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# The Effectiveness of Principal Preparation Program Type for Administrative Work

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# **THE EFFECTIVENESS OF PRINCIPAL PREPARATION PROGRAM TYPE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE WORK**

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Dissertation submitted to the faculty of the  
Marshall University Graduate College  
in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education  
in  
Educational Leadership

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Keywords: Principal Preparation, ISLLC Standards, Vision, Culture, Management,  
Collaboration, Integrity, Context, Preparation Program Type, University-Based, District-Based,  
Third-Party Professional Development Organizations, Partnership Programs,  
Educational Leadership

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## ABSTRACT

### **The Effectiveness of Principal Preparation Program Type for Administrative Work**

As result of the disparity in the academic literature about principal preparation, this study was designed to investigate the perceived effectiveness of principal preparation program type for administrative work. The literature provided four categories for program type including university-based, district-based, third-party professional development organizations, and partnership programs. The following facets of educational leadership were examined to determine if working administrators felt prepared by their preparation program for administrative work: vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context.

The survey study asked a sample (n=600) of administrators (N=30,230) 93 questions on the *School Administrator Preparedness Survey*. The data were analyzed using ANOVA to determine if differences exist in the means of the variables being studied. One research question produced a significant finding. Respondents prepared by partnership programs felt more prepared to develop and implement a school vision than respondents prepared by university-based programs. One statistically significant ancillary finding was also discovered when the demographic variables were compared to the means of the six educational leadership characteristics. The variables of management and years of administrative experience were compared for a difference in means. This analysis indicated statistically significant differences in an administrator's number of years experience and perceived ability to manage the organization. An additional ancillary finding was the positive perception of traditionally prepared administrators of their preparation. Much of the academic literature produced a negative view of traditional university-based preparation programs. The results of this study contradicted this portion of the literature.

## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to my parents, Boyd and Patricia, who have believed in me throughout my years of graduate work. Also, to my girlfriend Ashley for her unwavering support and patience during the long and tumultuous dissertation process.

## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

This document bears my name on the title page, but the support, patience, and guidance of many others have largely contributed to the quality and completion of this work. The dissertation process has not only increased my scholarly knowledge, but has also improved my ability to be an effective principal and strengthened my professional relationship and friendship with those with whom I have worked with throughout this process.

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## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, a school principal was responsible for managing resources, maintaining student safety, and performing ceremonial duties (Herrington & Wills, 2005). Publication of *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983), *Action for Excellence* (Education Commission of the States, 1983), and *High School* (Boyer, 1983) called for an increase in student achievement and accountability (Goodwin, Cunningham, & Eagle, 2005). Principals were no longer merely responsible for the smooth management of the school; they were also responsible for instructional progress, and staff and curriculum development (Wilmore, 2000). Beck and Murphy (1993) identified the role of the modern principal as an instructional leader, problem solver, resource provider, visionary, and change agent. These changes in the role of the principal have also resulted in increased pressure on principal preparatory programs (Hallinger, 1999). Facing new roles and heightened expectations, aspiring principals require intense and relevant preparation (Lashway, 2003).

The current literature on public school administration preparation programs provided a dichotomous view of the appropriateness of these programs for the work of today's principals. One set of the literature claimed that many university preparation programs fail to provide authentic leadership opportunities (Fry, Bottoms, O'Neill, 2005; Hall, 2006). "All too often, new principals face just this kind of beginning; they are armed with theory and overwhelmed with reality" (Peel, Buckner, Wallace, Wrenn, & Evans, 1998, p.27). Universities have traditionally concentrated on introducing potential administrators to the latest trends and theories in educational leadership, but have failed to provide practical skills for applying that knowledge in the real world (Peel, Buckner, Wallace, Wrenn, & Evans, 2005).

