress student learning, have high expectations and support innovation. Effective communication, building trust, and appropriate decision-making strategies are all required to have a collaborative school culture. In the fourth theme of curriculum and instruction, several ways a principal influences instruction were identified. They included encouraging, recognizing and celebrating academic excellence, supporting faculty improvement, working with teachers in instructional improvement, providing resources, supplies

and materials, and sharing best practices (Harris, 2006). School improvement incorporates encouragement of individualized instruction, data-driven decision making, reconfiguring school schedules, focusing on alignment and articulation of curriculum, improving student-centered strategies, and involving parents. With regards to the diversity theme, Harris (2006) found that 40% of U.S. students are non-White, however only a small percentage of teachers are non-White, so it is imperative that principals support teaching that includes recognition of how culture influences education.

Davis and Jazzar (2005) in their study of 14 principal preparation programs found that seven habits emerged that were deemed to be most effective. The seven habits include:

- Providing relevant, standards-based, and job-embedded curriculum and instructional experience.
- Hopeful principals experience relevant and learning opportunities in their internship.
- Aspiring principals work with excellent principals who act as a coach, guide, or a resource.
- Providing collaborative activities that include internal networking, teamwork, and cooperative initiatives.
- Aspiring principals need to engage in authentic assessment that include justifying budget cuts, developing and defending a portfolio, and writing a student discipline letter.
- Aspiring principals are given opportunities to use a systemic approach to research-based decision making.
- Turnkey transitions.

With a focus on strong leadership skills and in-depth knowledge of leadership theory and best practices, these programs can produce administrators that are prepared for success (Davis &

Jazzar, 2005). The effectiveness of a principal preparation program can have a direct impact on the success of an administrator (Davis & Jazzar, 2005; Harris, 2006).

White, Hilliard, and Jackson (2011) state national concerns exist because of the shortage of qualified administrators. The aging administrative population, the lack of incentives to increase the number of school leaders, and the lack of professional development of school leaders are three reasons leadership training programs need to develop effective administrators (White, Hilliard, & Jackson, 2011). Although principal preparation programs are imperative for future administrators to be effective, there seems to be a consensus that principal preparation programs are not meeting the requirements that are necessary for a principal to be successful (Basom & Yerkes, 2004; Bingham & Gottfried, 2003; U. S. Department of Education, 2000; The Education Alliance at Brown University, 2003; Farkas et al., 2003; Levine, 2005; Oplatka, 2009; Paquette, 2004; Quinn, 2005). Farkas et al. (2003) found that 67% of principals reported their preparation programs were out of touch with the reality of what it takes for a principal to effectively lead a school. Ninety-six percent of the principals that Hess and Kelly (2005) interviewed stated that colleagues were more helpful in helping them prepare for their job than graduate studies. The Education Alliance at Brown University (2003) and Oplatka (2009) state theory that is taught at universities is not aligning with the practical skills necessary to be a leader of a school. The respondents in The Educational Alliance at Brown University (2003), described that universities were out of touch with what was required for running today's schools. Quinn (2005) contends that universities have not sufficiently prepared principals to take on the demands of school administration.

In 2000, the U. S. Department of Education described five reasons that principal preparation programs were failing. These reasons included weak and noncompetitive selection

criteria into the program, lack of focus on recruiting candidates who would make effective principals, low standards and minimal academic rigor, the programs rarely focus on K-12 achievement goals, and, finally, lack of formal induction programs and mentoring opportunities. However, the same U. S. Department of Education (2000) publication states five ways preparation programs can train effective leaders. They include:

- Develop specific standards for entry into administrator education programs
- Aggressively recruit experienced and exemplary teachers to become principals
- Develop state standards that define the critical components of effective administrator education programs and rigorously evaluate programs based on these standards
- Provide alternative paths to principal certification that maintain high standards through field-based, performance-oriented preparation and evaluation
- Ensure all new principals have the opportunity for high-quality induction that includes mentoring and feedback on performance (U.S. Department of Education, 2000).

Levine (2005) reiterated the findings of the study by the U. S. Department of Education (2000) by describing how universities contribute to the problem of ill-prepared principals because the universities compete for students. As a result, this suggests lowering standards, providing a non-rigorous curriculum, and non-demanding degree requirements. Lashway (2003) and Quinn (2005) state universities should not be recruiting potential candidate based on their GPA, letters of recommendations or interviews, but instead should accept students based on their knowledge of curriculum and instruction, their work ethic, communication skills and their passion about education.

Research has confirmed administrators have an impact on student achievement (Blasé & Blasé, 2003; Castallo, 2001; Duncan & Stock, 2010; Lambert, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008;

Lewis et al., 2007; Lowe & Brigham, 2002; Marzano et al., 2005; Steiner & Kowal, 2007).

However principal preparation programs need to do a better job of training principals to be the instructional leaders of the school (Bingham & Gottfried, 2003; U. S. Department of Education, 2000; Harris, 2006; Lashway, 2003). Bingham and Gottfried (2003) note that principal preparation programs need to be reformed because of the growth rates of principal retirement and resignation, increasing growth of school systems, diminishing pool of qualified principal candidates, and the unrelenting demands of principal work.

Programs designed to prepare K-12 administrators for their future roles cannot be successful if the novice administrator has certain flaws (Searby, 2009; Zenger & Folkman, 2003). Zenger and Folkman (2003), acknowledged five personal characteristics that can contribute to failure as an administrator. These characteristics include:

- Inability to learn from mistakes
- Lack of initiative
- Lack of accountability
- Lack of core interpersonal skills
- Lack of openness to new or different ideas

However, Searby (2009) states through internships and mentoring programs new administrators can overcome these flaws. Mentoring and internships allow future administrators to increase their confidence in decision-making, while giving them the opportunity to increase their socialization.

The Benefits of Mentoring Programs and Internships

Over half of the states in the United States of America have a policy requiring a mentoring or internship program for principals and/or superintendents (Alsbury & Hackmann,

2006; Daresh, 1995; Education Commission of the States, 2011; Silver et al., 2009). Each state has different requirement with regards to who is involved in the mentoring or internship program. The State of Washington required 560 hours (AWSP, 2013), Utah requires 450 (BYU, 2013), while Texas requires 160 hours (Region 7 Education Service Center, 2013). Even within the same state, the requirements for the internship can differ. For example, in the state of Indiana, before they accepted the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) standards, universities/colleges had different requirements for the internship (Black, 2011). In his study of 17 principal preparation programs in the State of Indiana, (Black, 2011) found that 11 programs required 150 hours or less for their internship, three programs had 300 hours, and one program reported 60 hours. Depending on the state the mentoring and/or internships is the responsibility of the state's education department, the university/college or individual school districts (Education Commission of the States, 2011).

A mentoring program does not have to be a part of the internship. Mentoring should focus on the roles, responsibilities, and specific practices of school leadership (Wilmore & Bratlien, 2005). Galbraith and Cohen (1995) define mentoring as:

Mentoring is a process within a contextual setting; it involves a relationship of a more knowledgeable individual with a less knowledgeable individual, provides professional networking, counseling, guiding, instructing, modeling and sponsoring, is a developmental mechanism, is a socialization and reciprocal relationship, and provides an identify transformation for mentoring and protégé (p. 91).

Duncan and Stock (2010) defines a mentor as someone who is a listener, role model, supporter, teacher, and advisor. A mentor to a novice principal could be an experienced

principal, a college professor, or a superintendent (Harris et al., 2004; Malone, 2001; Peters, 2010; Searby, 2010; Silver et al., 2009; Wilmore & Bratlien, 2005). A mentor performs many tasks including challenging efficiency, offers support, encourages risk taking, provides feedback and promotes individualism and independence (Harris et al., 2004; Malone, 2001; Peters, 2010; Searby, 2010; Silver et al., 2009; Wilmore & Bratlien, 2005). Selecting a mentor is an important step in the mentor or internship process. Malone (2000) and The Education Alliance at Brown University (2003) acknowledged that not every good principal makes a good mentor, so the process of choosing mentors needs to be done carefully. This was reiterated by Harris et al. (2004) when they stated that new principals need to be able to recognize proper leader behavior. Harris et al. (2004) found that mentor principals that had 11 or more years of experience significantly modeled behavior of instructional leadership through curriculum and planning more than principals with less than three years of experience. Mentor principals in rural schools were less likely to model instructional leadership than those in suburban schools (Harris et al., 2004).

Mentoring programs will benefit the new administrator, but it can also help the experienced administrator (Brown-Ferrigno & Muth, 2004; Malone, 2000). The benefits of mentoring to novice administrators include more confidence in their abilities, being better prepared, a better understanding of day-to-day operations, formed strategies for communicating with parents, strategies for data collection and problem solving (Brown-Ferrigno & Muth, 2004, Malone, 2000; Peters, 2010). Brown-Ferrigno and Muth (2004) claim that future administrators enter the administration field better prepared, more confident in their abilities, and are more competent about their practice after completing a mentoring program that occurred in an authentic setting. In Peters (2010) study, new administrators stated that the mentor helped them become a problem solver because they could develop strategies together and the mentor would

help them implement those strategies. Peters (2010) participants were all women who were participants in the first year of an Administrative Leadership Academy (ALA), which was created to address the needs for more principals and strong professional development. Each participant was paired with an experience administrator who was their mentor for the two-year program. Another benefit of mentoring and internships is that many new principals stated they would have felt alone or isolated had it not been for their mentor (Silver et al., 2009).

Mentoring and internships allow the new principal to become socialized as an administrator in a safe environment (Brown-Ferrigno & Muth, 2004; Duncan & Stock, 2010; Oplatka, 2009; Risen & Tripses, 2008; Silver et al., 2009). Duncan and Stock (2010) refer to socialization as the learning process of the cultural norms of an organization. Two types of socialization are identified in Duncan and Stock's (2010) research as professional and organization. Professional socialization occurs during the principal preparation programs where laws, procedures and process, technical skills, and core responsibilities are addressed (Duncan & Stock, 2010). Organization socialization occurs when a new principal learns how things are done within a school, district, and community (Duncan & Stock, 2010).

Peggy Hopkins-Thompson (2000) identified eight elements of effective mentoring:

- Organizational support
- Clearly defined outcomes
- Screening, selection, and pairing
- Training mentors and protégés
- A learner-centered focus
- An investment of time and commitment
- A sharing of information

- The creation and maintenance of a mutually enhancing relationship

These eight elements can help increase administrators effectiveness, eliminate the feeling of isolation that new administrators may feel, and provide a strong relationship for future collaboration (Duncan & Stock, 2010; Hopkins-Thompson, 2000).

There are many issues that can affect a mentoring program (Educational Alliance at Brown University, 2003; Malone, 2000; Peters, 2010; Searby, 2009; Silver et al., 2009; Wilmore & Bratlien, 2005). Searby (2009) notes that in order for mentoring to work, the novice administrators need to be able to set goals, communicate effectively, seek and act on feedback and reflect. Not only do the mentors need to be able to set goals, but there needs to be clearly defined visions, goals, and outcomes for the mentoring process (Wilmore & Bratlien, 2005). Ensher and Murphy (2005) encouraged new administrators to make preparations prior to becoming a protégé for a mentor. These ideas include having a plan, bringing something to exchange, making a good first impression, and communicating positively and passionately.

Most universities/colleges require some sort of internship hours in their principal preparation program. The number of hours required for the internship can vary from state to state and can also vary between universities/colleges within a state (Black, 2011). Anast-May, Buckner, and Geer (2011) and the Southern Regional Education Board (2005) state internships are essential for future administrators, even though, these internships are not giving future leaders the experiences that they need to become an effective school leader. The purpose of the internship is to give future administrators real world experience that will prepare them for their roles as a school leader (Anast-May et al., 2011; Educational Leadership Program Standards, 2011; Risen & Tripses, 2008). The Educational Leadership Program Standards (2011) states “relentless connections to, and emphasis on, real or simulated district experiences in regard to

resources, methods and assessments will greatly facilitate graduate's ultimate success as a district leader" (p. 6). In order for future administrators to succeed they must be given a chance to not only participate in school district activities, but they must be given the opportunity to lead activities (Anast-May et al., 2011; Educational Leadership Program Standards, 2011; Risen & Tripses, 2008; Southern Regional Education Board, 2005). Gutmore, Gutmore, and Strobert (2009) state through internships, pre-service principals gain the knowledge and skills needed to become leaders. Interns needs a chance to lead activities such as modeling effective instruction, school-community group, evaluate teaching practices, curriculum initiatives and develop professional development as part of the continuous school improvement plan (Anast-May et al., 2011; Risen & Tripses, 2008; Southern Regional Education Board, 2005).

Universities and school districts have implemented mentoring and internships for novice administrators, however, many times these programs are not sufficient for novice administrators to obtain the skills necessary to become effective administrators because of the lack of opportunity to do the internship on a full-time basis (Duncan et al., 2011; Wilmore & Bratlien, 2005). On many occasions, teachers are teaching full-time and taking classes while trying to complete the internship requirements (Duncan et al., 2011; Wilmore & Bratlien, 2005). Another barrier to effective mentoring is a lack of incentive for the mentor or a lack of financial compensation (Duncan et al., 2011; Wilmore & Bratlien, 2005). Risen and Tripses (2008) also state that there may be a limited choice of qualified mentors. Mentors give up their time to counsel and support the new administrator and do not receive any financial benefits (Wilmore & Bratlien, 2005). However, Duncan and Stock (2010) claim that although formal mentoring programs can be time consuming and expensive, with the benefits of a mentoring program, school districts cannot afford not to provide support for the new administrators.

Technology Impact on Administrative Preparation Programs

With technological advances, principal preparation programs have changed significantly (Dabbagh, 2004). These programs no longer need to occur in the traditional fashion but instead can take place with aspiring principals hundreds of miles away from each other (Asunda, 2010; Chi-Sing & Beverly, 2008; Dabbagh, 2004). In fact, they do not even have to be in the same country. Online programs have significantly helped those in rural areas where the access to universities is limited (Chi-Sing & Beverly, 2008; Choi et al., 2005). Online programs can be structured in a variety of ways, with numerous names, but the two most common structures seem to be distance learning (DL) and blended/hybrid courses (Asunda, 2010; Choi et al., 2005; The Sloan Consortium, 2005; The Sloan Consortium, 2011). Distance learning occurs when all classes are online whereas a blended/hybrid course consists of both online activities and face-to-face instructions (Asunda, 2010; Choi et al., 2005; The Sloan Consortium, 2005; The Sloan Consortium, 2011). Online participation of web-based courses at higher education institutions grew from 1.9 million students in 2003 to 2.4 million in 2005 to over 6 million in 2011 (The Sloan Consortium, 2005 & 2011). Thirty-one percent of all students in college take at least one online class and of the 2,500 colleges surveyed, 65% reported that online learning was vital to their long-term strategy (The Sloan Consortium, 2011).

Online instruction appeals to a variety of potential K-12 administrators because of the flexibility in location, flexibility in scheduling, and the individualized attention from the instructor (Asunda, 2010; Chapman et al., 2009, Chi-Sing & Beverly, 2008; Korach & Agans, 2011; Matthews, 1999; Moody, 2004). Chapman et al. (2009) found that 63.4% of their participants stated that online learning was more convenient than traditional face-to-face instruction. In addition, 46.4% believed that their online program prepared them for their

administrative duties (Chapman et al., 2009). Chi-Sing and Beverly (2008) identified four attributes of individuals that choose to use online programs, which include:

- Individuals with family or work constraints.
- Individuals who live in cities and worry about the commute time to campus.
- Students who wish to take classes from various universities.
- Individuals who wish to obtain a broader perspective on issues from other individuals from different geographic areas.

With the increase of online degree available, there is some concern about the lack of research regarding the credibility of online degree programs (Huss, 2007). In his study of 220 Texas A & M University faculty members, Huss (2007) noted most professors had a favorable experience with teaching online. There was an expressed concern with the learning curve associated with teaching online, the amount of time involved with teaching online, and the overall quality of the courses (Huss, 2007). However, The Sloan Consortium (2011) stated 60% of the academic leaders believed that the learning outcomes of online learning were the same as face-to-instruction, with another 20% believing the online learning outcomes were superior to face-to-face instruction.

Accessibility and flexibility are two of the main reasons individuals choose to enroll in online education programs; however, there are more benefits than just those two reasons (Chapman et al., 2009; Chi-Sing & Beverly, 2008, Korach & Agans, 2011; Matthews, 1999; Moody, 2004). Online discussions appear to be one of the most positive aspects of online learning (Chi-Sing & Beverly, 2008; Korach & Agans, 2011). With their investigation into a blended online program, Korach and Agans (2011) found online discussion requires the learner to reflect, and to develop self-discipline and organization skills. Korach and Agans (2011) go

onto state that online discussion “forces the student to develop and consistently practice of pre-thinking and adopt a formal, more precise and hence, clear communication style” (p. 228).

Korach and Agans (2011) identified three factors that occur in order for communication to take place:

- The instructional design must be intentional to allow for online discussion
- The expectations, standards, and norms must be in place and set by the instructor
- The level and nature of the interaction is clearly defined

In fact, Korach and Agans (2011) believe the influence of others in discussions is decreased and individuals have more power over their own voice, which in turn, promotes a more equitable learning environment. Improved interaction between the instructor and students is another positive aspect of online learning (Chi-Sing, 2008; Korach & Agans, 2011). Students can watch lectures or videos repeatedly to ensure that they have understood all of the information, access to syllabus and assignments is available at any time, and interaction between students and students or student and teacher increases with the use of discussion boards or the use of other multimedia software (Chi-Sing & Beverly, 2008).

Research varies on the topic of whether face-to-face classes are more effective than online learning or if online learning is better than face-to-face (Chapman et al., 2009; Gallagher & Poroy; 2005; Kim & Bonk, 2006; The Sloan Consortium, 2011). Gallagher and Poroy (2005) note in their national study of 541 education students that 38% were unsure about the quality of the online classes compared to the campus-based classes, 30% noted the classes were equal, 29% thought that the online learning was inferior to the campus-based classes and 3% thought the online learning was superior to the campus-based classes. More than half of those surveyed by Chapman et al. (2009) stated that perceived face-to-face instruction and online learning were

about the same. Over half of the 2500 surveyed in a recent study believed that online courses and face-to-face courses were about the same, with approximately 20% stating that online courses were superior to the face-to-face courses (The Sloan Consortium, 2011). In their study of 562 college instructors and administrators, Kim and Bonk (2006) found that 39% believed online courses would be the same to traditional instruction by 2013 and 47% believed that online courses would be superior to face-to-face instruction by 2013. Forty-six percent of those surveyed in the Chapman et al. (2009) study stated they would be well prepared for their duties as an administrator if their entire program was online.

While online education makes it convenient for students to receive their degree, there seems to be concern by employers about their potential employees. Dolezalek (2003) noted that employers believed that online programs were good for teaching research skills and theory, but were lacking in providing hands-on experience. In fact, Adams and DeFleur (2006) found employers were significantly less likely to hire potential employees who had received their degree solely online; 96% reported that they would hire the candidate who had earned their degree through traditional coursework. When asked if they would hire a candidate who had received their degree through a hybrid online course and the traditional degree, 75% stated they would prefer the candidate with the traditional degree (Adams & DeFleur, 2006).

All 75 principals that Huss (2007) interviewed stated they would feel somewhat concerned or very concerned if a candidate for a teaching position had received their degree fully or almost fully online. In addition, if it came down to two candidates, one with a traditional degree and one with an online degree, all of the principals stated they would hire the candidate with the traditional degree (Huss, 2007). Ninety-five percent of those principals surveyed also stated they felt online teaching degrees did not carry as much credibility as the traditional degree.