Graduate programs in educational leadership have a relatively brief history when compared to other professional fields and to the arts and sciences disciplines (Jackson, 2001). The National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration (1987) brought national attention to the needs and concerns of educational leaders, especially their preparation programs. Many deficiencies were noted including the lack of definition of effective educational leadership, poor recruitment of quality candidates, and the absence of collaboration between districts and universities (Jackson, 2001). The process and standards by which many principal preparatory programs screen, select, and graduate candidates are often ill-defined, irregularly applied, and lacking in rigor (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). As a result, many aspiring administrators are too easily admitted into and passed through the program on the basis of their coursework rather than on a comprehensive assessment of the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed to successfully lead schools (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005).

Hall (2006) asserted that traditional models of principal preparation delivered packaged, abstract learning, are disconnected from the realities of public schools, and are not sufficient to prepare educational leaders for the organizational complexities modern principals face (Hall, 2006). Historically, universities have constructed their principal preparation programs on the foundation of theory and have marginalized practice (Murphy, 2007). Murphy strongly criticized the failure to connect the “bridge from theory to practice” (p. 583). Hall (2006) stated, “We must bring theory and craft knowledge together in order to prepare leaders who have the skills needed in our schools today” (p. 524).

Morrison (2005) suggested the knowledge gained from preparatory programs should be focused more on practice than theory. Hall (2006) asserted, "...real-world information must be incorporated into university-level leadership education" (p. 524). Morrison stated,

So, what should preparatory programs do for wannabe administrators? Provide practice. Throw students in administrative training programs into situations where there is no other option than to think on their feet. Don't just teach future leaders how to evaluate teachers – teach them how to evaluate teachers who hate them. Teach philosophy, but practice applying the philosophy to real-world dilemmas. Provide internships in schools that give administrative candidates opportunities to deal with tough situations and make difficult decisions (p. 66).

Byrd and Williams (2006) reported that preparation programs need to use knowledge and skill of practitioners from K-12 settings to ensure preparation received at the university level is relevant and aligned with current practice. Universities need to focus on a curriculum with training topics targeting research and organizational skills, as well as cultural, ethical, and political dimensions of schooling (Byrd & Williams, 2006).

A recent report (2005) by the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) revealed a dismal description of many current preparation programs. A survey of 61 programs in the 16-state region provided alarming data. Barely a third of the programs required aspiring principals to lead activities that create a mission and vision to improve student achievement. Less than one-fourth required aspiring principals to participate in activities that promote good instructional practices. Less than half required students to participate in activities in which faculties analyze school-wide data and examine the performance of subgroups within the school (Fry, Bottoms, & O'Neill, 2005).

The contradictory side of this dichotomy is the professional literature that described excellent principal preparation programs which are anchored by national standards, research on teaching and learning, and the role of the principal as an instructional leader (Hale & Moorman, 2003). These programs strived to meet the challenges of school leadership in modern schools (Hale & Moorman, 2003). In a 2005 study conducted by the Southern Regional Education Board department heads of educational leadership programs were asked if leadership preparation programs equip aspiring principals with the knowledge and skills necessary to perform the job of principal. Over three-fourths (77%) of the department heads reported they believed their programs prepare aspiring principals for their future job to a great degree (Fry, Bottoms, & O'Neill, 2005). These results are in contradiction to the negative findings of the SREB report. Preparation program research has also identified programs with a strong theory and research base and the inclusion of authentic field-based experiences (Leithwood, Jantzi, Coffin, & Wilson, 1996).

Orr (2006) observed that in recent years many graduate schools of education have revamped their principal preparatory programs in an effort to meet the needs of a changing field of educational leadership. The innovations noted by Orr are rooted in five areas: (a) a reinterpretation of leadership as pivotal for improving teaching and learning; (b) new insights into how program content, pedagogy, and field-based learning experiences can be designed to be more powerful means of preparing leaders; (c) redesign of the doctorate as an intensive midcareer professional development activity; (d) use of partnerships for richer, more extensive program design opportunities; and (e) a commitment for continuous improvement. These innovations have gone largely unnoticed, particularly outside the field's professional circles (Orr, 2006).