However, with regards to principal preparation programs, Chapman et al. (2009) found 68.3% believe online delivery is just as credible as face-to-face instruction with 7.3% finding online delivery more credible. According to Huss (2007), some of the concerns the principals had regarding the online teacher degrees were:

- Students who selected an online program in the first place may be too independent and less collaborative.
- Students themselves did not receive meaningful opportunities to participate in face-to-face exercises and thus could not project that into their classroom.
- Universities cannot possibly know if a student has integrity, character, or is personable if all the communication and learning is online with no face-to-face interaction.

As the demand for administrators increases due to retirement or resignations (Schmidt & Davis, 2011), colleges and universities are going to have to rely more and more on online programs to deliver their principal preparation programs. With the convenience, rigor, and success that online programs can provide (Chapman et al., 2009; Gallagher & Poroy, 2005; Kim & Bonk, 2006; The Sloan Consortium, 2011), colleges and universities are going to need to provide an online principal preparation program that prepares future administrators for their new roles and duties.

Even with the use of traditional preparation programs, internships, mentoring, and online programs new, K-12 administrators are still facing challenges. These challenges include state and federal paperwork, inadequate training, time demands, teachers, and parents (Adamowski et al., 2007; Bingham & Gottfriend, 2003; Carpenter & Laseter, 1999; Drago-Severson & Pinto, 2004; Duncan & Stock, 2010; Fields & Egley, 2005; Lashway, 2003; Manges & Wilcox, 1997; Painter,

2001; Schrum, Galizio, & Ledesma, 2011; Shoho & Barnett, 2010). . These challenges are something that all new administrators face as they begin their career in administration.

Challenges of New K-12 Administrators

Administrators face challenges whether they are new or experienced. The challenges administrators can face include poor training, inadequate funding, staffing issues, demands from parents and community, adjustment to personal life, state mandates, insufficient time, lack of technology skills, feelings of isolation, and lack of power (Adamowski et al., 2007; Bingham & Gottfriend, 2003; Carpenter & Laseter, 1999; Drago-Severson & Pinto, 2004; Duncan & Stock, 2010; Fields & Egley, 2005; Lashway, 2003; Manges & Wilcox, 1997; Painter, 2001; Schrum, Galizio, & Ledesma, 2011; Shoho & Barnett, 2010). New administrators face their own unique challenges. Many new administrators feel isolated as they begin their new endeavor as an administrator (Armstrong, 2010; Fields & Egley, 2005; Lashway, 2003; Retelle & Poole, 2006). New administrators go from being a teacher where they had the support of their fellow teachers to a position of an administrator where there may only be one other person from whom to seek advice (Armstrong, 2010; Lashway 2003; Retelle & Poole, 2006). Mentoring can help alleviate this feeling of isolation (Brown-Ferrigno & Muth, 2004; Duncan & Stock, 2010; Silver et al., 2009); however, not all school district have a mentoring program.

Another challenge new administrators face is with the staff members themselves (Armstrong, 2010; Barnett, Shoho, & Oleszewski, 2012; Lashway, 2003; Retelle & Poole, 2006). Armstrong (2010) found in his study of eight vice-principals that the vice-principals had been promoted to that of an administrator because of their instructional skills and curriculum expertise, but teachers would ignore the suggestions that the vice-principals made concerning their instructional practices. In some cases, teachers would undermine the authority of the vice-

principal by going to the principal or making comments about the vice-principals lack of administrative experience (Armstrong, 2010; Fields & Egley, 2005; Anonymous, 2010).

Barnett et al. (2012) found in their study that 30% of novice and experience vice-principals stated teacher and staff issues as challenging. Even when a teacher becomes an administrator at the school in which they taught, teachers can be a challenge for new administrators (Fields & Egley, 2005; Retelle & Poole, 2006). Fields and Egley (2005) noted one of their participants claiming, “Teachers that I have known for years are now treating me differently” (p. 7). However, according to Anonymous (2010), there are several steps that a new administrator can take that will help decrease push-back from staff members, including:

- The use of shared leadership model
- Upholding integrity
- Clear communication
- Administrator expressing their own reservations

Many new administrators find special education as a challenge (Lasky & Karge, 2006; Shoho & Barnett, 2009; Styron & Lemire, 2009). Styron and LeMire (2009) found of the 374 new administrators, 50% of them stated they were not prepared for the tasks associated with special education. With regards to special education students, administrators felt more comfortable with disciplining special education students than they did with managing Individualized Education Plans (IEPs) and special education testing (Styron & LeMire, 2009).

An additional challenge new administrators are unprepared for is the amount of time that their new job requires (Fields & Egley, 2005; Barnett et al., 2012; Shoho & Barnett, 2010). Approximately 50% of Fields and Egley (2005) participants stated that they are spending more time at work than they had previously, with 25% stating that they were spending less time with

their family. Shoho and Barnett (2010) concluded that having young children, a long commute between home and school, and coursework to obtain additional certification or degrees increased the difficulty of maintaining a balance between professional and personal life. In fact, many new principals felt guilty about missing important milestones in the lives of their families and friends because of professional responsibilities (Shoho & Barnett, 2010). In a study conducted by Barnett et al. (2012), workload was deemed the most challenging aspect of both novice and experience administrators.

Many of the challenges new administrators may face can be due to the lack of training in their principal preparation program, a lack of an induction period, improper mentoring, or their own personal characteristics (Basom & Yerkes, 2004; Bingham & Gottfried, 2003; U. S. Department of Education, 2000; The Education Alliance at Brown University, 2003; Farkas et al., 2003; Lashway, 2003; Lasky & Karge, 2006; Levine, 2005; Malone, 2000; Paquette, 2004; Peters, 2010; Quinn, 2005; Searby, 2009; Silver et al., 2009; Wilmore & Bratlien, 2005; Zenger & Folkman, 2003). However, Peddy (2009) gives five strategies that new administrators can employ to help them have a good first year. The five strategies are dress for success, use data, seek feedback, stay positive, and think reflectively.

Conclusion

Many factors exist that can determine an administrator's effectiveness, including mentoring, induction process, personal characteristics, but the principal preparation program is probably the most influential. Principal preparation programs can occur in brick and mortar buildings, online, or a combination of both. The requirements between principal preparation programs can differ from state to state and even university to university. All potential administrators must attend a principal preparation program, so the majority of the training that is

needed to be an effective administrator is the responsibility of the preparation program.

Implementing the ISSLC standards, ensuring principals have the skills necessary to effectively lead a school and creating financially responsible managers are just a few of the responsibilities that principal preparation programs need to ensure are

Chapter III

Design and Methodology

Research Design

This study incorporated a mixed method design. Creswell (2008) defines mixed methods research design as “procedures for collecting both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study, and for analyzing and reporting this data based on a priority and sequence of the information” (p. 642). Borkan (2004) refers to mixed methods research as a study or line of inquiry that integrates both qualitative and quantitative techniques for data collection.

Quantitative research can be described as establishing through research an overall tendency of opinions, beliefs, or responses from individuals and then describing how these tendencies vary among people (Creswell, 2008). Qualitative research differs in that it explores topics where there is little known about the variables and more exploration is needed (Creswell, 2008). Data collection between the two types of research varies. Quantitative research relies more on numeric data, closed-ended questions, collecting data from large numbers of individuals and using present questions and responses (Borkan, 2004; Creswell, 2008). Qualitative research collects data from small numbers of individuals using words and images for the data and uses open-ended questions through the use of techniques such as interviews, focus groups, and observations (Borkan, 2004; Creswell, 2008).

Mixed method design can provide a better understanding of the research problem and question when both qualitative and quantitative methods are combined than if the methods were performed by themselves (Creswell, 2008; Creswell & Garrett, 2008). A mixed methods study is used when neither qualitative nor quantitative research alone can answer a research question or problem completely (Creswell, 2008). After comparing a qualitative study, quantitative study

and a mixed study, Powell, Mihalas, Onweugbuzie, Suldo, and Daley (2008) found the utilization of mixed methods strengthens the study, with the qualitative data of the interviews complimenting the survey results, which allowed for richer interpretations.

The quantitative study for this research included an electronic survey asking administrators to rank their preparedness on 29 responsibilities using a likert-scale ranging from 1 to 5, with 1 being strongly disagree and 5 being strongly agree. The survey was created using the software Qualtrics. Prior to distribution, the electronic survey was piloted with seven administrators who had been a principal for more than four years, but less than ten years and were not a part of the study. The seven principals who were piloted were colleagues and professional acquaintances of the researcher. They received the survey in August 2012 with feedback received in September 2012. The survey was then modified using the feedback from the pilot participants.

The purpose of a pilot test is to identify problems and make modifications, if necessary, to ensure that the data is not flawed or inaccurate (Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). Piloting the survey with subjects similar to the participants in the survey ensured content validity (Golafshani, 2003; Radhakrishna, 2007; Roberts, Priest, & Traynor, 2006; Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). Golafshani (2003) states to ensure validity and reliability in a quantitative study, two things must occur. First, the results must be replicable and second, the means of measurement are accurate and that they are measuring what they are intending to measure (Golafshani, 2003). To ensure reliability of any questionnaire or survey, a pilot test must be carried out (Radhakrishna, 2007). Radhakrishna (2007) states there are five questions that should be addressed to ensure validity of the questionnaire:

- 1) Is the questionnaire valid? In other words, does the questionnaire measure what it intended to measure?
- 2) Does it represent the content?
- 3) Is it appropriate for the sample/population?
- 4) Is the questionnaire comprehensive enough to collect all the information needed to address the purpose and goals of the study?
- 5) Does the instrument look like a questionnaire?

After the survey was piloted, adjustments were made according to the feedback received from the seven participants.

The quantitative electronic survey (Appendix C) was distributed to administrators in seven Western states including Idaho, Nevada, Montana, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming. Participants who completed the survey were K-12 principals within the first three years of being a school administrator. The qualitative component of this study included interviews and open-ended questions on the survey of principals within their first three years of being an administrator. There were a total of 16 interviews among eight participants, with each interviewed being recorded and transcribed. Surveys, interviews, and open-ended questions (see Appendix C, D, and E) were used as the data gathering procedures to assure that triangulation was occurring. Triangulation occurs when there is a convergence, corroboration, correspondence and/or results from different methods (Bryman, 2006; Patton, 2002). To strengthen a study, several methods or data can be combined including both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Patton, 2002). Triangulation is also used to strengthen a study (Bryman, 2006; Patton, 2002). Bryman (2006) and Marshall and Rossman (2011) maintain triangulation is used to ensure that the study is credible. Bryman (2006) and Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007) add credibility is

employed when more than one approach of research is used to enhance the integrity of the findings.

There are several forms of qualitative methods including, but not limited to, human ethology, holistic ethnography, and cognitive anthropology (Creswell, 2008; Lester, 1999; Marshall & Rossman, 2011). For this study, a phenomenological approach was used. Marshall and Rossman (2011) and Lester (1999) state that phenomenological approaches use the individual lived experience of the participants to explore, describe, and analyze those individual situations. The main source of exploration for this study was in-depth phenomenological interviews. Participants described their lived experience as a new administrator and how their preparation program prepared them for duties as an administrator. Powell et al. (2008) would describe this type of study as a fully mixed sequential, dominant status-qualitative design where the qualitative phase of the study is given higher priority when both quantitative and qualitative methods occur with data collection, analysis, and interpretation stages of the research.

Participants

Exactly 54 K-12 administrators from Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming who were within their first three years of being an administrator participated in the survey. However, participants may have received their administrative education in a different state than the ones listed. Forty-four percent were from Idaho, 18.5% from Montana, 11.1% from Nevada, 3.7% from Oregon, 5.5% from Utah, 11.1% from Washington and 3.7% from Wyoming. Fifty percent were female, 48.1% male and 1.8% selected not to identify their gender. Table 2 outlines the respondents from each state, including gender and the number of years they have been an administrator. The largest number of

participants (n=20) were in their second year as an administrator. Nineteen participants were in their first year as an administrator and 16 were in their third year.

Table 2

State Participants

State	Total Respondents	Female	Male	1 st Year	2 nd Year	3 rd Year
Idaho	44.4% (n=24)	20.37% (n=11)	24.07% (n=13)	16.66% (n=9)	12.96% (n=7)	14.81% (n=8)
Montana	18.5% (n=10)	7.40% (n=4)	11.11% (n=6)	9.25% (n=5)	7.40% (n=4)	1.85% (n=1)
Nevada	11.11% (n=6)	5.55% (n=3)	3.70% (n=2)	3.70% (n=2)	3.70% (n=2)	3.70% (n=2)
Oregon	3.70% (n=2)	3.70% (n=2)	0%	0%	1.85% (n=1)	1.85% (n=1)
Utah	5.55% (n=3)	1.85% (n=1)	3.70% (n=2)	0%	3.70% (n=2)	1.85% (n=1)
Washington	11.11% (n=6)	9.25% (n=5)	1.85% (n=1)	1.85% (n=1)	3.70% (n=2)	5.55% (n=3)
Wyoming	3.70% (n=2)	1.85% (n=1)	1.85% (n=1)	1.85% (n=1)	3.70% (n=2)	0%
Blank	1.85% (n=1)	0%	1.85% (n=1)	1.85% (n=1)	0%	0%

Table 3 outlines the number of participants by grade level. There were 15 (27.77%) K-5 administrator, 17 (31.48%) K-6 administrators, three (5.55%) 6-8 administrator, four (7.40%) 9-12 administrators, two (3.70%) 7-12 administrators and 13 (24.07%) administrators who identified themselves as other. The largest population of administrators came from elementary schools at 59.25% (n=32).

Table 3

Grade Level Administrators

State	K-5 Administrator	K-6 Administrator	6-8 Administrator	9-12 Administrator	7-12 Administrator	Other
Idaho	12.96% (n=7)	16.66% (n=9)	1.85% (n=1)	3.70% (n=2)	1.85% (n=1)	7.40% (n=4)
Montana	1.85% (n=1)	1.85% (n=1)	1.85% (n=1)	1.85% (n=1)	0%	11.11% (n=6)
Nevada	1.85% (n=1)	5.55% (n=3)	1.85% (n=1)	1.85% (n=1)	0%	0%
Oregon	1.85% (n=1)	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.85% (n=1)
Utah	3.70% (n=2)	1.85% (n=1)	0%	0%	0%	0%
Washington	5.55% (n=3)	3.70% (n=2)	0%	0%	1.85% (n=1)	0%
Wyoming	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	3.70% (n=2)
Blank	0%	1.85% (n=1)	0%	0%	0%	0%
Total	27.77% (n=15)	31.48% (n=17)	5.55% (n=3)	7.40% (n=4)	3.70% (n=2)	24.07% (n=13)

Fifty-five percent of surveyed participants have graduated within the last three years, with 11% graduating earlier than 2005 (Table 4). At 27.78% (n=15) the largest number of participants graduated in 2010. One (1.85%) participant graduated in 2006, followed by 2007 with 4 (7.40%). Twenty-four participants identified themselves as graduating in 2009 or earlier, but identified themselves as being a principal or in an administrative role for three or less years, which qualified them for this study.

Table 4

Number of Participants in their Graduating Year

Graduation Year	N	Percentage
2012	7	12.96%
2011	8	14.81%
2010	15	27.78%
2009	8	14.81%
2008	5	9.26%
2007	4	7.40%
2006	1	1.85%
2005 or earlier	6	11.11%

The qualitative component of this study included eight administrators who participated in two interviews for a total of 16 interviews. Table 5 illustrates the participants' current administrative position, number of years in their current position, the state their principal preparation program was located, and the state where they are currently employed. Pseudonyms have been given to participants to protect their privacy. There were two elementary principals, two middle school principals, one high school principal, two K-12/superintendents, and one special education director. All participants were within their first two years of being a principal or district administrator. Those interviewed were from Idaho (n=1), Montana (n=3), Oregon (n=1), Utah (n=1), and Wyoming (n=2). Two of the participants received their administrative education outside of the state where they are currently employed. Todd and Kristina attended their principal preparation programs in South Dakota and Texas, respectively.

Table 5

Interview Participant Demographics

Participant	Current Position	Grade Level	Years at Position	Principal Preparation State	State Employed
Jana	Principal/Superintendent	K-12	1.5	Montana	Montana
Todd	Principal	6-8	1.5	South Dakota	Wyoming
Kristina	Principal	K-5	1.5	Texas	Wyoming
Debbie	Principal	K-5	1.5	Utah	Utah
Angela	Principal/Superintendent	K-12	.5	Montana	Montana
Laney	Special Ed. Director	District Office	1.5	Oregon	Oregon
Alicia	Principal	6-8	1.5	Idaho	Idaho
Scott	Principal	9-12	.5	Montana	Montana

Participants ranged in age from 34-60, with six females and two males. The average numbers of years teaching prior to becoming an administrator was 12 years, with six years being the least number of years teaching and seventeen years being the most number of years teaching. All of those interviews, except one participant, had held other positions in the district besides teaching. Two participants were instructional coaches, three were assistant principals, one worked as a curriculum specialist for the state, and one as a district coordinator for their special education program.

Data Collection

Surveys for the quantitative study were sent to all administrators in Idaho, Montana, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming via e-mail using the Qualtrics software. E-mail addresses were found for the perspective states using the Department of Education websites.

Nevada's Department of Education website did not contain the administrator's e-mails.

However, the e-mail addresses for the superintendents were on the website. The researcher e-mailed each superintendent asking them to forward the survey to their administrators who fell within the criteria of being an administrator within their first three years.

An electronic survey (Appendix C) was distributed in September of 2012 with new principals within seven western states including Idaho, Nevada, Montana, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming. The survey was created in a likert scale format (Appendix C) and thus, the data was ordinal. Survey results were analyzed conducting a Mann-Whitney U using the IBM SPSS statistical software. The level of statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$ for all statistical analysis. A Cohen's d was calculated to determine the effect size for each responsibility that had a level of statistical significance at $p < 0.05$. The effect size calculator from the University of Colorado was used to complete the calculations (Becker, 2013). Effect size is a gauge of how strong or how important the results are (Ender, 2013). A large effect size indicates a large percentage of non-overlap between the groups being compared (Ender, 2013).

Cronbach's Alpha was also analyzed to measure the reliability of the questions in the survey. In other words, how closely related the survey questions are as a group. The Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient usually ranges from 0 to 1.0; the closer to 1.0 a score is the greater internal consistency the survey has (George & Mallery, 2003; Gliem & Gliem, 2003).

The qualitative portion of this study included open-ended questions on the survey and interviews with eight principals who were all within their first three years of being a K-12 administrator. Participants of the quantitative study were asked at the end of the survey if they would like to be a participant in the qualitative study. If a quantitative participant wished to be interviewed and observed in the qualitative study, they contacted the researcher by e-mail, which

was provided on the survey. Participants who elected to be a part of the qualitative study received a phone call (Appendix F) to ensure that they understood that the interviews would be recorded and notified if at any time they wished to leave the study they could. Participants in the qualitative study were interviewed twice for a total of 16 interviews. The first round of interviews were conducted in October 2012 and November 2012. The second round of interviews were conducted in November 2012 and December 2012. Appendix D outlines the questions developed for each set of interviews.

To ensure credibility, an audit trail was utilized (Carcary, 2009; Carlson, 2010; Crabtree, 2006). An audit trail entails keeping field observation and interviews notes, records, calendars and drafts of interpretations (Carcary, 2009; Carlson, 2010; Crabtree, 2006). To ensure reliability, the interviews were audio recorded using a digital recording device, transcribed, and then coded for themes (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). The purpose of coding for themes is to make sense of the data by collapsing codes into broad themes (Creswell, 2008). Prior to the interviews, each participant received a debriefing statement (Appendix E) to ensure that their data was analyzed correctly. After the interviews were transcribed, the participants were able to view the final transcript for themes and findings to ensure accuracy. This process is known as member checking. Appendix H showcases the form participants received, giving them instructions to review the report, themes, and provide feedback with any discrepancies noticed. Crabtree (2006) states member checking occurs “when data, analytic categories, interpretations and conclusions are tested with members of those groups from whom the data were originally obtained” (p. 1).

The survey (Appendix C) with new K-12 principals was conducted in September 2012. Surveys were e-mailed and a response rate was calculated with those that were returned. E-mails

were sent to all administrators in Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming, however, only administrators within their first three years of being an administrator were included in the survey results. E-mails for the administrators were found on the individual states Department of Education website and all surveys were anonymous. The survey questions were on a likert scale with choices ranging from 1 – 5 (Appendix C).

A total of 5,064 surveys were distributed with 340 surveys being completed. Of the 350 completed surveys, 54 were from administrators that fit the criteria. The return rate was 6.7%, however, the researcher expected a low return rate because not all recipients of the e-mail would fit the criteria. In the e-mail containing the link to the survey, it detailed the purpose of the research was to determine if new principals were prepared for their position as a principal. The researcher received e-mail correspondents from administrators who felt they had been an administrator for too long to remember what their program offered or that it was no longer relevant because of the change in how programs trained principals.

The eight K-12 administrators participated in the qualitative component of this study and were within the first three years of their administration role. These individuals were first interviewed (Appendix D) in October 2012/November 2012 and the second interview took place in November 2012/December 2013. To ensure confirmability, each interview was recorded, transcribed and then reviewed by the participants (Crabtree, 2006; Roberts et al., 2006). Confirmability is the degree to which results of the study can be confirmed by others (Crabtree, 2006; Trochim, 2006). The researcher personally transcribed the interviews within the week the interview took place.

Analytical Methods

The electronic survey (Appendix C) was analyzed using a Mann-Whitney U test with the statistical significance at $p < 0.05$. The IBM SPSS statistical software (IBM SPSS, 2013) was used for analysis. Tanner (2012) defines statistically significant “when an outcome isn’t likely to have occurred by chance” (p. 120). The Mann-Whitney U test is appropriate when both sets of scores are ordinal form, such as when a likert scale is used (Tanner, 2012). A Cohen’s d was calculated to determine the effect size for each responsibility at the $p < 0.05$ level when analyzed using a Mann-Whitney U .

Cronbach’s Alpha was utilized to determine internal consistency within the survey. An instrument is considered reliable if it has a Cronbach’s Alpha score at .70 or higher (George & Mallery, 2003; Gliem & Gliem, 2003). The closer the Cronbach’s Alpha is to 1.0 the higher the internal consistency (George & Mallery, 2003; Gliem & Gliem, 2003). Within the Cronbach’s, there is an item-total statistic that measures the relationship of individual items to the entire instrument (Assess Student; Item Analysis, 2011). The corrected item-total correlation is a correlation between an item and the rest of the instrument, if that item is not considered part of the instrument (Assess Student; Item Analysis, 2011). A corrected item-total correlation score can range from -1.0 to 1.0, with .30 as an acceptable corrected item-total correlation (Olatunji et al., 2007). If a corrected item-total correlation score for an item is below .30 this means that this item is not measuring the same thing as the rest of the instrument (Assess Student; Item Analysis, 2011).

For the qualitative study, the seven phases of analytical procedures described by Marshall and Rossman (2011) were used. The seven phases include: organizing the data, immersion in the data, generating categories and themes, coding the data, offering interpretations, searching for

alternative understandings, and writing the report (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). The organization of the data included transcribing each of the interviews using Microsoft Word and using an Excel spreadsheet to log the collected data, including date, name, type of data, and where the data was collected. Each transcript was read multiple times by the researcher to fully immerse herself in the information. After each interview was transcribed, they were then segmented into themes using a color coded system. Creswell (2008) states “the identification of themes provides the complexity of a story and adds depth to the insight about understanding individual experiences” (p. 521).

After data was collected, the researcher looked for similar themes between the data of the individual participants. During the coding process, the researcher recorded memos describing interpretations, which was used as a way to analyze the data, but to also use as a source of recognition for any bias that may have occurred. The researcher searched for alternative explanation that was contrary to the data obtained through the interviews and open-ended questions on the survey.

The final phase of Marshall and Rossman’s (2011) seven phases is the process of writing the analytical report. Analytical data along with participants’ narratives were interwoven throughout the report. To ensure themes were accurately portrayed, participants were able to view the final themes and report back any discrepancies. Member checking occurred in March 2013 with the use of Appendix H. Appendix H was the e-mail sent to interviewed participants that outlined the themes that emerged from the interviews. Feedback was received from seven of the eight interviewed participants stating that they felt the themes accurately portrayed the information that was given during the interviews. There was no feedback from participants stating that they did not agree with the themes. Crabtree (2006) states that member checking

helps establish credibility and reliability. Member checking provides participants an opportunity to correct errors (Crabtree, 2006).

Limitations

Marshall and Rossman (2011) note the limitations of a study allow the readers to make decisions about its usefulness. The limitations of this study would be that participants were all K-12 administrators within seven Western states and may not represent the entire United States. The number of years between their administrative program and becoming an administrator could impact their level of preparedness. In addition, some of the participants were performing administrative duties while attending their principal preparation program and could not remember if they learned something on the job or in their respective program. Another limitation of this study is the electronic survey was sent to all administrators, not just principals, so assistant principals, curriculum directors and other forms of administration may have completed the survey. Also, the number of participants from each state varied which could have an impact on the results. For example, the two participants from Wyoming may not be a true representation of Wyoming as a whole. In addition, race, age, gender, and ethnicity may have impacted the results obtained from this study. Seventy-five percent of interviewed participants were female compared with 25% male. Furthermore, 87% were Caucasian and 12% were Native American. The researcher did not ask the age of participants in either the qualitative or quantitative studies, so age could have impacted the results.

Role of the Researcher

The role of the researcher in a mixed study is to ask questions, collect detailed views, conduct surveys, and analyze information (Creswell, 2008). My role as the researcher was to immerse myself into the lives of these principals. I gathered information through in-depth

interviews, analyze that information, and then interpret its meaning into themes. My final role as the researcher was to present the findings in a report that is logically written and includes integrity, rigor, utility, and vitality (Marshall & Rossman, 2011).

I have taught business education and business technology for the past 13 years, with the last 11 years in a small rural school in Idaho whose population is students' grades 7-12. I received my bachelor's degree in business education from Eastern Oregon University in La Grande, Oregon. In addition, I received the following degrees from Northwest Nazarene University in Nampa, Idaho: Masters in Curriculum and Instruction (2002) and Education Specialist in Building Leadership (2011). My educational philosophy is all students deserve an exemplary education regardless of race, ethnicity or socio-economic status. In the past 11 years, I have had five principals, and personally would only consider one of those principals satisfactory. It would be difficult to decipher if these principals were inadequate due to their personalities or because they were not given the tools they needed in their principal preparation programs to succeed.

Protection of Human Subjects and Approval

The researcher must maintain ethics at all time and using ethical research practices must be adhered to always (Creswell, 2008; Orb, Eisenhauer, & Wynaden, 2001; Ramcharan & Cutcliffe, 2001). Creswell (2008) states, "Ethically conducting research requires researchers to actively interpret these principals for their individual projects, tailoring these ethical guidelines to suit the unique context of their research" (p. 13). The researcher must ensure data is reported accurately and honestly without being changed or altered (Creswell, 2008; Orb, Eisenhauer, & Wynaden, 2001; Ramcharan & Cutcliffe, 2001). This research was successfully approved by Northwest Nazarene University's Human Research Review Committee (HRRC). The approval

number was 7062012 and all participants voluntarily selected to participate in this study.

Appropriate consent forms were distributed and signatures obtained to protect each participant (see Appendix A).

Chapter IV

Results

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine areas for which K-12 administrators are unprepared and the role the principal preparation programs played in helping administrators be more prepared for their roles, responsibilities, and duties. A mixed-study was deemed to be best suited for this study. Powell et al. (2008) found the utilization of mixed methods strengthens the study, with the qualitative data of the interviews complimenting the survey results, which allowed for richer interpretations. Creswell (2008) and Creswell and Garrett (2008) also state the benefits of performing a mixed method design is that it can provide a better understanding of the research problem and question when both qualitative and quantitative methods are combined than if the methods were performed by themselves.

The quantitative portion of this study utilized a five point likert scale, from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Participants identified their level of preparedness in 29 key areas. The 29 key areas were identified from the literature review, especially the work of Adamowski et al. (2007) and Marzano et al. (2005). The K-12 administrators who took part in the study were also asked to rank their overall preparedness and how engaged they were during their administrative program. At the conclusion of the survey, five open-ended questions were created to elicit additional feedback from each participant.

The qualitative component of this study involved interviewing eight participants on two separate occasions. The first set of in-depth interviews focused on the internship and the areas participants thought they were most and least prepared for with regards to their administrative position at their school. The second set of interviews focused on parts of the Interstate School

Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards and investigated how each participant's administrative program prepared them for those standards. The ISSLC standards consist of six standards adopted by the National Policy Board of Educational Administration (NPBEA) as the guidelines for school leaders' to follow as a way to improve teaching and increase student achievement (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008). Both the quantitative and qualitative data gathering techniques focused on answering the three central research questions:

1. How are principal preparation programs developing future administrators for their duties and responsibilities?
2. What areas are novice administrators ill-prepared for when beginning a new K-12 administrative role?
3. How can principal preparation programs better develop future principals for their duties and responsibilities?

Quantitative Results

To ensure content validity, the survey was piloted with seven administrators who were not participants in the study, but had similar demographics to the study participants. The results of the piloted survey were then analyzed to determine if the survey had internal consistency. To determine internal consistency within the survey, Cronbach's Alpha was calculated using the IBM SPSS statistical software. The Cronbach's Alpha of the piloted survey was .92. The Cronbach's Alpha is an appropriate statistic to use because the survey was only administered once (Gliem & Gliem, 2003; Tanner, 2012). The Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient usually ranges from 0 to 1.0; the closer to 1.0 a score is the greater internal consistency (Gliem & Gliem, 2003, Tanner, 2012). After analysis took place based on survey results, a Cronbach's

Alpha of .95 was calculated. George and Mallery (2003) and Gliem and Gliem (2003) would support these results indicating an excellent internal consistency.

Within the Cronbach's Alpha, there is an item-total statistic that measures the relationship of individual items to the entire instrument (Assess Student; Item Analysis, 2011). The corrected item-total correlation is a correlation between an item and the rest of the instrument, if that item is not considered part of the instrument (Assess Student; Item Analysis, 2011). A corrected item-total correlation score can range from -1.0 to 1.0, with .30 as an acceptable corrected item-total correlation (Olatunji et al., 2007). If a corrected item-total correlation score for an item is below .30, it suggests that this item is not measuring the same thing as the rest of the instrument (Assess Student; Item Analysis, 2011). The analysis of this survey resulted in no corrected item-total correlation below .374. Appendix I represents the corrected item-total correlation, along with the Cronbach's Alpha if that item was deleted.

Tables 6-13 describes the demographics of the 54 participants who took part in the survey. The survey response rate was 6.7. It should be noted the demographic questions did not require a participant to select a choice. As a result, some participants did not answer each of the demographic questions. If a participant did not select a demographic, the percentage was calculated using the number of responses.

Table 6

Gender

Gender	Percentage
Male	50.94%
Female	49.06%

Table 6 outlines the gender distribution of participants who took part in the survey. The gender distribution was almost equal with a little over 50% (n=27) of participants identified themselves as male, with 49% (n=26) identified themselves as female. One participant selected not to identify their gender.

Table 7

State Employed

State	Percentage
Idaho	44.44%
Oregon	3.7%
Montana	18.52%
Nevada	11.11%
Utah	5.56%
Washington	11.11%
Wyoming	3.7%
Blank	1.85%

Table 7 outlines the percentage of participants from each state. Idaho employed the largest number of participants with 24, followed by Montana with 10. Nevada and Washington each had six participants, with Utah having three, and Oregon and Wyoming each having two participants. One participant selected not to answer the demographic questions regarding the state that employed them.

Table 8

Number of Years as an Administrator

Number of Years as Administrator	Percentage
1	35.19%
2	35.19%
3	29.62%

Table 8 outlines the percentage of participants with regards to the number of years they have been in administration. The number of participants that were within their first or second year as an administrator was equal with 19. There were 16 participants that were in their third year as an administrator.

Table 9

Year Administrative Program was Completed

Year	Percentage
2012	12.96%
2011	14.81%
2010	27.78%
2009	14.81%
2008	9.26%
2007	7.40%
2006	1.85%
2005 or earlier	11.11%

Table 9 outlines the percentage of participants and the year they completed their principal preparation program. The year 2010 had the largest number of participants graduating with 15, followed by the year 2011 and 2009 with eight participants, respectively. There were seven participants that completed their program in 2012. Five participants completed their program in 2008, followed by four in 2007 and one in 2006. Six participants completed their program prior to 2006.

Table 10

State Principal Preparation Program Resided

State	Percentage
Idaho	37.04%
Oregon	9.26%
Montana	16.67%
Nevada	7.41%
Utah	5.56%
Washington	11.11%
Wyoming	3.7%
Other	7.41%
Blank	1.85%

Table 10 outlines that state that the principal preparation program resided. The largest portion of participants (n= 20) received their administrative credentials in Idaho. Nine participants received their credentials in Montana, six in Washington, four from Nevada, four from a state not listed, three from Utah and one participant chose not to identify the state they received their credentials.

Table 11

Types of Institution

Institution	Percentage
Public	61.11%
Private	31.48%
For Profit	5.56%
Other (On-line)	1.85%

Table 11 describes the type of institution participants received their administrative credentials. The largest number of participants (n=33) attended public/state universities, 17 attended private college/university, three attended for profit college/university and one participant identified their institution as online.

Table 12

Current Grade Level of Administration

Grade Level	Percentage
K-6	27.78%
K-5	31.48%
6-8	5.56%
9-12	7.41%
7-12	3.70%
Other	24.07%

The current grade level for each participant is illustrated in Table 12. The largest number of participants was 17 in a school with grade levels K-5. There were 15 participants that identified their school as a K-6 elementary school. Three participants were administrators in a

school with grade levels 6-8. Four participants were administrators in a school with grade levels 9-12, two were administrators in a school with grade levels 7-12 and thirteen participants identified their grade level as other, which would include district office administrators.

Table 13

Internship Requirement

<u>Required</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Yes	90.74%
No	9.26%

The number of participants that completed in internship as part of their principal preparation program is illustrated in Table 13. Forty-nine participants completed an internship and five participants attended programs that did not require an internship.

The survey consisted of 29 areas for the participant to select the following likert-scale choices: strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree or disagree, agree, strongly agree. The 29 areas were identified, in the literature review, as the most common responsibilities and tasks that an administrator must accomplish (Adamowski et al. 2007; Clifford, 2010). Appendix J depicts the number of responses for each category based on survey questions. Some participants selected not to answer all areas. As a result, percentages were calculated using the number of responses, not the number of participants.

Appendix J also outlines the percentage in each area using the likert-scale of: strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree or disagree, agree, strongly agree, that participants ranked their level of preparedness. Evaluating staff members (40.74%), establishing and maintaining a vision and focus on a core set of organization goals (43.40%), and knowledge of school law (46.13%) were the three areas that participants “strongly agreed” were most prepared to handle. Nineteen

of the 29 areas had over 40% agree with regards to being prepared. There was no area that had above 40% in either the strongly disagree or disagree column.

Appendix K presents data after combining the strongly disagree, disagree columns percentages together and combining the agree and strongly agree columns together.

Appendix K outlines the percentage for each area that participants believed they were either not prepared or prepared for after completing their principal preparation program. If a participant answered strongly agree to an area, they were stating that they were strongly prepared for that area of their administrative responsibilities and duties. For example, if they answered strongly agree to “evaluate staff members,” then they were stating that they were very well prepared to evaluate staff members. If a participant answered neither agree or disagree to an area, such as “hire staff members,” they were stating they felt that their administrative program neither prepared or unprepared them for that area.

One area was found where the percentage of participants in the “strongly disagree/disagree” (42.60%) column was larger than the “agree/strongly agree” (35.19%) column. This area was developing a master schedule. There were two areas with similar percentages among the two columns. These areas were developing the school calendar and scheduling parent teacher conferences. There was a 1.86% difference between the columns for scheduling parent/teacher conferences and a 5.56% difference for developing the school calendar. Less than 50% of those surveyed agreed that they were prepared to assign non-instructional staff and dismiss staff members. A little over 50% of those surveyed agreed they were prepared to conduct staff meetings (50.94%), manage the school budget (50.00%) and strategically allocate staffing and other resources (52.83%). Appendix J identifies participants were most prepared for three main areas:

- Implementing research-based school improvement.
- Knowledge of school law.
- Establishing and maintaining a vision and focus on a core set of organizational goals.

A Mann-Whitney U was used to analyze the statistical significance at $p < .05$ using the IBM SPSS statistical software. A Mann-Whitney U is an appropriate statistical measurement because the scores are in ordinal form (Tanner 2012). Furthermore, with regards to this survey, data being analyzed is from two independent populations (AI Access, 2013). Gender was the first category analyzed to determine if there was a significant difference between male and female participants regarding the 29 responsibilities. The 29 responsibilities range from conducting staff meetings to using teacher evaluations to increase student achievement. There was only one area that resulted in a statistically significant level and that was regarding using data to reflect upon and improve classroom and organization practices ($p = .038$). There were two other areas that would be worth mentioning, but not statistically significant:

- Being prepared to use mentors with new teachers ($p = .058$)
- Developing a master schedule ($p = .074$)

A Mann-Whitney U was used to analyze if there was any statistical significance at $p < .05$ for gender with regard to overall preparedness. There was not a statistical significant difference between male and females with regards to their overall preparedness ($p = .205$). Table 14 represents the responses for each gender with regards to their beliefs on how well they were prepared for their new role.

Table 14

Gender Preparedness

Likert Scale	Male	Female
Strongly Disagree	0	3.85%
Disagree	3.7%	11.54%
Neither Agree or Disagree	18.52%	3.85%
Agree	59.26%	65.38%
Strongly Agree	18.52%	15.38%

Table 14 identifies females rating themselves higher (80.76%) to males (77.78%) with regards to their overall preparedness. However, one female participant did answer strongly disagree with regards to her overall preparedness and a higher number of females disagreed (11.54%) to their male counterparts (3.7%). Males, however, had a higher percentage in the neither agree or disagree category with 18.52% compared to females at 3.85%.

A Mann-Whitney U was also used to determine if there was a statistical significance at $p < .05$ with regards to the numbers of years a participant had been an administrator. There was not a statistical significant difference between 1st and 2nd year administrators. There was also no statistical significant difference between 1st and 3rd year administrators, or 2nd and 3rd year administrators.