The literature provided compelling evidence that significant innovation exists in program preparation and positively influences graduates' leadership practice. Murphy's 1996 survey of program chairs revealed that over a decade ago many programs were redesigning their program design, content, and delivery (Murphy, 2001). Leithwood and his colleagues (1996) found that redesigned programs were significantly associated with teacher-perceived leadership effectiveness of graduates when the programs had a strong theory and research base, provided authentic field experiences, stimulated the development of situated cognition, and developed real-life problem-solving skills (Leithwood, Jantzi, Coffin, & Wilson, 1996).

Orr asserted the most significant new direction for leadership preparation has been the reframing of organizing principles. In contrast to conventional programs, which are quite fragmented, some programs have created clearly defined visions and articulated fundamental principles, through an iterative renewal process over time or collaboration with school districts (Orr, 2006). Such visions embodied ways of improving the field of principal preparation. Murphy's (2002) three new constructs of leadership have also served as a guide for program innovation. The first is "social justice leadership," which emphasized the moral stewardship of educational leadership in the daily work of a principal and the broader imperative of meeting the needs of all students. The second is "leadership for school improvement" focused on instructional leadership. The third is "democratic leadership," which is committed to building a school community that benefits all stakeholders (Murphy, 2002).

Orr's research (2006) provided that many preparation programs used these innovative ideas and strategies in their program development and implementation. For example, Portland State University has created a more coherent and integrated master's program based on re-imagined foundational principles of leadership and education. This new focus came as a result of

efforts to align with national standards for leadership preparation, statewide education reforms, and opportunities for district collaboration. A second example of program innovation can be found at Marshall University. The university has created an innovative principal preparation program including ISLLC based course work, self assessment and reflection, and student portfolios (Nicholson, 2004). Florida State University's program has developed a dynamic, high-performing leadership program with a focus on renewal and improvement of schools and school systems. Their program is grounded in the democratic values of respect for individual's rights, participatory and public decision making, pluralism, accountability, and organizational integrity (Orr, 2006).

According to Orr's research, innovative work has taken place at many graduate institutions with educational leadership programs during the past 15 years. These inventive changes have been focused on student selection, curriculum and course content, pedagogical strategies, and internships and field experiences (Orr, 2006). Student selection has been improved with the use of observations and entrance portfolios. Curriculum and coursework have been organized into spiraling classes that are focused on change, conflict resolution, delegation, teamwork and communication, analytical and process skills, and understanding the larger political, social, and economic contexts of schooling. Pedagogical practices are based on experiential learning, reflective practice, structured dialogue, problem-based learning, and engagement with learning communities. Internships and other field experiences have incorporated active learning, reflection, portfolio development, and transformative learning strategies (Orr, 2006).

## **Background**

Scholars generally agreed during the first few years of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, principals were typically teachers with administrative responsibilities, or principal teachers (Tyack & Hansot, 1982). In the 1920s, the principal was expected to be guardian and promoter of accepted, largely protestant, values. Beck and Murphy (1993) described early 20<sup>th</sup> century principals with metaphors such as spiritual leader, scientific manager, social leader, and dignified leader. During the 1930s, with the onset of the industrial revolution, principals perceived themselves as business managers, or as they would say, “school executives” (Beck & Murphy, 1993, p.393). During the 1940s and early 1950s, after World War II and when patriotic fervor was high, it became acceptable for principals to embrace one set of values, those linked to democracy, where all citizens could receive an education (Beck & Murphy, 1993).

The period between 1950 and 1980 represented a time of societal change in America. (Tyack & Hansot, 1982). In the wake of Sputnik, milestone court decisions such as *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* and the passage of Title IX and P.L. 94-142 (Education for Handicapped Children Act), principals were expected to provide a free and appropriate education to all children (Beck & Murphy, 1993; Goodwin, Cunningham, & Eagle, 2005). The publication of *A Nation at Risk* in 1983 (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983) led to an increased focus on student achievement and accountability for schools. The role of the principal shifted from that of manager to instructional leader during the 1980s and 1990s (Harris, Ballenger, & Leonard, 2004). The passage of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 placed an increased focus on school improvement (Goodwin, Cunningham, & Eagle, 2005). In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, effective principals are expected to be instructional leaders, change initiators, and problem solvers (Blase & Kirby, 2000).