In addition, a Mann-Whitney U determined if there was a statistical significance at $p < .05$ with regards to those participants who completed an internship and those participants that did not complete an internship experience. A Cohen's d was calculated to determine the effect size for each responsibility. The effect size follows each responsibility, along with the Cohen's standard of small, medium, or large. It must be noted, however, that 49 of the participants participated in

an internship and five did not. There was statistical significant difference at the $p < .05$ with four areas:

- Having in-depth knowledge of special education law ($p = .014$); .562 (large)
- Developing the school calendar ($p = .015$); .587 (large)
- Developing the master schedule ($p = .049$); .495 (large)
- Staying current with technology ($p = .027$); .525 (large)

There were also five responsibilities that had a difference that was close to being significant:

- Developing professional development ($p = .052$); .440 (large)
- Assigning non-instructional duties ($p = .058$); .450 (large)
- Staying current with instruction and curriculum ($p = .079$); .395 (large)
- Knowledge of school law ($p = .062$); .434 (large)
- Conducting parent meetings ($p = .051$); .474 (large)

However, when asked about their overall preparedness there was no significant difference between participants who had participated in an internship and those that did not participate in an internship. Table 15 represents the percentages of their overall preparedness for participants who had an internship and those that did not have an internship.

Table 15

Internship Percentage

Status	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Internship	2.04%	4.08%	12.24%	63.27%	18.37%
No internship	0%	40%	0%	60%	0%

Of the five individuals who did not complete an internship, two of them disagreed with being prepared overall. The other three participants agreed they were overall prepared for their administrative position. Over 82% of those who completed an internship either agreed or strongly agreed that overall they were prepared for their administrative position.

A Mann-Whitney U was also used to determine if there was a significant difference at $p < .05$ between the different states. There was statistical significant difference at the $p < .05$ between Nevada and Washington for five responsibilities. A Cohen's d was calculated to determine the effect size for each comparison:

- Evaluating staff members ($p = .041$); .105 (small)
- Staying current with legislation ($p = .037$); .09 (small)
- Using data for decision making ($p = .042$); .259 (medium)
- Strategically allocating staffing and other resources ($p = .010$); .164 (medium)
- Developing a strong leadership team ($p = .048$); .213 (medium)

There were also two additional responsibilities identified, but not statistical significant:

- Conducting parent meetings ($p = .070$); .174 (medium)
- Staying current with technology ($p = .054$); .090 (small)

Using a Mann-Whitney U to analyze the statistical difference between Oregon and Utah, one responsibility was close to being statistical difference at the $p < .05$ level. The Cohen's d calculation follows the responsibility:

- Maintaining a safe school ($p = .053$); .816 (large)

A Mann-Whitney U was used to determine the significant difference at the $p < .05$ level with regards to Montana and Nevada. There was statistical significant difference at the $p < .05$

between Montana and Nevada for 15 responsibilities. Following each responsibility is the Cohen's d calculation for the effect size of each responsibility:

- Conducting staff meetings ($p=.048$); .529 (large)
- Conducting student discipline ($p=.037$); .473 (large)
- Developing professional development ($p=.043$); .479 (large)
- Developing the school calendar ($p=.018$); .438 (large)
- Developing the master schedule ($p=.007$); .515 (large)
- Assigning non-instructional duties ($p=.010$); .390 (medium)
- Evaluating staff members ($p=.011$); .420 (large)
- Conducting parent meetings ($p=.006$); .731 (large)
- Staying current with legislation ($p=.033$); .396 (large)
- Staying current with technology ($p=.048$); .502 (large)
- Using data for decision making ($p=.013$); .780 (large)
- Using mentors for new teachers ($p=.042$); .654 (large)
- Maintaining a safe school ($p=.037$); .361 (medium)
- Strategically allocating staff and other resources ($p=.012$); .685 (large)
- Developing a strong school leadership team ($p=.005$); .704 (large)

A Mann-Whitney U was also used to determine if there was a significant difference at $p<.05$ between Idaho and Montana. There was statistical significant difference at the $p<.05$ for 10 responsibilities. The Cohen's d calculation follows each responsibility.

- Conducting staff meetings ($p=.024$); .387 (large)
- Scheduling parent/teacher conferences ($p=.024$); .244 (medium)
- Developing the school calendar ($p=.002$); .351 (medium)

- Developing the master schedule ($p=.003$); .347 (medium)
- Assigning non-instructional duties ($p=.009$); .437 (large)
- Dismissing staff members ($p=.017$); .438 (large)
- Staying current with legislation ($p=.037$); .426 (large)
- Using data for decision making ($p=.042$); .323 (medium)
- Strategically allocating staff and other resources ($p=.010$); .441 (large)
- Developing a strong school leadership team ($p=.048$); .392 (large)

There were three responsibilities that were significantly different at the $p<.05$ level when Idaho and Washington was also analyzed with the same statistical test. The Cohen's d calculations for the effect size follow each responsibility:

- Having in-depth knowledge of special education law ($p=.039$); .493 (large)
- Developing the school calendar ($p=.005$); .639 (large)
- Developing the master schedule ($p=.045$); .410 (large)

An analysis comparing Idaho and Nevada with a significant difference at the $p<.05$ level resulted in two responsibilities with a significant difference. The Cohen's d calculation for the effect size follows each responsibility:

- Conducting parent meetings ($p=.026$); .518 (large)
- Using data for decision making ($p=.030$); .545 (large)

A Mann-Whitney U was also used to determine if there was a significant difference at $p<.05$ between Montana and Washington. There was statistical significant difference at the $p<.05$ for five responsibilities. Each responsibility is followed by the Cohen's d calculation for the effect size:

- Conducting staff meetings ($p=.033$); .529 (large)

- Scheduling parent/teacher conference ($p=.031$); .428 (large)
- Developing the school calendar ($p=.001$); .736 (large)
- Developing the master schedule ($p=.005$); .612 (large)
- Assigning non-instructional duties ($p=.026$); .525 (large)

Oregon and Montana were compared and there was statistical significant difference at the $p<.05$ for five responsibilities. Cohen's d was calculated for the effect size of each comparison:

- Conducting student discipline ($p=.042$); .728 (large)
- Developing the master schedule ($p=.041$); .464 (large)
- Assigning non-instructional duties ($p=.041$); .619 (large)
- Using mentors for new teachers ($p=.030$); .770 (large)
- Maintaining a safe school ($p=.021$); .832 (large)

There were three responsibilities with significant difference at the $p<.05$ level between Idaho and Wyoming. The effect size calculated by a Cohen's d follows each comparison:

- Using data for decision making ($p=.034$); .723 (large)
- Developing the school calendar ($p=.053$); .170 (medium)
- Staying current with legislation ($p=.025$); .513 (large)

Three responsibilities were found to have significant difference at the $p<.05$ level between Nevada and Utah. The Cohen's d calculation follows each responsibility comparison:

- Conducting parent meetings ($p=.038$); .784 (large)
- Using data for decision making ($p=.042$); .765 (large)
- Staying current with instruction and curriculum ($p=.044$); .774 (large)

A Mann-Whitney U was also used to determine if there was a significant difference at $p < .05$ between Nevada and Wyoming. There was statistical significant difference at the $p < .05$ for one area. The Cohen's d calculation follows the responsibility comparison:

- Using data for decision making ($p = .040$); .442 (large)

Table 16 represents the states compared that showed no statistical difference among the 29 responsibilities at the $p < .05$ level.

Table 16

No Significant Difference

States Compared
Idaho/Oregon
Montana/Wyoming
Utah/Washington
Utah/Wyoming
Oregon/Washington
Idaho/Utah
Oregon/Washington
Washington/Wyoming
Oregon/Wyoming
Oregon/Nevada

Table 17 represents the compared states that showed at least one responsibility that had a statistical difference at the $p < .05$ level.

Table 17

State Comparison with Statistical Difference

States Compared
Idaho/Montana
Idaho/Nevada
Idaho/Washington
Idaho/Wyoming
Montana/Nevada
Montana/Washington
Nevada/Utah
Nevada/Washington
Nevada/Wyoming
Oregon/Montana
Oregon/Utah

Survey participants were also asked to provide feedback regarding how their administrative program prepared them for their role as an administrator. Again, the choice of responses was based on a five point likert scale ranged from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Seventy-nine percent (79.36%) of the participants responded they would agree or strongly agree they were prepared for their role as an administrator, with 20.37% responding that they would strongly disagree/disagree or neither agree or disagree. Figure 1 depicts a visual representation of overall preparedness:

Figure 1

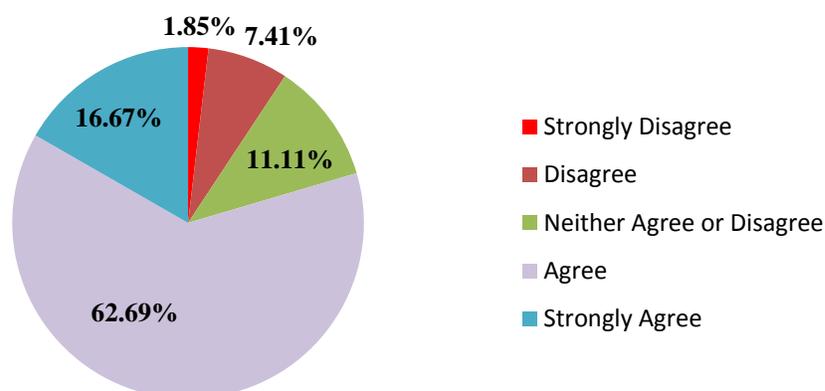
Overall Preparedness

Table 18 represents the state the administrative program resided in and how prepared each participant believed they were for their role as an administrator. Table 18 also illustrates the percentage of preparedness for each state.

Table 18

Overall Preparedness

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Idaho	0%	5%	10%	70%	15%
Oregon	0%	20%	20%	60%	0%
Montana	11.11%	0%	11.11%	22.22%	55.55%
Nevada	0%	0%	25%	75%	0%
Utah	0%	0%	0%	100%	0%
Washington	0%	33.33%	0%	50%	16.67%
Wyoming	0%	0%	0%	100%	0%
Other	0%	0%	25%	75%	0%

According to Table 18, Montana participants had the highest percentage of strongly agree with their overall preparedness at 55.55%, followed by Washington (16.67%) and then Idaho (15%). Utah and Wyoming all “agreed” they were prepared for their roles and responsibilities as an administrator. Three-fourths of the participants in Nevada and the unidentified state “agreed” to their overall preparedness, followed closely by Idaho (70%) and Oregon (60%). The majority, over 60%, answered they agreed or strongly agreed overall they were prepared to be an administrator.

Qualitative Results

The qualitative study included the eight interviewed participants along with the open-ended questions on the survey. Table 19 is a reminder of the eight interviewed participants.

Table 19

Interviews Participants

Participants	Program State	Current Administrative Level	Number of years at Current Position	Number of Years as a Teacher
Jana	Montana	K-12/Principal	1.5	17
Todd	South Dakota	6-8/Principal	1.5	11
Kristina	Texas	K-5/Principal	1.5	15
Debbie	Utah	K-5/Principal	1.5	10
Angela	Montana	K-12/Principal	.5	14
Laney	Oregon	District Office	1.5	17
Scott	Montana	9-12/Principal	.5	12
Alicia	Idaho	6-8/Principal	1.5	6

The eight interviewed participants were within their first two years of being a principal, superintendent or special education director. Laney was the only participant who was not a current principal, but she did complete a principal preparation program in order to obtain her administrative certificate so she could be a special educator director.

During the audio recorded, in-depth interviews, each of the eight interviewed participants along with surveyed participants answered what responsibility they believed they were least prepared to address or perform as an administrator. After in-depth interviewing and analysis of all qualitative responses, the following five themes were found to best describe the areas where administrators felt ill-prepared:

Table 20

Top Five Frequent Codes for Responsibilities Least Prepared (Survey & Interviews)

Areas least prepared	Number of Responses
Budget	15
Managerial	14
Staffing	8
Instructional Leadership	7
Special Education	4

Table 20 identified the five most common themes of areas that participants were least prepared. Budgeting was the most frequent theme to occur (n=15). Items that fell in the managerial theme included: scheduling, creating the calendar, conducting meetings, educational paperwork (both state and federal), time management, and daily management. Instructional leadership items included being the instructional leader, preparing leadership teams, evaluating staff and then using that data to increase student learning, and developing professional

development. Participants believed they were prepared for general school law, but special education law was an area that they for which they were not prepared. The final theme was staffing, which included items such as the hiring process, dealing directly with the staff, and staff dismissal. In fact, Alicia stated “I am most surprised by how quickly and easily teachers can negatively impact the school, for example, contributing to the gossip in a way that makes the school look inefficient or incompetent.”

Participants were also asked what universities/colleges could do differently in their administrative program to address the areas in which they felt unprepared. Overwhelmingly, there were three themes that emerged with regards to what universities and colleges could do differently (see Table 21).

Table 21

Top 3 Frequent Themes for Colleges/Universities

Activities	Number of Responses
More hands-on activities	15
Internships	8
Current Practitioners as Professors	7

Table 21 identifies the top three themes participants identified that colleges and universities can do differently to increase future administrators’ preparedness. The hands-on activities that participants would like to see implemented into the administrative programs include:

- Working with different schools
- Using real data from the state department
- Using the state department data to make decisions

- Getting to use different software with regards to the budget
- Exposure to the state and paperwork

One surveyed participant suggested they would have benefited greatly if they had been given a fictional school, which included the setting, student body, staff, etc. They then would have to use that information to map out an entire school year. The school year would have to include:

- Calendar items
- Staff meetings
- Professional development
- Placement of aides
- Budget creation
- Submission of state and federal paperwork

They would also face different scenarios that would occur throughout the school year.

The state and federal paperwork was also a theme that emerged in the topic of hands-on activities. Angela and Jana stated that they were most ill-prepared for the paperwork and that it takes the majority of their time as an administrator. Todd reiterated this by stating:

This is truly the most frustrating part I found so far is the amount of paperwork and managerial types of activities that I have to do. That I found incredibly frustrating because it's not why I became an administrator. I became an administrator to work with teachers, to help guide them, guide their practice to have more influence over the system, but I find that paperwork is the majority of my time.

Angela and Jana went on to state that the paperwork aspect should have been more of a priority in their administrative program and they wish that they would have been exposed to the paperwork in the internship or as part of a class in the administrative program. When asked what

she was least prepared for, Laney stated, “The two big state reports. I had no exposure to these during my classes or while I was completing my internship.” Jana reiterated Laney by stating, “the amount of paperwork that needs to be submitted, particularly at the state Office of Public Instruction level.” Scott stated:

One of the things that I probably wasn’t as prepared for was some of the kind of things that deal with the bureaucratic paper, all the different requirements of a title school, all the forms and checks and balances from a state reporting aspect. I really didn’t get a lot of training in until I was on the job and then all of the sudden you have your northwest accreditation report due and you have your fall data count due for the state department.

With regards to the internship there were several suggestions that the participants gave including:

- The internship should be their full-time job, not teaching while doing their internship.
- There should be more exposure to different school settings during the internship.
- Interns should be given the opportunity to participate in “real” administrative duties and not just be a hall monitor, home game supervisor, or do menial tasks that really have nothing to do with being an effective administrator.
- The internship should be a paid position.

All of the interviewed participants were required to participate in an internship, however, not all surveyed participants did. Those surveyed participants who did not participate in an internship stated that it should be required. Participants wanted to see an internship that was more focused. Amy, Diane, and Todd stated some of the activities they engaged in as part of their required hours did not benefit them as a future administrator. All interviewed participants stated there needs to be more requirements, in one or in all of these areas within their internship:

- Budgets
- State and federal paperwork
- Student discipline
- Evaluation of staff
- The use real school data to help make decisions

Participants did not want monitoring the halls, being the home game supervisor, having to set up for parent-teacher conferences, or other similar items to be part of the internship hours. Alicia, Debbie, Kristina, Todd, and Scott believed because of their experience as a classroom teacher or other responsibilities they had prior to becoming an administrator, the remedial jobs such as home game supervisor was not an effective use of their time. All but one interviewed participant stated, even though they understood the budgetary constraint this would entail, believed the internship should be a full-time job and that they should not be teaching while also trying to get administrative experience. All of the interviewed participants had to complete their internship hours before/after school and during their prep period, which they stated does not truly reflect on the administrative position. Angela stated “it was frustrating knowing something important was happening and I wasn’t able to get the time off and be a part of that activity.” Scott responded when asked about his internship experience:

I think it is way too easy when the buck stops with somebody else. I think a little more meaningful, realistic internship would have been a better preparation, it is very different than being in the classroom than in the administrative chair. The expectations for the internship need to be improved.

Todd and Angela specifically noted the administrator they were working with as part of their internship did a great job of including them in activities. Todd stated this regarding his

supervising administrators “they would share information and put me in situations that would reflect that real life would be like once I was a principal or assistant principal of my own building.” These administrators actively and purposefully included the intern in helping make decisions and to participate in beneficial activities, such as being part of a remediation for a teacher. Jana stated the following about her internship, “it allowed me to experience real-life school situations and observe/practice handling them. Also allowed me to see varying styles of leadership, all of which were beneficial. Helped build my confidence.”

Participants in both the survey and interviews stated they believed current administrative practitioners need to be part of the principal preparation program. These practitioners can be the individuals that are teaching the classes or guest speakers. Debbie stated when asked how she would design her own program stated:

I think I would have some of the principals I know that are in the trenches right now as an instructor. One of the instructors I had was awesome, but she hadn't been a superintendent for several years. I would have some adjunct professors that were still on the job.

When asked what area of his principal preparation program, Todd responded, “all of my professors have been either building level principals or superintendents or most often both. So they had real world experience that was recent experience.” He went onto say, “it wasn't that they were a teacher for 3 years, an administrator for 3 years and become a fossil at the college level, they had been out there working...it was the real world experience that was valuable.”

Participants stated it would have been beneficial to be able to ask practicing administrators questions or have the administrators give them insight into what they struggled with when they first became an administrator. In fact, Jana stated “my human resource class was not beneficial

because of the instructor and it was difficult to gauge if the class would have been beneficial because the instructor was a detriment to the class.”

All eight interview participants and five of the participants that were surveyed stated universities and colleges should consider changing the number of years a teacher has before getting into an administrative program. The average number of years a teacher should have before getting into an administrative program was five years. Kristina, Todd and Laney thought teachers should teach between five and ten years before becoming an administrator. Todd stated:

Most admin. programs it seems that you can teach for 3 years and become an administrator. I don't know if that gives you enough time to get the ins and outs of a classroom. I think it should be a minimum of 5 years and preferably 10.

Kristina was adamant teachers needed to be effective in the classroom before going into administration; Kristina said, “I get irritated when people are right out of school or in their first year of teaching and they are getting their administration degree.”

An additional component of this research study was also to determine in what areas universities and colleges are successfully preparing new administrators. Two themes emerged when administrators were asked to discuss what they were most prepared are identified (see Table 22).

Table 22

Top 2 Frequent Codes Responsibilities Most Prepared

<u>Areas Prepared</u>	<u>Number of Responses</u>
Instructional leader	19
School law	15

Table 22 illustrates the two most common themes participants identified as being most prepared for as a new administrator. The theme of instructional leader included creating a vision, developing a strong leadership team, understanding the responsibilities of the administrator, and conducting teacher evaluations. Seven of the eight interviewed (Jana, Todd, Debbie, Angela, Laney, Alicia, and Scott) believed they were prepared to evaluate teachers, but not prepared to use that evaluation to increase student achievement. Kristina was the only interviewed participant who stated she received training with using teacher evaluations as a way to increase student achievement. School law was the second most frequent theme that administrators thought they were most prepared for; however, according to an open ended question on the survey, special education law (n=4) was an area in which administrators thought they were ill-prepared. However, Laney and Angela both stated they were prepared to handle special education because they had both been special education teachers before becoming an administrator.

The qualitative interviews had two sets of questions. The first set of questions (Appendix D) were broad and asked participants to make their own judgment as to what they believed they were most prepared for, least prepared, what universities/colleges could do differently, and questions regarding their internship experience. The second set of questions (Appendix E) were more specific and directly related to the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards. The questions asked if and how their administrative program addressed the following areas:

- Increase student achievement through data
- Evaluate curriculum and best practices
- Address conflict resolution
- Articulate a vision of learning

- Role of technology in promoting student learning and profession growth of teachers
- Ethics
- Prepare a budget and manage finances
- Evaluate teachers and then use that evaluate to increase student achievement
- Human resource management and personnel
- Create a school culture
- School safety and security
- Facilities
- Collaborate with stake holders including families, community members, businesses, etc.
- Importance of diversity and equity

Participants of the in-depth interviews were able to give additional insight into their administrative program with regards to the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards than those surveyed. The following results are confined to the interviewed participants.

Table 23 identifies the ISLLC standards interviewed participants acknowledged they were most and least prepared for when they began their career as an administrator. Embedded throughout the program, specific classes, class discussions, readings, and discussion posts were the five most common themes that emerged when asked how universities/colleges were preparing future administrators with regards to the six identified ISLLC standards. Creating a vision was the only ISLLC standard all eight interviewed participants stated their administrative program addressed.

Table 23

Most and Least Prepared ISLLC Standards

ISSLC Standard Most Prepared	Number of Responses	ISSLC Standard Least Prepared	Number of Responses
Creating a vision of learning	8	Evaluating teachers to increase student achievement	7
Ethics	7	Using technology to increase student achievement	7
Importance of diversity and equity	7	Human resource management and personnel	7
Collaborating with stakeholders	6	Preparing a budget and managing finances	6
Creating a school culture	5	Evaluate curriculum and best practices	5
Addressing facilities/maintenance	5		

Evaluating teachers and using the evaluation to increase student achievement along with using technology to increase student knowledge were the two ISLLC standards the interviewed participants identified as having the least amount of exposure within their principal preparation program. All interviewed participants believed their administrative program helped them become good evaluators. However, it was using that evaluation to increase student achievement where seven of the eight participants felt their administrative program was lacking. Laney said, “I wouldn’t say my program did a great deal of that.” Alicia stated, “I felt I knew how to evaluate a teacher, but now that I actually practice it, I feel there is a lot more I could learn about narrowing the focus to assist teachers.” Only Kristina stated her administrative program specifically trained future administrators to use evaluations as a way to increase student achievement. Todd claimed,

“If there were weaknesses in my program it would be the teacher evaluation...I wish we would have had more real life experiences.” He went on to say, “I can’t remember student achievement and evaluations being discusses in the same context.” Conducting practice interviews and role play were two ways participants stated their principal preparation program addressed the evaluation process.

Kristina was the only interviewed participant who had to complete any type of assignment that linked student learning and technology. Kristina was required to research technology and then create a booklet about that technology and how it could be used in the classroom to promote student learning. Debbie stated there was discussion about what technology was available for students to use, but there was no exposure on how to use technology for professional growth. Debbie noted, “Technology was stressed for students, but not for staff. I have learned that my staff has to be prepared well for it before they use it with students.” She also noted, “We have teachers who won’t use their iPad because they don’t know how to use it.” Alicia explained this about the use of technology in her program, “we took a technology class that required us to create lesson plans and student assignments using technology and we were required to complete a variety of technology-based assignments.”

Of the eight administrators interviewed, only Kristina and Angela, prepared a budget during their administrative program. Todd and Scott analyzed a budget, but did not prepare one. Laney stated:

I had no exposure to budgets and finance at all during my administrative program and it was not until she was on the job that I created a budget for the first time. And I had to get help from our business manager.

The other two participants, Alicia and Debbie, stated there was some discussion, but no practical application. Alicia stated, “This is one area my program lacked. I feel this is an area that administrators need to practice and understand prior to taking a job.”

Human resources and personnel was a topic only Kristina identified as an area that their administrative program addressed completely. Kristina had two classes that dealt directly with human resources; one class dealt with the day to day issues and the other class was a law class. Jana had a class in human resources, but because the instructor was ineffective the class was deemed unsuccessful. Debbie had exposure to creating interview rubrics, and further explained:

I think they could have done a little better when you go to hire someone like a tutor or an office assistant and somebody knows somebody and you have to be willing to do what is best and not be pressured by what the community thinks.

Alicia stated she had exposure to Family Medical Leave Act (FMLA), Title VII of the Civil Right Act, and Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) through one of her courses. However, she noted, “As a principal I have not had to deal with any of these issues because they are handled at the district office.” When asked how their principal preparation program addressed human resources Scott, Angela, and Laney all claimed, “It didn’t.” Laney explained, “There was some instruction in that area, but I would not say that I was prepared.”

Evaluation of curriculum and best practices to increase student achievement was an area Todd, Laney, and Jana believed their administrative program did a good job addressing. However, only Todd was assigned a curriculum to analyze. In Todd’s administrative program, he had to identify the pros and cons of the curriculum and how it tied to the state standards and learning objective benchmarks. Kristina and Debbie stated they were required to complete readings and write papers about what curriculum was available, but there was no evaluation of

that curriculum. Alicia and Scott did not have any exposure to evaluating curriculum or best practices. However, of those two, Alicia stated her professors did model best practices.

Summary of the Results

Data was collected using both qualitative and quantitative research designs. There were 54 quantitative participants that fit the criteria of being an administrator within their first three years who participated in the electronic survey. The electronic survey was developed, validated, and distributed using the Qualtrics software. The survey consisted of demographics questions about the participants, five open-ended questions and each participant ranked 29 responsibilities according to their level of preparedness on a five point likert-scale. The 29 responsibilities were developed using research from the literature review and the ISSLC standards. The 29 responsibilities were analyzed using a Mann-Whitney U at the $p < .05$ level. A Cronbach's Alpha was calculated to ensure reliability within the survey. A Cohen's d was calculated to determine the effect size for each comparison.

The eight interviewed participants who were within their first three years of being a principal. These eight participants were selected to be a part of this study because they volunteered. On the electronic survey there was a selection asking participants that wanted to be a part of a qualitative study to contact the researcher. Participants of the quantitative study would also be considered qualitative participants if they selected to answer the open-ended questions on the survey. Each of the eight interviewed participants were interviewed twice for a total of 16 interviews.

The qualitative and quantitative data identifies the responsibilities new administrators acknowledged as strengths and weaknesses in their principal preparation program. Overall, 79% of participants identified their principal preparation program as having prepared them to become

the leaders at their school. However, there were responsibilities participants believed they were not prepared to handle. The most common weaknesses in the principal preparation programs were budgeting, evaluating teachers and then using that evaluation to increase student achievement, creating the school calendar, and developing the master schedule. The results of the survey showed 29.63% were not prepared to create the budget, 42.60% were unprepared to develop the master schedule and 33.33% identified creating the school calendar as a responsibility they were unprepared for. Seven of the interviewed participants identified evaluating teachers and then using the evaluation to increase student achievement as a weakness in their program. Using technology to increase student achievement and human resource management was also identified by seven interviewed participants as an area they felt unprepared to handle. Creating the budget and managing finance was identified by six interviewed participants as a weakness. Five participants identified evaluating curriculum and best practices as a responsibility that their principal preparation program needs to improve upon.

The most common strengths of principal preparation programs in the quantitative study were maintaining a safe school, implementing school improvement, and knowledge of school law. According to the electronic survey, 92.31% responded they were prepared for school law issues, 85.19% stated they could implement research-based school improvement, and 84% felt prepared to maintain a safe school. In the qualitative study instructional leader (n=19) and school law (n=15) were the two themes participants identified as being the most prepared to handle. With regards to the ISSLC standards creating a vision, being an ethical leader, and the importance of diversity and equity were the three standards identified as areas principal preparation programs were addressing the most thoroughly.

Chapter V

Discussion

Introduction

The principal preparation program is the cornerstone for developing future principals. In the principal preparation program, future principals are exposed to different leadership styles, discipline techniques, how to build a culture and many other aspects of being a principal. Without exposure to the different areas of the principalship before becoming a principal, it would be difficult for an administrator to be effective. It is imperative that colleges and universities have a comprehensive principal preparation program.

With an emphasis on state standardized testing, decrease in budgets, and an overall changing climate in education, it is critical that future administrators are prepared. Principals have a broad range of responsibilities and duties which will affect student achievement, the morale of staff and students, and finances. It is crucial that future administrators are prepared to be the educational leader, financial manager, disciplinarian, and help create the culture of their school. The days of a principal only being a manager are over. Principals now must ensure that teachers are teaching to the highest standards, that federal and state paperwork is properly reported and submitted, safety procedures are followed, facilities are maintained and the school's budget remains in the black. While each state has different requirements required to obtain their administrative license, it is essential that principal preparation programs prepare future administrators for their diverse responsibilities and duties.

The purpose of this mixed-study was to determine if principal preparation programs are effectively preparing new administrators for their many roles and responsibilities. Through in-

depth interviews, electronic survey, and open-ended questions, the following three research questions were answered:

1. How are principal preparation programs developing future administrators for their duties and responsibilities?
2. What areas are novice-administrators ill-prepared for when beginning a new K-12 administrative role?
3. How can principal preparation programs better develop future principals for their duties and responsibilities?

Summary of Results

To answer the research questions, a mixed-study that included quantitative and qualitative methods was deemed appropriate. The quantitative study included an electronic survey created using the Qualtrics software. The survey was distributed by e-mail to administrators in Idaho, Nevada, Montana, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming. Fifty-four administrators, within the first three years of being an administrator, participated in the survey. The survey asked participants to rank their preparedness on a likert-scale from 1-5, with “1” being strongly disagree and “5” being strongly agree. The 29 responsibilities of a principal were developed, using themes from the literature review and the ISSLC standards. The 29 responsibilities were created in part by Adamowski et al. (2007) study identified 21 functions of a principal. These functions included curriculum pacing and sequencing, discharging unsuitable teachers, and controlling the school calendar (Adamowski et al., 2007). The ISSLC standards were created by the Council of Chief State School Officers to ensure that the education leaders’ primary responsibility of improving teaching and the learning of all children is being obtained (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008). The ISSLC standards consist of six standards

consisting of three to nine functions for each standard (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008). Each standard outlines the way an education leader can promote the success of every student (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008).

The survey was a compilation of responsibilities identified as ways a principal can be the manager and education leader of their school (Adamowski et al., 2007, Marzano et al., 2005 & Southern Regional Education Board, 2005). The most important responsibility of the K-12 administrator is that of the education leader (Blase & Blase, 2003; Castallo, 2001; Lambert 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Lewis, Cruzeiro, & Hall, 2007; Lowe & Brigham, 2002, Marzano et al., 2005; Reames, 2010). Lewis et al. (2007) assert it is the principal's major responsibility to ensure all students are learning. Gaziel (2007) states by developing a school mission that focuses on teachers and their instruction, principals are indirectly influencing their students learning. Appendix J represents the distribution of survey responses. Surveyed participants identified knowledge of school law, establishing and maintaining a vision and focus on a core set of organization goals, implementing research-based school improvement, maintaining a safe school, and developing high expectations for student learning as the responsibilities they were most prepared to handle. Three of these five responsibilities fall in the realm of Standard 1 of the ISLLC Standards (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008). The responsibilities identified by participants as being least prepared for were developing the master schedule, dismissing staff members, scheduling parent/teacher conferences, developing the school calendar, and assigning non-instructional duties.

A Cronbach's Alpha was utilized to determine the internal consistency within the survey. A Cronbach's Alpha of .95 was calculated for this survey, which demonstrates a high internal consistency (George & Mallery, 2003; Gliem & Gliem, 2003). The results of the survey were

analyzed using a Mann-Whitney U with statistical significance at $p < 0.05$ using the ISM SPSS 20.0 statistical software (SPSS, 2013).

The qualitative study included five open-ended questions on the electronic survey and interviews with eight participants who were within their first three years of being a principal. The interviewed participants were currently administrators in Idaho, Montana, Oregon, Utah and Wyoming. Seven of the eight participants held principal positions, with one participant being a special education director. Two of the participants were categorized as both principal and superintendent. Each of the eight participants was interviewed twice, for a total of 16 interviews. The interviews were transcribed by the researcher and then coded for themes. The five open-ended questions on the electronic survey were also coded for themes.

Research Question #1

The first research question asked: How are principal preparation programs developing future administrators for their duties and responsibilities? Farkas et al. (2003) stated 67% of their participants believed principal preparation programs were out of touch with what it takes for a principal to be an effective leader. On the other hand, there have been many changes to principal preparation programs and principal preparation development since 2003 (Butler, 2008). However, 79% of surveyed participants stated their principal preparation program equipped them for their duties and responsibilities of an administrator and all but one interviewed participant stated they would recommend their principal preparation program to a friend or colleague. Hess and Kelly (2005) found that 96% of their participants believed their colleagues were more helpful than their graduate studies, which contradicts what I found in my study. Laney was the only interviewed participant who did not believe her program prepared her to be an effective administrator. She stated, "My administrative program did a great job with the theory of

leadership, but provided no practical application of how to be a principal.” Laney also stated, “If it wasn’t for my colleagues and my own efforts to explore and research topics, I would have floundered in my first year as a special education director.” In fact, Laney was the only interviewed participant that would not recommend her principal preparation program. Seven of the eight interviewed participants and 79.36% of surveyed participants believed they were prepared to be an administrator. Eighty-four percent of surveyed participants stated that they would recommend their principal preparation program to a colleague or friend.

Participants who experienced “real world” opportunities rated themselves more prepared than participants whose principal preparation program was theory based. Of the seven effective habits identified by Davis and Jazzar (2005) that principal preparation programs need to incorporate, four of the habits gave future principals an opportunity to engage in authentic experiences, including:

- Providing relevant, standards-based, and job-embedded curriculum and instructional experience.
- Hopeful principals experience relevant and learning opportunities in their internship.
- Aspiring principals need to engage in authentic assessment that include justifying budget cuts, developing and defending a portfolio, and writing a student discipline letter.
- Aspiring principals are given opportunities to use a systemic approach to research-based decision making.

Of the participants interviewed, those who stated they were prepared for a certain area of administration such as budgeting, creating a master schedule or disciplining students felt more prepared because they had those experiences in their principal preparation program. Todd, Kristina, Jana, and Angela felt they were prepared to handle the physical facilities of the school

because of the assignments they did during the preparation program. In fact, Jana stated, “In my current school, I am the janitor and maintenance person, so it was imperative that I had experience and knowledge in those areas.” The Education Alliance at Brown University (2003) and Oplatka (2009) state the theory that is taught at universities is not aligning with the need for practical skills necessary of effective leadership. Angela and Kristina concur with the research of The Education Alliance at Brown University (2003) and Oplatka (2009). They believed they were prepared as an administrator because their principal preparation program was more vocational than theory based, and they were given the opportunity to accomplish tasks rather than write a paper. They had a variety of assignments that they still use today because of the practicality and usefulness of the assignments.

Another area participants identified that their principal preparation programs were doing well was in the area of the internship. The research of Brown-Ferrigno & Muth (2004), Malone (2000), and Peters (2010) claim by mentoring future administrators, they gain confidence in their abilities, and are better prepared for the overall duties of being a principal. All interviewed participants and 90% of surveyed participants completed an internship as part of the requirements for the program. Jana stated, “My internship helped me build my confidence, and it allowed me to experience real-life school situations and observe/practice handling them.” The interviewed participants stated that overall, their principal mentor did a good job of allowing them to be part of the administrative team while they completed their internship. Debbie stated, “My principals were great to help me get involved and helping take on responsibilities. I learned a lot just watching them.”

The use of supervision and evaluation as part of being the instructional leader is time consuming for the administrator, but when implemented correctly, the benefits far outweigh the

negatives (Hidalgo, 2005; Lewis et al., 2007). Todd explained that teacher observations were the most valuable part of his internships. He stated:

Being able to do classroom observations of teachers where I actually went in and I sat down with the principal and we would observe teachers teaching and then we would go back and conference with each other. We would ask each other: What did you see? What do you think about this? We then sat down with the teacher and would discuss what we saw.

Anast-May et al. (2011) and the Southern Regional Education Board (2005) state the internship experience should give future administrators real world experiences, preparing them for their role as a school leader. Within ISSLC Standard 2, there are four functions directly related to supervision of instruction (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008). These functions include: supervising instruction, developing the instructional and leadership capacity of staff, maximizing time spent on quality instruction, and monitoring and evaluating the impact of the instructional program (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008).

Another responsibility surveyed participants believed they were prepared for included the area of leadership. Leadership included building the leadership team, creating a vision and culture within the school, and evaluating teachers. Many scholars describe how the most important responsibility of a principal is being the instructional leader (Blasé & Blasé, 2003; Castallo, 2001; Lamberg, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Lewis et al., 2008; Lowe & Brigham, 2002; Marzano et al., 2005; and Reames, 2010). Eighty-five percentage of surveyed participants disclosed they were prepared to implement research-based school improvement, while 86% were prepared to establish and maintain a vision and focus on a core set of organizational goals. Function one of ISSLC Standard 1 states education leaders collaboratively develop and

implement a shared vision and mission (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008). The fifth function in Standard 1 is education leaders promote continuous and sustainable improvement (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008). Angela explained that she was most prepared for the continuous school improvement process, collecting the data, developing a plan and working collaboratively with the staff. Laney stated, “It prepared me to be a good educational leader, it taught me about good researchers and authors that I can look to get information on about how to be a good leader.”

Based on the findings of this study, principal preparation programs are preparing future principals by using real word applications in the program and providing an internship with authentic experiences. Previous research has been conducted on this topic stating principal preparation programs were not meeting the needs of future administrators (Basom & Yerkes, 2004; Bingham & Gottfried, 2003; U. S. Department of Education, 2000; The Education Alliance at Brown University, 2003; Farkas et al., 2003; Levine, 2005; Oplatka, 2009; Paquette, 2004; & Quinn, 2005). However, findings in this study are unique in that novice administrators felt their principal preparation program did prepare them for their administrative position. The findings in this study also found that through the use of authentic experiences both in the classroom and through the internship, novice administrators feel confident in their role as the education leader and their ability to implement school improvement.

Research Question #2

The second research question asked: What areas are novice-administrators ill-prepared for when beginning a new K-12 administrative role? Prior to being asked specific questions about their principal preparation program, the majority of interviewed participants thought their program prepared them for the principalship. However, after asking how their principal

preparation program specifically addressed some of the ISLLC standards, all of the interviewed participants stated there were areas that their program did not adequately address.

While an extensive review of the literature did not uncover specific areas that novice administrators felt ill-prepared to handle, challenges were identified. These challenges included poor training, inadequate funding, staffing issues, parental and community demands, adjustment to personal life, state mandates, insufficient time, lack of technology skills, feelings of isolation, and lack of power (Adamowski et al., 2007; Bingham & Gottfried, 2003; Carpenter & Laseter, 1999; Drago-Severson & Pinto, 2004; Duncan & Stock, 2010; Fields & Egley, 2005; Lashway, 2003; Manges & Wilcox, 1997; Painter, 2001; Schrum, Galizio, & Ledesma, 2011; Shoho & Barnett, 2010). Barnett et al. (2012) found in their study that 30% of novice and experienced vice-principals stated teacher and staff issues as challenging. Participants stated that they were most surprised by the lack of professionalism within their staff. Negative attitudes, teachers leaving the building as soon as their contract hours have been met, and teachers using class time to handle personal affairs were some of the staffing issues participants identified as challenging.