## **Principal Preparation Programs**

### ***History of Principal Preparation Programs***

Literature discussing school administration or preparation is scarce prior to 1900. According to Button (1966), prior to the Civil War there were very few school administrators, not enough to constitute a profession. The growth of large cities and their school systems led to the increased need for principals and principal preparation programs (Button, 1966). Murphy (1995) identified four eras of evolution for principal preparation programs including the Ideology Era, Prescriptive Era, Behavioral Science Era, and Dialectic Era.

The first three eras of school administration programs largely followed the societal influences of the time. The Era of Ideology in public education and preparation (1820 – 1900), produced a knowledge base of applied philosophy very similar to the one informing teaching (Harris, Ballenger, & Leonard, 2004; Murphy, 1995). The Prescriptive Era (1900 – 1946) began with the 20<sup>th</sup> century and marked a new era for the field of public school administration. The foundation of principal preparation followed the business ideology of the time (Button, 1966; Harris, Ballenger, & Leonard, 2004; Murphy, 1995). The Behavioral Science Era (1947 – 1985) resulted from the effects of World War II and its aftermath; the principalship of the 1940s and early 1950s embraced patriotic values and the importance of education to a democratic and strong society (Andrews & Grogan, 2002). During this era, relevant concepts from the behavioral sciences were plentifully available; scientists both physical and behavioral were rising in esteem (Button, 1966). The pursuit began for a science of administration (Murphy, 1995).

The fourth and current era of principal preparation placed a focus on improving schools and student achievement. The Dialectic Era (1986 – present) began with several published concerns about the knowledge base of educational administration. During the late 1980s and



1990s the principal was no longer seen as the building manager, but as the instructional leader of the school (Andrews & Grogan, 2002). In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, effective principals must be skilled instructional leaders, change initiators, managers, personal directors, problem solvers, and visionaries (Blase & Kirby, 2000; Hale & Moorman, 2003). In the late 20<sup>th</sup> century the evolution of principal preparation was affected by very different influences, an increased focus on student achievement and the development of national standards.

### ***National Standards for Educational Leadership Programs***

The inherent need for consistency and improvement in university principal preparation programs has led to the development of national standards. Educational leaders have been motivated to develop written standards, such as the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC), formed in 1996 and revised in 2008. The ISLLC standards primary objectives are to strengthen school leaders by improving preparation programs, upgrading professional development for school leaders and creating a framework of accountability for evaluating candidate's licensure (Murphy, 2001). In 2002, the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) developed standards that are used to evaluate university preparation programs seeking National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) accreditation. The ELCC developed seven standards to provide a conceptual framework and curriculum guide for university educational leadership programs (Wilmore, 2002).

### ***Characteristics of Preparation Programs***

The standards created by the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium in 1996 and revised in 2008, and the Educational Leadership Constituent Council in 2002 are based on the same fundamental principles. These principles described the characteristics of effective preparatory programs including (a) vision – the ability of an educational leader to promote the

success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a set of goals that are supported by all stakeholders; (b) culture – the ability of an educational leader to promote the success of all students by advocating and sustaining a positive school environment and instructional program conducive to student learning and comprehensive professional growth plans for staff; (c) management – the ability of an educational leader to promote the success of all students by supervising the organization, operations, and resources in a way that promotes a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment; (d) collaboration – the ability of an educational leader to promote the success of all students by collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources; (e) integrity – the ability of an educational leader to promote the success of all students by acting fairly and in an ethical manner; (f) context – the ability of an educational leader to promote the success of all students by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural framework (Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium, 1996; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008; Wilmore, 2002).