Participants of both the survey and interviews identified areas they were not prepared to handle as an administrator. Within the study, the responsibilities identified as least prepared were:

- Scheduling parent/teacher conferences
- Developing the school calendar
- Developing the master schedule
- Dismissing staff members
- Managing state and federal paperwork
- Budgeting

- Using teacher evaluations to increase student achievement

A survey participant summed it up as, “I wish they would have prepared us better for the truly difficult things like the managing the budget, dealing with difficult employment situation such as probation and dismissal, and the nuts and bolts of the master schedule.” Adamowski et al. (2007) found discharging unsuitable teachers, transferring unsuitable teachers, and hiring staff as very important to the effectiveness as a school leader. However, principals lacked the authority necessary to be effective (Adamowski et al., 2007). Participants ranked having the ability to dismiss ineffective teachers as an important aspect of their position as a principal however, they did not have the authority to dismiss the teacher, it was ultimately up to the school board (Adamowski et al., 2007).

ISLLC Standard 3 states that an education leader promotes the success of every student by ensuring management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008). A function within Standard 3 is to obtain, allocate, align, and utilize fiscal resources (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008). Budgeting was the most frequent item identified by participants as being the least prepared to handle. Approximately 50% of survey participants believed they were prepared to manage the school budget. However, when asked in the open-ended question on the survey and within the interview what area they were least prepared to handle, budgeting was the most frequent answer. However, Alicia states, “This is one area that my program lacked. I did not address preparing a budget or how to manage finances.” Laney reiterated what Alicia said, “It was poor. I don’t think there was any preparation for this whatsoever.” Placing more emphasis on budget and finance was an area White, Hilliard, and Jackson, (2011) identified as an area needing improvement in leadership programs.

Besides the classroom teacher, the principal has the most influence on student achievement (Blasé & Blasé, 2003; Branch et al., 2013; Castallo, 2001; Clifford, 2010; Duncan & Stock, 2010; Lambert 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Lewis et al., 2007; Lowe & Brigham, 2002; Marzano et al., 2005; Steiner & Kowal, 2007). Instructional leadership behaviors that will increase student learning include making instructional suggestions to teachers, providing professional development opportunities, giving feedback, modeling effective instruction, supporting collaboration, soliciting opinions, and praising effective teaching (Blasé & Blasé, 2000). An additional responsibility participants identified as not being prepared to handle was using teacher evaluations to increase student achievement. Student achievement can be raised or lowered depending on the quality of administrator (Branch et al., 2013). Of the eight interviewed participants, only one received instruction and practice with using the teacher evaluation as a tool to increase student achievement. The majority of participants stated they were prepared to evaluate teachers, but not using that evaluation as an assessment for student achievement. However, it should be noted on the survey, 79% felt they were prepared to conduct teacher evaluations and then use that evaluation to increase student achievement. This contradicts with responses on the open-ended question regarding what responsibility they believed they were least prepared. The majority of interviewed participants did not feel they received adequate training to use teacher evaluations as a way to increase student achievement, but six of the eight interviewed participants listed being the instructional leader as one of the three most important skills of an effective principal. Gaziel (2007), stated principals who make a considerable contribution to the success of staff are the ones who make a positive difference in students' learning.

Based on findings from this mixed-method study, novice administrators are ill-prepared for budgeting, using teacher evaluations to increase student achievement, developing the school

calendar, creating the master schedule, and dealing with staff member issues. Previous research has been conducted on this topic (Adamowski et al., 2007; Barnett et al., 2012; Bingham & Gottfried, 2003; Carpenter & Laseter, 1999; Drago-Severson & Pinto, 2004; Duncan & Stock, 2010; Fields & Egle, 2005; Lashway, 2003; Manges & Wilcox, 1997; Painter, 2001; Schrum, Galizio, & Ledesma, 2011; Shoho & Barnett, 2010). The findings of this study are unique in that it identifies specific areas that novice administrators identified as responsibilities they were ill-prepared to handle. The survey identified participants as being least prepared to handle were developing the master schedule, assigning non-instructional duties and scheduling parent/teacher conferences. Interviewed participants identified evaluating curriculum and best practices, preparing a budget and managing finances, managing human resources and personnel, using technology to increase student achievement, and evaluating teachers to increase student achievement as the ISSLC standards they were least prepared to handle.

Research Question #3

The third research question asked: How can principal preparation programs better develop future principals for their duties and responsibilities? Programs designed to prepare K-12 administrators for their future roles cannot be successful if the novice administrator has certain flaws (Searby, 2009; Zenger & Folkman, 2003). Schulte et al. (2010) identified leader, communication, caring, understanding and knowledge as the top five characteristics an effective administrator must possess to be successful. The top five characteristics participants identified were communication, instructional leader, possessing patience, conflict resolution skills, and being personable. Communication was identified as the most needed characteristics of an effective administrator.

Colleges and universities need to address the areas participants identified as being ill-prepared. Study participants did give suggestions that are backed by the work of the 2000 study conducted by the U. S. Department of Education. The U. S. Department of Education (2000) suggests principal preparation programs were failing because they lacked focus on recruiting candidates who would make effective principals. Participants identified the number of years a teacher has before being accepted into a principal preparation program as a way to increase the program's effectiveness. A survey participant stated, "I do not feel students should be allowed to enroll in the program without a minimum of five years teaching."

Research states, universities and colleges are not preparing future administrators because of their lack in recruiting highly qualified candidates, and because of this they lower their academic standards (Lashway, 2003; Levine, 2003; Quinn, 2005; The U.S. Department of Education, 2000). The U. S. Department of Education (2000) listed weak and noncompetitive selection criteria into the program, lack of focus on recruiting candidates who would make effective principals, low standards, and minimal academic rigor as reasons colleges and universities were failing to produce effective administrators. Scott stated, "Colleges/universities need to be more active in recruiting." He went on to add, "They need to get their feelers out there more to their graduates and ask them to give them the names of their top three folks in the building they believe have the potential to be great leaders." Levine (2005) found universities contribute to the problem of ill-prepared principals because the universities compete for students. As a result, this means lowering standards, providing a non-rigorous curriculum, and non-demanding degree requirements (Levine, 2005). Lashway (2003) and Quinn (2005) state universities should not be recruiting potential candidate based on their GPA, and letters of recommendations or interviews, but instead should accept students based on their knowledge of

curriculum and instruction, their work ethic, communication skills and their passion about education. Study participants believed candidates should have to exhibit their leadership skills, demonstrate competency as a teacher, and obtain a set score on the GRE® or a similar test.

An additional suggestion provided with regards to how colleges and universities could better develop future principals was through the use of more hands-on activities. The open-ended question on the survey tool used in this study asked: What can principal preparation programs do different to prepare future administrator? The number one response was more hands-on activities. Reames (2010), states providing future principals authentic experiences that create a connection between curriculum and field experiences should be the driving factor in a principal preparation program. Participants stated they wished there had been more experiences that replicated what they would be doing when they were a principal. Alicia stated this when asked how she would design her own principal preparation program:

I think as much on-the-job preparation that we could build into the program would be the most important, providing the hands-on experience of working through the daily basics, such as the evaluation processing, working with teachers, parents and students....The more confidence building that you can provide for the person and making sure that they understand what is coming or what could be coming is the best approach.

Many participants stated they wished that their internship was full-time. This is one of the areas of concerns that Duncan et al. (2011) and Wilmore and Bratlien (2005) researched. Duncan et al. (2011) and Whitmore and Bratlien (2005) found novice administrators were not obtaining the skills necessary because of the lack of opportunity to do the internship on a full-time basis. The internship experience is a vital aspect in order to prepare an effective principal (Black & Murtadha, 2007; Wilmore, 2002). Results from this study showed school

administrators had wished they were able to complete their internship without having to teach. Having the opportunity to take part in an internship experience in more than one school was another area participants would like to see instituted in a principal preparation program.

A third idea to improve the quality of principal preparation programs was the use of current practitioners as instructors within the program. Research is non-existent regarding the use of current practitioners as instructors within a principal preparation program. Participants identified the use of current practitioners within the education field such as superintendents, principals, and curriculum directors, as a way to make the principal preparation program more relevant. One surveyed participant wrote that he wanted, “More interface with real administration who are in the trenches versus university personnel with administration experience.” Another wrote, “I wish real principals had come in and discussed different aspects of the actual job.”

Based on findings from this study, novice administrators identified the use of current practitioners as instructors, more hands-on activities, the recruitment process, and implementation of a full-time internship as ways principal preparation programs can better develop future administrators. Previous research has been conducted on this topic (Black & Murtadha, 2007; Duncan et al, 2011; Lashway, 2003; Levine, 2003; Quinn, 2005; Reames, 2010; The U.S. Department of Education, 2000; Wilmore, 2002; Wilmore & Bratlien, 2005). However, the findings of this study are unique in that participants identified the use of current practitioners as the teachers of future principals. Participants agreed with the researchers in that internships need to be a full-time position with the use of authentic experiences as the guiding standard (Black & Murtadha, 2007; Duncan et al, 2011; Reames, 2010; Wilmore, 2002; Wilmore & Bratlien, 2005).

Conclusions

Results from this study describe how principal preparation programs in Idaho, Nevada, Montana, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming are effectively preparing future administrators for their responsibilities and duties as a principal. Educational leadership, school law and student discipline were responsibilities that participants identified as strengths of their program. Budgeting, creating schedules and calendars, and using teachers evaluations to increase student achievement were identified as responsibilities that principal preparation programs need to strengthen. Participants who completed the survey identified scheduling parent/teacher conferences, developing the master schedule, creating the school calendar, assigning non-instructional duties, dismissing staff members, and maintaining the school budget as responsibilities they were less prepared to handle.

There were responsibilities within the 29 responsibilities on the survey that had a statistical difference at the $p < .05$ level between the different states surveyed. When each state was compared, 11 different combinations of state comparisons resulted in statistical differences between responsibilities. The following state combinations showed statistical difference among responsibilities: Idaho/Montana, Idaho/Nevada, Idaho/Washington, Idaho/Wyoming, Montana/Nevada, Montana/Washington, Nevada/Utah, Nevada/Washington, Nevada/Wyoming, Oregon/Montana, and Oregon/Utah. The overall preparedness differed among each state. Montana ranked themselves as the most prepared at 55.55%, however, they also ranked themselves the least prepared with 11.11% of participants identifying strongly disagree with their overall preparedness level. Sixteen percent of Washington participants stated they “strongly agreed” they were prepared, with 33.33% identifying disagree to their preparedness level.

Although participants believed they were prepared, the level of preparedness between the different 29 responsibilities differed among the seven states. The five responsibilities identified by participants as being most prepared to handle were knowledge of school law (92.31%), establishing and maintaining a vision and focus on a core set of organization goals (86.79%), implementing research-based school improvement (85.19%), maintaining a safe school (84.91%), and developing high expectations for student learning (83.33%). The least prepared responsibilities were developing the master schedule (42.60%), dismissing staff members (37.04%), scheduling parent/teacher conferences (33.33%), developing the school calendar (33.33%), and assigning non-instructional duties (33.33%).

Individuals who participated in the qualitative study identified budget, managerial, staffing, instructional leadership, and special education as the five themes they were least prepared to handle. The six functions within the ISLLC standards identified as being most prepared for were creating a vision of learning, ethics, understanding the importance of diversity and equity, collaborating with stakeholders, creating a school culture, and addressing facilities and maintenance. The five ISLLC standards identified as being least prepared to handle were evaluating curriculum and best practices, preparing a budget and managing finances, human resource management and personnel, using technology to increase student achievement, and evaluating teachers to increase student achievement.

Recommendations for Further Research

Through this research and literature review, there are several areas within principal preparation programs that were identified as an area in need of further research. The need for further research within principal preparation programs include:

- Internships

- ISSLC standards
- Technology
- Experience as a teacher prior to becoming an administrator

Five of the 54 surveyed participants did not have to complete an internship as part of their principal preparation program. These five participants were at a disservice because of the valuable experience that an internship allows a future administrator to practice. However, the number of principal preparation programs that do not require an internship is decreasing. Even among universities/colleges that require an internship, there are disparaging differences. The hours and requirements for the internship not only vary from state to state, they vary from institution to institution. Not only do the number of hours required differ from program to program, but what is required of the interns also different. Of the eight participants interviewed, all stated that their internship gave them valuable experience. An area of research regarding the internship for further investigation would be how universities/colleges are implementing the ISSLC standards into the internship. Is there a difference in preparedness between interns who are required to accomplish ISSLC standards and interns who do not? What specific requirements of the internship are more beneficial than others? All interviewed participants stated the internship was critical in helping them become effective administrators. Participants also claimed being home game supervisor, hall monitor, or lunch room supervisor did not increase their preparedness.

Some universities/colleges have been adopting the ISLLC standards since 1996 as their guide for curriculum and instruction within their principal preparation programs (Machado, 2012). Nonetheless, not all universities/colleges have implemented these standards. An area of research that I would deem valuable is to investigate differences between principal preparation

programs that implement the ISLLC standards and those that do not. Is there any difference between programs that are based on ISSLC standards and those that are not? Do novice administrators feel more prepared because of the ISSLC standards than those who were not exposed to the ISSLC standards? It would also be important to investigate universities/colleges who state that their curriculum and instruction is based on the ISSLC standards, but their students say otherwise. Are universities/colleges teaching what they claim to be teaching?

The last area of further research is the area of technology. The first area of research is in ways technology increases student achievement and professional development. ISLLC Standard 2, function eight states an education leader promotes the success of every student by promoting the use of the most effective and appropriate technologies to support teaching and learning (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008). However, of the eight interview participants for this study, only one participant was exposed to using technology to increase student achievement. This study found that principal preparation programs are not incorporating effective ways for principals to implement technology into their schools. Research exists stating the use of technology can increase student achievement. Usher (2012) found when used properly technology such as, social media, online discussion, and enhanced assessment, students' scholastic motivation can increase. In fact, educators have helped researchers to develop video games that will strengthen academic skills (Usher, 2012). However, the research is lacking in the area of how a principal can stress the role of technology in promoting student learning and professional growth. In fact, of the eight interviewed participants in this study, none stated the use of technology was emphasized in their program. They had exposure to technology and were encouraged to use technology, but it was not a priority within their program.

The second half of technology for further research is in the area of delivery of content for students in a principal preparation program. Research is mixed regarding the quality of content delivery between an online program or one that takes place in a brick and mortar building. Chapman et al. (2009) found that 68.3% believed the online delivery was just as credible as face-to-face instruction, however, Huss (2007) found that 95% of principals surveyed in his study did not think online teaching degrees had as much credibility as a traditional program. Of the eight interviewed participants, none of these programs were solely online, whereas only one of the 54 surveyed their program as being completely online. Even though the use of online learning is increasing throughout universities/colleges, the use of the online delivery seems to be lacking in the field of educational leadership. A research study comparing online learning and in person and/or blended learning within the field of educational leadership would be warranted as there is a lack of previous research related to this research topic.

Participants stated there needs to be a minimum number of years a future administrator needs to have as a teacher before going into administration. The number of years ranged from five to ten. The experiences gained as a teacher is invaluable and could have an impact on the effectiveness of a future administrator. Participants believed only effective teachers with a minimum number of years should be accepted into principal preparation programs. Future studies could determine if there is an impact on preparedness levels or effectiveness of novice administrators dependent on the number of years they were as a teacher.

Implications for Professional Practice

The purpose of this study was three-fold. One purpose was to determine what principal preparation programs are currently doing to prepare future administrators. A second purpose was to identify the areas for which novice administrators are ill-prepared. The final purpose of this

dissertation study was to identify how administrator preparation programs can better develop future principals. It is important to note that the majority of research participants (79.3%) believed they were prepared to handle the responsibilities and duties they have as a principal, even though this contradicts findings in the literature review. Quinn (2005) contends that universities have not sufficiently prepared principals to take on the demands of school administration. The Education Alliance at Brown University (2003) and Oplatka (2009) states the theory taught at universities is not aligning with the practical skills necessary to be a leader of a school. Farkas et al. (2003) found 67% of principals reported their preparation programs were out of touch with the reality of what it takes for a principal to effectively lead a school. This study identified specific responsibilities that participants stated their principal preparation program did not adequately prepare them to handle. Seventy-nine percent of participants stated they were prepared for their responsibilities as an administrator, although none of 29 surveyed responsibilities received only agree or strongly agree for preparedness.

The design of this study was to help improve the way principal preparation programs prepare future administrators. Although, participants believed they were prepared overall for the responsibilities and duties of a principal, there were areas within their programs that warranted revision. The need for more hands-on activities, an internship that was more extensive and having the ISSLC standards as the guide for the curriculum, and the instruction within the program were a few of the items participants wished their principal preparation program had adhered to. The use of hands-on activities would have helped participants in the responsibilities they felt ill-prepared to handle. Budgeting, creating teachers schedules, developing the master calendar and using teacher evaluations as a way to increase student achievement were responsibilities participants identified as areas that principal preparation programs need to

strengthen. Providing future administrators with the opportunity to create a budget, teacher's schedule, and master schedule before they are in their position as a principal would be beneficial to both the future administrator and the school they will be leading. Embedding the ISSLC standards within the internship was an idea that participants stated they wished their principal preparation program had implemented.

The need to redesign principal preparation programs could be warranted because of this study. Laney stated her principal preparation program did an exceptional job with the theory of education and how to be an education leader. However, her program lacked practical experiences. This study is unique and helped fill the gap in the professional literature by identifying specific responsibilities administrators felt ill-prepared to handle. The roles, responsibilities, and duties of a K-12 administrator are enormous. Being ill-prepared with any of the responsibilities can be detrimental to a school and its students. Principal preparation programs need to ensure that the skills necessary for administrators to be effective are not only being taught in their program, but future administrators are getting hands-on experience during their internship and coursework.

References

- Adams, K., & Hambricht, G. (2004). Encouraged or discouraged? Women teacher leaders becoming principals. *Clearing House*, 77(5), 209-211.
- Adamowski, S., Therriault, S. B., & Cavanna, A. P. (2007). *The autonomy gap: Barriers to effective school leadership*. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED496189)
- Adams, J., & DeFleur, M. (2006). The acceptability of online degrees earned as a credential for obtaining employment. *Communication Education*, 55, 32-45.
- AI Access (2013). *Your access to data modeling*. Retrieved from http://www.aiaccess.net/English/Glossaries/GlosMod/e_gm_mann_whitney.htm
- Alsbury, T., & Hackmann, D. (2006). Learning from experience: Initial findings of a mentoring/induction program for novice principals and superintendents. *Planning and Changing*, 37(3 & 4), 169-189.
- American Institutes for Research. (2012, January). *Hiring quality school leaders: Challenges and emerging practices*. (Issue Brief). Naperville, IL: Matthew Clifford.
- Anonymous. (2010). Proven solutions for new leaders, *Principal*, 90(1), 31-35.
- Anast-May, L., Buckner, B., & Geer, G., (2011). Redesigning principal internships: Practicing principals' perspectives. *International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation*, 6(1), 1-7.
- Armstrong, D. (2010). Rites of passage: Coercion, compliance, and complicity in the socialization of new vice-principals. *Teachers College Record*, 112(3), 685-722.
- Association of Washington School Personnel (2013). The Washington State Education Leadership Intern Program Grant. Retrieved from

<http://www.awsp.org/Content/awsp/ProfessionalDevelopment/StateFundedInternProgram/StateFundedInternPro.htm>

- Asunda, P. (2010). Designing instruction for the distance learner. *Techniques: Connecting Education and Careers*, 85(6), 16-19. Retrieved from ERIC database. (EJ909582)
- Barnett B., Shoho, A., & Oleszewski, A. (2012). The job realities of beginning and experienced assistant principals. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 11(1), 92-128.
- Barton, L. (2011). Moving to the dark side or into the light? Internal or external motivation to become a school leader. *Educational Leadership and Administration*, 23, 13-28.
Retrieved from ERIC database. (EJ965166)
- Basom, M., & Yerkes, D. (2004). A school-university partnership in administrator preparation: Learnings and subsequent questions. *Educational Leadership and Administration*, 16, 47-59.
- Bass, T. (2006). To be or not to be: Issues influencing educators' decisions to enter the principalship. *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practices*, 2(4), 19-30.
- Becker, L. (2013). Effect Size Calculators. Retrieved from <http://www.uccs.edu/~lbecker/>
- Bingham, S. C., & Gottfriend, S. (2003). *Leading change in principal development*. Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED 480938)
- Black, W. (2011). Who are we? Collaborative inquiry and the description of one state's principal preparation programs. *International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation*, 6(2), 1-17.
- Black, W. R., & Murtadha, K. (2007). Towards a signature pedagogy in educational leadership preparation and program assessment. *Journal of Research in Educational Leadership*, 2(1), 1-30.

- Blase, J., & Blase, J. (2003). Effective instructional leadership: Teachers' perspectives on how principals promote teaching and learning in schools. *Journal of Educational Administration, 38*(2), 130-141.
- Borkan, J. (2004). Mixed methods studies: A foundation for primary care research. *Annals of Family Medicine, 2*(1), 4-6. Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1466623>.
- Branch, G., Rivkin, S., & Hanushek, E. (2013). Measuring the impact of effective principals. *School Leaders Matter, 13*(1). Retrieve from <http://educationnext.org/school-leaders-matter/>
- Browne-Ferrigno, T., & Muth, R. (2004). Leadership mentoring in clinical practice: Role socialization, professional development, and capacity building. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 40*(4), 468-494.
- Bryman, A. (2006). Integrating quantitative and qualitative research. *Qualitative Research, 6*(1), 97-113.
- Butler, K. (2008). Equipping school leaders for new pressures and challenges. *District Administration Magazine*. Retrieved from <http://www.districtadministration.com/article/principal-preparation-programs>
- BYU Educational Leadership & Foundations (2013). Retrieved from <http://education.byu.edu/edlf/programs/exsl/internships/index.html>
- Carpenter, W. A., & Laseter, J. C. (Spring, 1999). When your principal is a wimp. *Kappa Delta Pi Record, 35*(3), 132-135.

- Carcary, M. (2009). The research audit trail—Enhancing trustworthiness in qualitative inquiry. *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 7(1), 11-24. Retrieved from www.ejbrm.com/issue/download.html?idArticle=198
- Carlson, L. (2010). Avoiding traps in member checking. *The Qualitative Report*, 15(5), 1102-1113. Retrieved from <http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR15-5/carlson.pdf>
- Castallo, R. (2001). *Focused leadership: How to improve student achievement*. Lanham, MD: Scarecrow Press.
- Chan, T., Webb, L., & Bowen, C. (2003). *Are Assistant principals prepared for principalships? How do assistant principals perceive?* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Sino-American Education Consortium, Kennesaw, GA. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED481543)
- Chapman, P., Diaz, S., Moore, L., & Deering, P. (2009). Educational administration students' perceptions of tradition vs. online instructional delivery formats. *Journal on Excellence in College Teaching*, 20(2), 7-26.
- Council of Chief State School Officers. (2008). *Educational leadership policy standards*. Retrieved from http://www.ccsso.org/Resources/Publications/Educational_Leadership_Policy_Standards_ISLLC_2008_as_Adopted_by_the_National_Policy_Board_for_Educational_Administration.html
- Council of Chief State School Officers. (1996). Graduate studies handbook: Education department. Retrieved from www.castleton.edu/Education_graduate/pdfs/grad_handbook.pdf

- Council of Chief State School Officers. (2012). Representing state education leaders of elementary and secondary education systems. Retrieved from http://www.ccsso.org/Who_We_Are.html
- Chi-Sing, L., & Beverly, I. (2008). An overview of online education: Attractiveness, benefits, challenges, concerns and recommendations. *College Student Journal, 42*(2), 449-458. Retrieved from ERIC database. (EJ816925)
- Choi, C., Browne-Ferrigno, T., & Muth, R. (2005). An exploration of online peer interaction among preparing school leaders. *Educational Leadership and Administration, 17*, 101-114.
- Crabtree, C. (2006). Qualitative research guidelines project. Retrieved from <http://www.qualres.org/HomeMemb-3696.html>
- Cranston, N. (2007). Through the eyes of potential aspirants: Another view of the principalship. *School Leadership and Management, 27*(2), 109-128.
- Creswell, J. (2008). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Creswell, J., & Garrett, A. (2008). The “movement” of mixed methods research and the role of educators. *South African Journal of Education, 28*, 321-333.
- Dabbagh, N. (2004). Distance learning: Emerging pedagogical issues and learning designs. *The Quarterly Review of Distance Education, 5*(1), 37-49.
- Daresh, J. C. (2007). Mentoring for beginning principals: Revisiting the past or preparing for the future? *Mid-Western Educational Researcher, 20*(4), 21-27.
- Daresh, J. C. (1995). Research base on mentoring for educational leaders: What do we know? *Journal of Educational Administration, 33*(5), 7-16.

- Davis, J., & Jazzar, M. (2005). Seven habits of effective principal preparation programs. *Principal, 48*(5), 19-21.
- Dolezalek, H. (2003). Online degrees. *Training, 40*(5), 26-32.
- Drago-Severson, E., & Pinto, K. (2004). From barriers to breakthroughs: Principal's strategies for overcoming challenges to teachers' transformational learning. *Journal of School Leadership, 14*(6), 653-685.
- Duncan, H., Range, B. & Scherz, S. (2011). From professional preparation to on-the-job development: What do beginning principals need? *International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation, 6*(3), 1-20.
- Duncan, H., & Stock, M. (2010). Mentoring and coaching rural school leaders: What do they need? *Mentoring and Tutoring: Partnership in Learning, 18*(3), 293-311.
- Education Commission of the States. (2011). *Mentor programs*. Retrieved from <http://mb2.ecs.org/reports/Report.aspx?id=866>.
- Education Week. (2011). *Adequately yearly progress*. Retrieved from <http://www.edweek.org/ew/issues/adequate-yearlyprogress/>
- Educational Leadership Program Standards. (2011). *Educational leadership program standards*. Retrieved from <http://npbea.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/06/ELCC-District-Level-Standards-2011.pdf>
- Ender, P. (2013). *Introduction to research design and statistics: Effect size*. Retrieved from <http://www.philender.com/courses/intro/notes/effect.html>
- Ensher, E., & Murphy, S. (2005). *Power mentoring: How successful mentor and protégés get the most out of their relationships*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Farkas, S., Johnson, J., & Duffet, A. (2003). *Rolling up their sleeves: Superintendents and principals talk about what's needed to fix public schools*. New York: Public Agenda.
- Fields, L., & Egley, R. (2005). Assistant principals in Florida rank first-year challenges. *ERS Spectrum*, 23(1), 4-10.
- Galbraith, M., & Cohen, N. (1995). Issues and challenges confronting mentoring. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, 66, 89-98.
- Gallagher, S., & Poroy, B. (2005). *Assessing consumer attitudes toward online education*. Boston, MA: Eduventures.
- Gaziel, H. (2007). A definition and illustration of democratic leadership. *Human Relations*, 47(8), 953-975.
- George, D., & Mallery, P. (2003). *SPSS for Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference. 11.0 update* (4th ed.) Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Gliem, J., & Gliem, R. (2003). Calculating, interpreting, and reporting Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for likert-type scales. Presented at Midwest Research to Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing, and Community Education.
- Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 8(4), 597-607.
- Green, R. L. (2010). *The four dimensions of principal leadership: Leading for 21st century schools*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Gutmore, D., Gutmore R. F., Strobert, B. (2009). Meeting the needs: A best practice "grow your own" school leader program. *AASA Journal of Scholarship & Practice*, 6(1), 33-39.
- Harris, S. L. (2006). Best practices of award-winning public school principals: Implications for University preparation programs, *Journal of Scholarship & Practice*, 3(2), 30-41.

- Harris, S., Ballenger, J. & Leonard, J. (2004). Aspiring principal perceptions: Are mentor principals modeling standards-based leadership? *Mentoring and Tutoring, 12*(2), 155-172.
- Hess, F., & Kelly, A. (2005). The accidental principal. *Education Next, 5*(3), 34-40.
- Hidalgo, T. (2005). Building a framework: The role of the administrator in teacher retention. *Keeping Quality Teachers, the Art of Retaining General and Special Education Teacher*. Retrieved from <http://www.p12.nysed.gov/specialed/publications/persprep/qualityteachers/administrator.htm>
- Hopkins-Thompson, P. (2000). Colleagues helping colleagues: Mentoring and coaching. *NASSP Bulletin, 84*(617), 29-36. Retrieved from ERIC database. (EJ612883)
- Huss, J. (2007). Attitudes of middle grades principals toward online teacher preparation programs in middle grade education: Are administrators pushing “delete”? *Research in Middle Level Education, 30*(7), 1-13.
- IBM SPSS. Statistics 20 [Computer software]. Retrieved from <https://my.nnu.edu/ICS/StudentItemAnalysis>.
- Item Analysis. (2011). *Assess student: Item analysis*. Retrieved from <http://www.utexas.edu/academic/ctl/assessment/iar/students/report/itemanalysis.php>
- Korach, S., & Agans, L. (2011). From ground to distance: The impact of advanced technologies on an innovative school leadership program. *Journal of Research on Leadership Education, 6*(5), 216-233.
- Kim, K., & Bonk, C. (2006) the future of online teaching and learning in higher education: The survey says....*Educause Quarterly, 29*(4), 22-30. Retrieved from ERIC database. (EJ839337)

- Lambert, L. (2003). *Leadership capacity for lasting school improvement*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Lashway, L. (2003) Inducting school leaders. *ERIC Digest*. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED47974)
- Lashway, L. (2003) *Transforming principal preparation*. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED473360)
- Lasky, B., & Karge, B. (2006). Meeting the needs of students with disabilities: Experience and confidence of principals. *NASSP Bulletin*, 90(1), 19-36. Retrieved from ERIC database. (EJ747994)
- Leech, L., & Onwuegbuzie, J. (2007). An array of qualitative analysis tools: A call for data analysis triangulation. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 22(4), 557-584.
- Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (2008). Linking leadership to student learning: The contributions of leader efficacy. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44(4), 496-528.
- Lester, S. (1999). An introduction to phenomenological research. Taunton UK, Stan Lester Developments. Retrieved from <http://www.sld.demon.co.uk/publications.htm>
- Levine, A. (2005) *Educating school leaders*. New York: Teacher College, The Education Schools Project.
- Lewis, J. D., Cruzeiro, P. A., & Hall, C.A. (2007). Impact of two elementary school principals' leadership on gifted education in their buildings. *Gifted Child Today*, 30(2), 56-62.
- Lowe, M. A., & Brigham, F. J. (2000). Supervising special education instruction: Does it deserve a special place in administrative preparatory program? 1-13. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED 448530)

- Machado, C. (2012). ISLLC/ELCC standards implementation: Do educational administration faculty practice what they preach? *International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation*, 7(2).
- Malone, R. (2000). Principal mentoring. *Research Roundup* 17(2), 1-4.
- Manges, C.D., & Wilcox, D. J. (1997). The role of the principal in rural school reform. *The Rural Educator*, 18(3), 21-23.
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. (2011). *Designing qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Marzano, R.J., Waters, T., & McNulty, B. A. (2005). *School leadership that works: From research to results*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Matthews, D. (1999). The originals of distance education and its use in the United States. *The Higher Education Journal*, 27(2), 54-67.
- Meyer, M., & Macmillan, R. (2011). Principal succession and the Micropolitics of Educators in Schools: Some incidental results from a larger study. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*, 117, 1-26. Retrieved from ERIC database. (EJ923617)
- Moody, J. (2004). Distance education: Why are the attrition rates so high? *The Quarterly Review of Distance Education*, 5(3), 205-210.
- Nettles, S., & Herrington, C. (2007). Revisiting the importance of the direct effects of school leadership on student achievement: The implications for school improvement policy. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 82(4), 724-736.

- Olatunji, B., Williams, N., Tolin, D., Abramowitz, J., Sawchuk, C., Lohr, J., & Elwood, S. (2007). The disgust scale: Item analysis, factor structure, and suggestions for refinement. *Psychological Assessment, 19*(3), 281-297.
- Oplatka, I. (2009). Learning the principal's future internal career experiences in a principal preparation program. *International Journal of Educational Management, 23*(2), 129-144.
- Orb, A., Eisenhauer, L., & Wynaden, D. (2001). Ethics in qualitative research. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship, 33*(1), 93-96.
- Painter, S. R. (2001). Barriers to evaluation; Beliefs of elementary and middle school principals. *Planning and Changing, 32*(1 & 2), 58-70.
- Paquette, B. (2004). Are today's beginning school administrators prepared for their jobs? A case study. *International Journal of Educational Reform, 13*(2), 111-117.
- Patton, M. (2002). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Peddy, W. (2009). Five keys to success. *Principal Leadership, 9*(5), 36-38. Retrieved from ERIC database. (EJ825091)
- Peters, A. (2010). Elements of successful mentoring of a female school leader. *Leadership and Policy in Schools, 9*, 108-129. doi: 10.1080/15700760903026755
- Powell, H., Mihalas, S., Onwuegbuzie, A., Suldo, S., & Daley, C. (2008). Mixed methods research in school psychology: A mixed methods investigation of trends in the literature. *Psychology in the Schools, 45*(5), 291-309.
- Protheroe, N. (2006). Maintaining high teacher morale. *Principal, 85*(3). 46-49. Retrieved from ERIC database. (EJ772057)

- Quinn, T. (2005). Leadership development: The principal university connection. *Principal*, 48(5), 12-16.
- Radhakrishna, R. (2007). Tips for developing and testing questionnaires/instruments. *Journal of Extension*, 45(1). Retrieved from <http://www.joe.org/joe/2007february/tt2.php>
- Ramcharan, P., & Cutcliffe, J. (2001). Judging the ethics of qualitative research: Considering the 'ethics as process' model. *Blackwell Science Ltd, Health and Social Care in the Community*, 9(6), 358-366.
- Reames, E. (2010). Shifting paradigms: Redesigning a principal preparation program's curriculum. *Journal of Research on Leadership Education*, 5(12.5), 436-459.
- Region 7 Education Service Center (2013). *Principal certification program*. Retrieved from <http://www.esc7.net/default.aspx?name=principal-cert-prog>
- Retelle, E., & Poole, W. (2006). Identity-based othering and collaborative leadership: Implications of contradictory messages for new administrators. *Journal of School Leadership*, 16(3), 319-349.
- Risen, M., & Tripses, J. (2008). Designing principal preparation internships to strengthen school leadership. *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice*, 5(3), 4-10.
- Roberts, P., Priest, H., & Traynor, M. (2006), Reliability and validity in research. *Nursing Standard*, 20(4), 41-45.
- Searby, L. (2010). Preparing future principals: Facilitating the development of a mentoring mindset through graduate coursework. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 18(1), 5-22.

- Schmidt-Davis, J., & Bottoms, G. (2011). *Who's next? Let's stop gambling on school performance and plan for principal succession*. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED528727)
- Schrum, L., Galizio, M., & Ledesma, P. (2011). Educational leadership and technology integration: An investigation into preparation, experiences, and roles. *Journal of School Leadership Journal of School Leadership*, 21(2), 241-261.
- Schulte, D., Slate, J., & Onwuegbuzie, A. (2010). Characteristics of effective school principals: A mixed-research study. *The Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 56(2), 172-195.
- Shoho, R., & Barnett, B. (2010). The realities of new principals; Challenges, Joys, and sorrows. *Journal of School Leadership*, 20(5), 561-596.
- Silver, M., Lochmiller, C., Copland, M., & Tripps, A. (2009). Supporting new school leaders: findings from a university-based leadership coaching program for new administrators. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 17(8), 215-232.
- Soehner, D., & Ryan, T. (2011). The interdependence of principal school leadership and student achievement. *Scholar-Practitioner Quarterly*, 5(3), 274-268.
- Southern Regional Education Board (2005). The principal internship: How can we get it right? Retrieved from http://publications.sreb.org/2005/05V02_Principal_Internship.pdf
- Steiner, L., & Kowal, J. (2007). Principal as instructional leader. *The Center for Comprehensive School Reform and Improvement*. Retrieved from http://www.centerforcsri.org/index.php?Itemid=98&id=366&option=com_content&task=view
- Styron, R., & LeMire, S. (2009). Principal preparation programs: Perceptions of high school principals. *Journal of College Teaching & Learning*, 6(6), 51-62.

- Tanner, D. (2012). *Using statistics to make educational decisions*. Thousand Oakes, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Teijlingen, E., & Hundley, V. (2001). The importance of pilot studies. *Social Research Update*, 1-7. Retrieved from <http://sru.soc.surrey.ac.uk/SRU35.html>
- The Educational Alliance at Brown University (2003). *Making the case for principal mentoring*. National Association of Elementary School Principals. Retrieved from www.alliance.brown.edu/pubs/pln/prncpalmntrg.pdf , 5-35.
- The Sloan Consortium. (2005). *Growing by degrees: Online education in the United States, 2005*. Retrieved from http://sloanconsortium.org/publications/survey/growing_by_degrees_2005
- The Sloan Consortium. (2011). *Growing by degrees: Online education in the United States, 2011*. Retrieved from <http://www.onlinelearningsurvey.com/reports/goingthedistance.pdf>
- Trochim, W. (2006) Qualitative validity. Research methods knowledge base. Retrieved from <http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/qualval.php>
- U.S. Department of Education. (2000). *Eliminating barriers to improving teachers*. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED 450113)
- U.S. Department of Education. (2004). *Executive Summary*. Retrieved from <http://www2.ed.gov/nclb/overview/intro/execsumm.html>.
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2012). *Table 260. Public school employment: 1990 and 2008*. Retrieved from <http://www.census.gov/compendia/statab/2012/tables/12s0260.pdf>.
- Usher, A., (2012). *What nontraditional approaches can motivate unenthusiastic students?* (CEP Report-6). Retrieved from Center on Education Policy website: <http://www.cep-dc.org/publications/index.cfm?selectedYear=2012>

- Vanderhaar, J., Munoz, M., & Rodosky, R. (2006). Leadership as accountability for learning: The effects of school poverty, teacher experience, previous achievement, and principal preparation programs on student achievement. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education, 19*(1-2), 17-33.
- White, E., Hilliard, A., & Jackson, B., (2011). Intentions and feedback from participants in a leadership training program. *Journal of College Teaching & Learning, 8*(11).
- Wilmore, E. (2002). *Principal leadership; applying the new educational leadership constituent council (ELCC) standards*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Wilmore, E., & Bratlien, M. (2005). Mentoring and tutoring within administrative internship programs in American universities. *Mentoring and Tutoring, 13*(1), 23-37.
- Young, M., & Brewer, C. (2008). Fear and the preparation of school leaders: The role of ambiguity, anxiety, and power in meaning making. *Educational Policy, 22*(1), 106-129.
- Zenger, J.H., & Folkman, J. (2003). *The handbook for leaders*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Appendix A

Qualitative Informed Consent

A. Purpose and Background

I am currently a doctorate student at Northwest Nazarene University and I am conducting a research study related to how principal preparation programs are preparing future administrators. The purpose of this study is to determine if principal preparation programs are preparing principals for the duties, responsibilities, and challenges that new administrators face. I appreciate your involvement in helping better equip principal preparation programs for the duties and responsibilities that principals are faced with daily.