Both sets of standards begin with a similar statement of expectation for preparation. The ISSLC standards begin with the statement, “An education leader promotes the success of every student by ...” (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). The ELCC standards begin with the statement, “Candidates who complete the program are educational leaders who have the knowledge and ability to promote the success of all students by ...” (National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002). The creation and implementation of national standards for educational leadership programs are a signs of progress. Young and Creighton (2002) asserted,

If we are slow to enter the national dialogue on reform, and if we do not combine our expertise and resources, the danger is not that preparation programs will go out of business – the peril will be the missed opportunity to prepare higher-quality leaders who can have maximum impact on student learning. To allow such an outcome is irresponsible inaction toward our society and our nation’s children. (p. 20)

The characteristics that provided the framework for national standards include vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context. These principles provided pedagogical standards for principal preparatory programs (Council of Chief State School Officers, 1996; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008).

### ***Preparation Program Types***

New conceptualizations of the school principal as the “leader of student learning” have opened the doors to changes in practice and preparation (Hale & Moorman, 2003, p. 18). In response to the increasing complexities of educational leadership, programs of professional preparation of aspiring principals are evolving (Behar-Horenstein, 1995). Hale and Moorman (2003) affirmed that the intense pressure for principals to be instructional leaders who can more effectively implement standards-based reform has facilitated educational leadership preparation reform. The development of national standards has provided a guide for preparation program restructuring. These standards provided a set of common expectations for the knowledge, skills, and dispositions of educational leaders framed by the principles of teaching and learning (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005).

In response to the increasing complexities of the principalship, innovations in both leadership programmatic development and program structures have proliferated. Program

content should be delivered through a variety of methods to allow aspiring principals to apply the curricular content in authentic settings and toward the resolution of real-world problems and dilemmas (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). Hale and Moorman (2003) posited that the emergence of categories of traditional and non-traditional methods of principal preparation is a result of the increased demand for effective educational leaders. Barbour (2005) suggested the type of content delivery system for preparation such as traditional face-to-face classroom settings or workshops and non-traditional methods including on-line, academies, field-based, or a combination of these systems is an important variable to consider. The demand for change in traditional graduate preparation and the emergence of non-traditional preparation program types are in response to the changing role and responsibilities of the school principal (Hale & Moorman, 2003). This study considered the effect of program type or delivery method on the principal's perceived level of preparedness for administrative work.

A review of the literature has produced four categories of classification for principal preparation program types. University-based programs are established by higher education institutions and typically offer courses for completion of a master's degree in Educational Leadership or a principal certification in addition to an existing master's degree from an accredited institution (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003). District-based programs are developed and operated by school districts and may include collaboration with a third-party professional development organization (Barbour, 2005; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003). Third-party professional development organizations include nonprofit organizations such as The Principal Residency Network (PRN), New Leaders for New Schools (NLNS), and the Wallace Foundation; for-profit organizations such as non-brick and mortar institutions including Capella

and Strayer Universities; and state-based alternative certification programs (Barbour, 2005; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003). Partnership programs consist of programs provided in a collaborative effort between universities, districts, and/or third-party organizations (Barbour, 2005; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003).

### **Summary**

Traditionally, the responsibilities of the school principal were maintaining student safety, managing resources, and performing ceremonial duties (Herrington & Wills, 2005). As the role of the principal has evolved, it has also increased in complexity. Beck and Murphy (1993) described the role of the principal as an instructional leader, problem solver, resource provider, visionary, and change agent. The evolving role and increasing complexity of responsibilities of the school principal have placed pressure on principal preparatory programs (Hallinger, 1999). The inherent need for consistency and improvement in principal preparation led to the development of national standards including the ISSLC and ELCC Standards. These standards are based on the same fundamental principles of educational leadership including vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context (Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium, 1996; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008).