You are being asked to participate in this study because you are over the age of 18 and you fit the criteria for the study.

B. Procedures

If you agree to be in the study, the following will occur:

1. You will be asked to sign an Informed Consent Form, volunteering to participate in the study.
2. You will be interviewed twice. The first interview will take place either in September 2012 or October 2012 and the second interview will take place in December 2012 or January 2013. The interviews will be audio taped and are expected to take approximately 45 minutes each.
3. After the interviews have been disseminated you will be asked to read the write-up to make sure that the information you gave is correct.

C. Risks/Discomforts

There is minimal risk involved if you volunteer for this research. You will not be identified in the research, all interviews and responses will be kept confidential with all data being secured in my home.

Some of the questions in the interview may make you uncomfortable, but you are free to decline to answer any questions you do not wish to answer or to stop participation at any time. There will be no compensation for your participation in this study.

D. Benefits

There will be no direct benefit to you from participating in this study. However, the information you provide may help principal preparation programs and future K-12 administrators.

E. Payments

There are no payments for participating in this study.

F. Questions

If you have any questions or concerns about participation in this study, please feel free to contact the research investigator, Sarah Hatfield. She can be contacted at [REDACTED]; [REDACTED]

█████; e-mail at ██████████. You may also contact her Faculty Advisor, Dr. Lori Werth via e-mail at ██████████ or via telephone at ██████████.

Should you feel distressed due to participation in this study, you should contact your own health care provider.

G. Consent

You will be given a copy of this consent form to keep.

Participation in research is voluntary. You are free to decline to be in this study, or to withdraw from it at any point. This research study has been approved by the Northwest Nazarene University Human Research Review Committee in August, 2012, approval #7062012.

I give my consent to participate in this study:

Signature of Study Participant

Date

I give my consent for the interview to be audio taped in this study:

Signature of Study Participant

Date

I give my consent for direct quotes to be used in this study. No person identifying information will be used in the report from this study:

Signature of Study Participant

Date

Signature of Person Obtaining Consent

Date

Appendix B

Telephone Call Script

Hello, my name is Sarah Hatfield, and I am a doctoral student at Northwest Nazarene University. Do you remember recently filling out a short survey online about principal preparation programs? On that survey, you indicated that you would be willing to participate in two interviews. Is this a good time to chat about setting up a time for the first interview?

If yes, proceed

If no, is there a time that would be better to call again? Thank you for your time. I will call back at our appointed time.

Thank you for agreeing to be a part of this study. Before I can conduct our first interview I will need you to sign the Informed Consent Form.

I will e-mail you an Informed Consent Form for your signature. After you have signed the form, you can scan the form and e-mail it to me at [REDACTED].

After I have received the Informed Consent Form, I will call you back to set up a time for our first interview.

Do you have any questions for me?

Thank you so much for your willingness to be a part of this study. I will talk to you soon. Thanks again.

Appendix C

Quantitative Online Survey

Dear Administrator:

My name is Sarah Hatfield and I am currently a doctoral student at Northwest Nazarene University in Nampa, Idaho. I am working on my dissertation and I was hoping that you would participate in this study.

The purpose of this investigative study is to determine if principal preparation programs are preparing principals for the duties, responsibilities, and challenges that K-12 administrators face. As you know, being a K-12 administrator is tough work. The goal of this study is to determine if principal preparation programs are giving new administrators the knowledge that they need to be successful. This study will help principal preparation programs to meet the needs of new administrators.

I am asking for your input on this subject because you are an administrator and have your own insight into this area. I look forward to reviewing your responses.

All data received will be anonymous and by filling out the survey, you are giving me consent to use your responses in my study.

If you would like to take part of a qualitative study that will include two (2) interviews in October and November, please e-mail me at [REDACTED] or by phone at [REDACTED] or [REDACTED].

The survey will take approximately 10 minutes to complete. Please feel free to contact me with any questions or concerns you may have. Thank you for your time and willingness to participate in this research.

Sarah Hatfield
[REDACTED]

The following is a list of demographic questions that would help the researcher in the data analysis phase of the study. You are not required to answer the questions. This is a voluntary questionnaire. If you do not feel comfortable answering one or multiple questions, please leave them blank. Thank you.

Gender:

- Male (1)
- Female (2)

State currently employed in:

- Idaho (1)
- Oregon (2)
- Montana (3)
- Nevada (4)
- Utah (5)
- Washington (6)
- Wyoming (7)

Number of years employed as an administrator:

- 1 (1)
- 2 (2)
- 3 (3)
- 4 or more (4)

The year administrative credential program was completed:

- 2012 (1)
- 2011 (2)
- 2010 (3)
- 2009 (4)
- 2008 (5)
- 2007 (6)
- 2006 (7)
- 2005 or earlier (8)

State original administrative credentials were received from:

- Idaho (1)
- Oregon (2)
- Montana (3)
- Nevada (4)
- Utah (5)
- Washington (6)
- Wyoming (7)
- Other (8)

Type of institution where administrative credentials was received:

- Public/State University (1)
- Private College/University (2)
- For Profit College/University (3)
- Other (4) _____

Current Grade level administrator:

- K-6 (1)
- K-5 (2)
- 6-8 (3)
- 7-9 (4)
- 9-12 (5)
- 10-12 (6)
- 7-12 (7)
- Other (8)

Overall I was engaged as a student during the administrative credential program I attended:

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Somewhat Disagree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (5)
- Agree (3)
- Strongly Agree (4)

Did you experience a supervised internship during your administrative credential program?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Overall the administrative credential program I attended prepared me for my position as an administrator?

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)

I would recommend my administrative credential program to a friend or colleague as one that would help a K-12 administrator be effective in their first few years on the job:

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- Disagree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Agree (4)
- Strongly Agree (5)

If you are within the first three years of being an administrator and would like to participate in the qualitative study, please e-mail [REDACTED], or phone [REDACTED] or [REDACTED]. Thank you

My administrative credential program prepared me to:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
Conduct staff meetings (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Manage the school budget (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Conduct student discipline (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Have in-depth knowledge of special education law (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Schedule parent/teacher conferences (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Develop professional development (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Develop school calendar (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Develop master schedule (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Assign non-instructional duties (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Dismiss staff members (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Hire staff members (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Evaluate staff members (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Conduct parent meetings (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stay current with legislation (14)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stay current with technology (15)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Implement research-based school improvement (16)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use data for decision making: Such as RTI, state assessments (17)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stay current with instruction and curriculum; Such as common core, STEM, MTI (18)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use mentors for new teachers (19)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Knowledge of school law (20)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Maintain a safe school (21)	<input type="radio"/>				
Strategically allocate staffing and other resources (22)	<input type="radio"/>				
Monitor teaching and learning quality (23)	<input type="radio"/>				
Establish and maintain a vision and focus on a core set of organization goals (24)	<input type="radio"/>				
Build trust and professional community among educators (25)	<input type="radio"/>				
Use data to reflect upon and improve classroom and organization practices (26)	<input type="radio"/>				
Developing high expectations for student learning (27)	<input type="radio"/>				
Conduct classroom observations and use that information to increase student learning (28)	<input type="radio"/>				
Develop a strong school leadership team (29)	<input type="radio"/>				

What area, within your responsibilities as an administrator, do you believe you were most prepared for?

What area, within your responsibilities as an administrator, do you believe you were least prepared for?

What could have been done differently in the administrative credential program to increase your preparedness as a new administrator?

What was the most helpful or most beneficial aspect of your administrative credential program? What pieces of content, components, or delivery would have led to a better program?

This study and survey instrument has been reviewed by the Human Research Review Committee at Northwest Nazarene University. Approval #7062012

Reminder: If you are interested in being a part of the qualitative interviews and are within your first three years of being an administrator, please e-mail at [REDACTED], or phone at [REDACTED] or [REDACTED]. Thank you

Thank you for taking time out of your busy schedule to take this survey. Please contact me via e-mail at [REDACTED] if you have questions regarding this survey instrument.

Appendix D

Qualitative Interview Questions

Interview #1

1. Tell me a little about yourself?
2. Tell me about your teaching experience before you become an administrator?
3. What made you want to become an administrator?
4. How many years have you been an administrator?
5. What is your official title?
6. How would you describe the demographics of your school?
7. Is this the only school you have been an administrator at?
8. Did you always want to be an administrator?
9. How has your experience been as an administrator been so far?
10. What college/university did you attend to obtain your administrative certificate? Is this the same college/university that you attended to get your teaching certificate?
11. Did you hold a management position such as coaching, team leader, etc. before you became an administrator?
12. Did these positions help you in your position as an administrator?
13. Was your preparation program, in person, online or blended?
14. What has surprised you the most in your position as an administrator?
15. What areas do you believe, with regards to your position as a principal, were you least prepared for, please explain?
16. Please explain what areas were you most prepared for as an administrator?
17. What areas does the principal preparation program that you attended need to strengthen?
18. What areas of the principal preparation program that you attended were the strongest?
19. What activities and/or courses do you believe were most valuable?
20. What activities and/or courses do you believe were least valuable?
21. Overall how well do you think that the preparation program that you attended prepared you for your position as principal?
22. Would you recommend the principal preparation program that you attended to a colleague or friend? Why or why not?
23. Are there areas that a principal preparation program cannot prepare you for? Please explain
24. If you were to design your own principal preparation program, what would it look like and why?
25. What can a preparation program do differently to prepare a future administrator?
26. Tell me about your administrative internship experience?
27. How many hours were required as a part of your internship?
28. How do you believe that the internship helped you gain experience to help you as a principal?
29. What areas of the internship were most valuable?
30. What areas of the internship were least valuable?

Appendix E

Interview #2

1. What three skills do you think are the most important for an effective administrator?
2. How did your administration program help foster those skills?
3. Explain how the program you attended prepared you to increase student achievement through data?
4. How, if any, did your program help you to evaluate curriculum and best practices to increase student achievement?
5. Did your program address conflict resolution? If so, how?
6. How did the program you attended help you to articulate your vision of learning?
7. Did your program stress the role of technology in promoting student learning and professional growth? If so, how?
8. Was the use of technology emphasized in your program? Please explain
9. How did your administrative program emphasize ethics?
10. Please explain how your program prepared you to prepare a budget and manage finances?
11. With regards to teacher evaluations, how prepared did you feel you could evaluate a teacher and then use that evaluation to increase student achievement?
12. With regards to human resource management and personnel, how well prepared do you feel your program prepared you?
13. How did your program give you the tools you needed to help create a school culture?
14. How did your program prepare you to deal with school safety and security?
15. How did your program prepare you to deal with your facilities?
16. How did your administrative program prepare you to collaborate with families, community members, businesses, etc.?
17. Were there any types of activities or courses that addressed the importance of diversity and equity?
18. What three characteristics are most important for an administrator to be effective?
19. How can a preparation program help increase those characteristics in a future administrator?
20. What do you think the requirements should be to get into an administrative program?
21. Do you have any thoughts or insight into how an administrative program can develop an effective principal

Appendix F

Debrief Statement for Qualitative Interviews

Thank you for participating in this study. As you know, being a K-12 administrator is tough work. The goal of this study is to determine if principal preparation programs are giving new administrators the knowledge that they need to be successful. Hopefully, this study can help principal preparation programs to meet the needs of new administrators.

After I have had a chance to analyze the data, I will e-mail you the results and ask for feedback. The purpose of this communication is to ensure that I have captured our discussions accurately and portrayed your thoughts properly.

If you have any questions or concerns, Sarah Hatfield can be contacted by phone at [REDACTED]; [REDACTED]; e-mail at [REDACTED].

Thank you for your participation.



Sarah Hatfield
HRRC Application

Appendix G

Verbatim Instructions for Interviews

Hi _____

Thank you for participating in this study I truly appreciate it.

Semi-Structured, Audio-Recorded Interviews

Two semi-structured, audio-recorded interviews will be conducted with each participant. These interviews will be completed at a public location mutually decided by the participant and investigator. Each interview will take approximately 60 minutes.

This process is completely voluntary and you can select to leave the study at any time. If you feel uncomfortable with any question you can select not to answer that question.

Do you have any questions for me?

Thank you for participating

Appendix H

Member Checking E-mail

March 4, 2013

Dear Participant -

Thank you for participating in this study over the past couple of months. I wanted to let you know of some of the themes that emerged from the survey and interviews of the participants. Please let me know if these accurately depict our conversation. If you have any suggestions or modifications, please let me know.

Most and Least Prepared ISLLC Standards

ISLLC Standard Most Prepared	ISLLC Standard Least Prepare
Creating a vision of learning	Evaluating teachers to increase student achievement
Ethics	Using technology to increase student achievement
Importance of diversity and equity	Human resource management and personnel
Collaborating with stakeholders	Preparing a budget and managing finances
Creating a school culture	Evaluate curriculum and best practices
<u>Addressing facilities/maintenance</u>	

Top Five Frequent Codes for Responsibilities Least Prepared (Survey & Interviews)

Areas Least Prepared
Budget
Managerial
Staffing
Instructional Leadership
Special Education

Top 2 Frequent Codes Areas Most Prepared

<u>Areas Prepared</u>	<u>Number of Responses</u>
Instructional leader	19
School law	15

*Top 3 Frequent Themes for Colleges/Universities*Activities

More hands-on activities

Internships

Current Practitioners as Professors

Thank you again for participating in this study and I look forward to hearing from you soon.

Sincerely



Sarah Hatfield
Doctoral Student
Northwest Nazarene University

Telephone: [REDACTED]
HRRC Approval # 7062012

Appendix I
Cronbach's Alpha

Responsibilities	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Conduct staff meetings	.788	.958
Manage the school budget	.427	.961
Conduct student discipline	.579	.960
Have in-depth knowledge of special education law	.374	.961
Schedule parent/teacher conferences	.489	.960
Develop professional development	.815	.685
Develop school calendar	.573	.960
Develop master schedule	.673	.959
Assign non-instructional duties	.676	.959
Dismiss staff members	.481	.960
Hire staff members	.747	.958
Evaluate staff members	.589	.959
Conduct parent meetings	.823	.958
Stay current with legislation	.597	.959
Stay current with technology	.764	.958
Implement research-based school improvement	.676	.959
Use data for decision making: Such as RTI, state assessments	.779	.958
Stay current with instruction and curriculum	.773	.958
Use mentors for new teachers	.733	.958

Appendix I (Continued)**Cronbach's Alpha**

Responsibilities	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Knowledge of school law	.396	.961
Maintain a safe school	.711	.959
Strategically allocate staffing and other resources	.866	.957
Monitor teaching and learning quality	.716	.959
Establish and maintain a vision and focus on a core set of organization goals	.703	.959
Build trust and professional community among educators	.711	.959
Use data to reflect upon and improve classroom and organization practices	.679	.959
Developing high expectations for student learning	.721	.959
Conduct classroom observations and use that information to increase student learning	.638	.959
Develop a strong school leadership team	.732	.958

Appendix J
Survey Responses

Responsibilities	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Conduct staff meetings	0.00%	20.75%	28.30%	35.85%	15.09%
Manage the school budget	7.41%	22.22%	20.37%	40.74%	9.26%
Conduct student discipline	1.85%	18.52%	22.22%	46.30%	11.11%
Have in-depth knowledge of special education law	5.56%	11.11%	16.67%	44.44%	22.22%
Schedule parent/teacher conferences	1.85%	31.48%	31.48%	29.63%	5.56%
Develop professional development	3.70%	20.37%	12.96%	44.44%	18.52%
Develop school calendar	3.70%	29.63%	27.78%	31.48%	7.41%
Develop master schedule	7.41%	35.19%	22.22%	27.78%	7.41%
Assign non-instructional duties	0.00%	33.33%	18.52%	42.59%	5.56%
Dismiss staff members	5.56%	31.48%	14.81%	37.04%	11.11%
Hire staff members	0.00%	20.37%	7.41%	55.56%	16.67%
Evaluate staff members	1.85%	9.26%	9.26%	38.89%	40.74%
Conduct parent meetings	0.00%	16.67%	24.07%	38.89%	20.37%
Stay current with legislation	0.00%	11.11%	12.96%	59.26%	16.67%
Stay current with technology	0.00%	18.52%	22.22%	42.59%	16.67%
Implement research-based school improvement	3.70%	3.70%	7.41%	53.70%	31.48%
Use data for decision making: Such as RTI, state assessments	3.77%	18.87%	16.98%	35.85%	24.53%

Appendix J (Continued)

Survey Responses

Responsibilities	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Use mentors for new teachers	3.77%	13.21%	22.64%	52.83%	7.55%
Knowledge of school law	0.00%	3.85%	3.85%	46.15%	46.15%
Maintain a safe school	0.00%	9.43%	5.66%	52.83%	32.08%
Strategically allocate staffing and other resources	3.77%	20.75%	22.64%	30.19%	22.64%
Monitor teaching and learning quality	0.00%	13.21%	9.43%	54.72%	22.64%
Establish and maintain a vision and focus on a core set of organization goals	0.00%	9.43%	3.77%	43.40%	43.40%
Build trust and professional community among educators	0.00%	9.26%	11.11%	48.15%	31.48%
Use data to reflect upon and improve classroom and organization practices	1.85%	9.26%	12.96%	46.30%	29.63%
Developing high expectations for student learning	0.00%	9.26%	7.41%	51.85%	31.48%
Conduct classroom observations and use that information to increase student learning	1.85%	11.11%	7.41%	48.15%	31.48%
Develop a strong school leadership team	0.00%	16.67%	16.67%	42.59%	24.07%

Appendix K

Disagree v. Agree

Responsibilities	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	Agree/ Strongly Agree
Conduct staff meetings	20.75%	50.94%
Manage the school budget	29.63%	50.00%
Conduct student discipline	20.37%	57.41%
Have in-depth knowledge of special education law	16.67%	66.67%
Schedule parent/teacher conferences	33.33%	35.19%
Develop professional development	24.07%	62.96%
Develop school calendar	33.33%	38.89%
Develop master schedule	42.60%	35.19%
Assign non-instructional duties	33.33%	48.15%
Dismiss staff members	37.04%	48.15%
Hire staff members	20.37%	72.22%
Evaluate staff members	11.11%	79.63%
Conduct parent meetings	16.67%	59.26%
Stay current with legislation	11.11%	75.93%
Stay current with technology	18.52%	59.26%
Implement research-based school improvement	7.4%	85.19%
Use data for decision making: Such as RTI, state assessments	22.64%	60.38%
Stay current with instruction and curriculum	18.87%	58.49%
Use mentors for new teachers	16.98%	60.38%

Appendix K (Continued)

Disagree v. Agree

Responsibilities	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	Agree/ Strongly Agree
Maintain a safe school	9.43%	84.91%
Strategically allocate staffing and other resources	24.52%	52.83%
Monitor teaching and learning quality	13.21%	77.36%
Establish and maintain a vision and focus on a core set of organization goals	9.43%	86.79%
Build trust and professional community among educators	9.26%	79.63%
Use data to reflect upon and improve classroom and organization practices	11.11%	75.93%
Developing high expectations for student learning	9.26%	83.33%
Conduct classroom observations and use that information to increase student learning	12.96%	79.63%
Develop a strong school leadership team	16.67%	66.67%