In response to the increasing complexities of the role and responsibilities of the educational leader, programs of professional preparation of aspiring principals are evolving (Behar-Horenstein, 1995). Innovations in both leadership programmatic development and program structures have proliferated (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). The four categories that emerged from the literature provided a classification for preparation

program types including university-based, district-based, third-party professional development organizations, and partnership programs (Barbour, 2005; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003). Much of the current literature on educational leadership asserts there is a disconnect between the work of today's principals and the preparation they receive (Fry, Bottoms, & O'Neill, 2005; Hall, 2006). A second set of literature identified many excellent principal preparation programs anchored in research on teaching and learning and the role of the principal as an instructional leader (Hale & Moorman, 2003). The demand for change in traditional graduate preparation and the emergence of non-traditional preparation program types are in response to the changing role and responsibilities of the school principal (Hale & Moorman, 2003).

### **Problem Statement**

A disparity exists in the academic literature concerning the effectiveness of principal preparation programs. The increasing complexity of the principalship and the importance of this position to the future of the United States by ensuring that a quality education is provided to the nation's children require innovative and effective preparation for aspiring educational leaders. There is little evidence demonstrating whether and how the types of learning opportunities provided by programs enable principals to become more effective in their practice (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). This assumption and disparity provided a foundation for this research.

### **Research Questions**

1. Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to develop and implement a school vision and his/her preparation program type?

2. Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to promote a positive school culture and his/her preparation program type?
3. Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to manage the organization and his/her preparation program type?
4. Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to collaborate with families and community members and his/her preparation program type?
5. Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to act in an ethical manner and his/her preparation program type?
6. Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to understand the larger, social, political, economic, legal, and cultural context of schools and his/her preparation program type?

The research questions are based on the leadership principles as established by the ISLLC, and ELCC standards for school leaders. Each question focused on the school administrator's perceived ability of preparedness for administrative work.

### **Significance**

The significance of the study involved providing information about principals' perceived level of preparedness for administrative work. These data may be significant for program directors of educational leadership programs interested in assessing and improving the quality of their programs. Second, the findings may assist district leaders, including superintendents, to determine on what areas of educational leadership need to be focused for professional development. Finally, the results may benefit prospective administrators when selecting a program or program type for preparation.

## **Purpose**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the disparity in the literature on principal preparation programs by determining if practicing principals feel their preparation program adequately prepared them for their professional responsibilities. The perception of the level of preparedness was be a direct reflection of the respondent's perception of the quality of their preparation programs including vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context (Council of Chief State School Officers, 1996; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002).

## **Operational Definitions**

1. The ability to develop and implement a school vision will be defined by vision scores calculated from the self-reported perceptions of principal respondents to the *School Administrator Preparedness Survey*.
2. The ability to promote a positive school culture will be defined by school culture scores calculated from the self-reported perceptions of principal respondents to the *School Administrator Preparedness Survey*.
3. The ability to manage an organization will be defined by management scores calculated from the self-reported perceptions of principal respondents to the *School Administrator Preparedness Survey*.
4. The ability to collaborate with community and family members will be defined by collaboration scores calculated from the self-reported perceptions of principal respondents to the *School Administrator Preparedness Survey*.



5. The ability to act with integrity will be defined by integrity scores calculated from the self-reported perceptions of principal respondents to the *School Administrator Preparedness Survey*.
6. The ability to ability to understand the larger, social, political, and economic legal, and cultural context of schools will be defined by context scores calculated from the self-reported perceptions of principal respondents to the *School Administrator Preparedness Survey*.
7. Program type will be defined by the respondent's selection in the demographic section of the *School Administrator Preparedness Survey*.
  - (a) University-based programs – established by higher education institutions and typically offer courses for completion of a master's degree in Educational Leadership or a principal licensure in addition to an existing master's degree from an accredited institution.
  - (b) District-based programs – developed and operated by school districts and may include collaboration with a third-party professional development organization.
  - (c) Third-party professional development organizations – nonprofit organizations such as The Principal Residency Network (PRN), New Leaders for New Schools (NLNS), and the Wallace Foundation; for-profit organizations such as non-brick and mortar institutions including Capella and Strayer Universities; and state-based alternative certification programs.
  - (d) Partnership programs – consist of programs provided in a collaborative effort between universities, districts, and/or third-party organizations.
  - (e) Other – to be listed by the repondent.

## **Method**

This study was conducted as a survey of current school administrators in the United States. Subjects were selected randomly by the NASSP from the membership roles of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP). The school administrators were mailed by the NASSP the *School Administrator Preparedness Survey* based on the correlated performance indicators of the ISLLC and ELCC standards for educational leadership. These questions were designed using Likert Scale responses. The responses to the Likert Scale questions were compared to an introductory section that asked the respondent to identify preparation program type and demographic information in order to determine whether or not there is a difference between any of the factors on the scales and the respondents' preparation program type.

## **Limitations**

A limitation to this study was the confinement of the sample to school administrators who are members of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP). Questionnaires were mailed to a variety of secondary school sizes and locations. Secondary administrators whom are not members of the NASSP were not included in the sample. A second limitation was the quantitative nature of the survey, which did not allow for elaboration. The limiting of explanation might have prevented additional variables from emerging for consideration. A final limitation was the respondents' perceptions of their level of preparedness were not necessarily factual.

## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

This chapter establishes the need for this study through a review of the related literature. The literature review will be organized into five sections. The first section will review background information including the history and nature of the principalship. The second section will focus on the history and evolution of principal preparation programs. The third section will discuss the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISSLC) Standards and the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) Standards: their creation, content and purpose. The fourth section will examine characteristics of effective principal preparation programs including vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context. The final section will discuss principal preparation program types.

### **Introduction**

The literature identified the building principal as one of the key elements in an effective school (Boyer, 1983; Goodwin, Cunningham, & Eagle, 2005; Malone & Caddell, 2000; Portin, Shen, & Williams, 1998). Historically, the principalship has evolved through five stages: one teacher (one-room school), head teacher, teaching principal, school principal, and supervising principal (Campbell, Cunningham, Nystrand, & Usdan, 1990; MacCorkle, 2004). The profession is currently in a sixth stage, the principal as a change agent. The aspect of the principal as a change agent is embodied within the six standards formulated by the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium developed in 1996 and revised in 2008, and the Educational Leadership Constituent Council standards developed in 2002 that are used to evaluate university preparation programs seeking National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) accreditation (Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium, 1996; National Policy Board for

Educational Administration, 2002). The ISLLC and ELCC Standards will be discussed in greater detail within the literature review.

During the evolution of the principalship, the role of the principal has become increasingly complex. Malone and Caddell (2000) described the principal as manager, instructional leader, motivator, lay psychologist, and public relations expert. The culmination of the aforementioned roles has caused the principalship to become overwhelming for many. Davis (1998) asserted,

Dwindling resources, burgeoning paperwork, crumbling facilities, increasing public criticisms and expectations, growing numbers of students with special needs and increasing demands by teachers and parents to participate in decision making pose serious challenges to principals at virtually all levels and in nearly every area of the country (p.58).

The challenges of the principalship have not only led to principal shortages, but have placed more pressure on principal preparatory programs (Hallinger, 1999).

### **Background**

Schools have existed in the United States since the first settlers arrived from Europe. The first public high school was chartered in Boston in 1821 (Drue, 1981). Scholars generally agreed during the 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> century, principals were typically represented as teachers with administrative responsibilities, or the “principal teacher” the forgotten origin of the title (Tyack & Hansot, 1982, p. 256). The Cincinnati school committee (1839) described the duties of the principal teacher.

The principal teacher was (1) to function as the head of the school charged to his care; (2) to regulate the classes and course instruction of all the pupils, whether they occupied his

room or the rooms of other teachers; (3) to discover any defects in the school and apply remedies; (4) to make defects known to the visitor or trustee of the ward or district; (5) to give necessary instruction to his assistants; (6) to classify pupils; (7) to safeguard school houses and furniture; (8) to keep the school clean; (9) to instruct his assistants; (10) to refrain from impairing the standing of assistants, especially in the eyes of their pupils; (11) to require the cooperation of his assistants (Jacobson, Logsdon, & Wiegman, 1973, p. 29).

The committee stated that principal teachers were selected because of their knowledge of teaching methods, children, and the common problems in schools (Jacobson, Logsdon, & Wiegman, 1973).

The role of administrators titled principals did not evolve until the period between 1890 and the turn of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Fenske, 1995). Jacobson and colleagues (1973) described the role of the early principal, in addition to teaching and administration, as town clerk, church chorister, official visitor of the sick, bell ringer of the church, grave digger, and court messenger. Additionally, principals were expected to function as guardians and promoters of accepted values (Beck & Murphy, 1993; Campbell, Cunningham, Nystrand, & Usdan, 1990; Tyack & Hansot, 1982).

Most early 20<sup>th</sup> century schools were rural, one-room schools that were very religious in nature. Tyack & Hansot (1982) asserted,

In a country landscape, the one-room school, with its steeplelike bell tower, remains the symbol of the common-school movement of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, reflecting its chiefly rural character, its affinity with the family farm, its unbureaucratic nature, and its Protestant-republican ideology of creating the nation in the hearts and minds of individual

citizens. Like a church with its Bible, the rural school with its McGuffey Readers was to be a small incubator of virtue (p.4).

The role of the principal was to ensure that student learning was occurring and was based on protestant beliefs. Both 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> century educational reformers shared an evangelical confidence in their mission, their certainties grounded in either the revelation of God's will or the assurance of expert knowledge (Tyack & Hansot, 1982).

During the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and in the wake of the Great Depression, America evolved from a rural, agricultural society into an urban, industrialized nation. School leaders progressed from directors of moral virtue to leaders of a house of preparation for business and industry. Beck and Murphy (1993) observed that in the 1930s, religious imagery virtually vanished from administrative literature. Metaphors were drawn from the corporation and the factory, and principals perceived themselves as business managers, or as they would say, "school executives" (Beck & Murphy, 1993, p.393). The emphasis on values-based, pedagogically oriented leadership so prevalent in the 1920s disappeared in the 1930s with a focus on scientific (i.e., value-free) management.

During the 1940s and early 1950s, after World War II when patriotic fervor was high, it became acceptable for principals to embrace one set of values, those linked to democracy, and principals were portrayed as leaders of democratic schools where all citizens could receive an education (Beck & Murphy, 1993). Tyack and Hansot (1982) described the principal of this era as, "...a dignified, erudite, and slightly distant figure, autonomous in authority, and respected both inside and outside the school" (p. 239).

The principalship had emerged as a valid and important profession to American cultural development (Boyer C. E., 1997). Tyack and Hansot stated,

Whereas school leaders in the 19<sup>th</sup> century tended to see themselves as constituting an aristocracy of character, in the 20<sup>th</sup> century they began to regard themselves as a distinct group of experts, certified by specialized training, linked into exclusively professional associations like the American Association of School Administrators (AASA), sponsoring and being sponsored by fellow experts, elaborating legal and bureaucratic rules, and turning to science and business as sources of authority for an emergent profession (p.7).

The period between 1950 and 1980 represented a time of societal change in America, a quest for social justice. “Both the common-school crusaders and the administrative progressives believed in public education as an instrument of progress” (Tyack & Hansot, 1982). In the wake of Sputnik, milestone court decisions such as *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* and the passage of Title IX and P.L. 94-142 (Education for Handicapped Children Act), principals were expected to implement empirically proven strategies to promote excellence (Beck & Murphy, 1993; Goodwin, Cunningham, & Eagle, 2005). Public schools were becoming institutions that educated all children including minorities and the mentally and physically handicapped. The role of the principal has adjusted to the demands of special education legislation, curriculum and instruction issues, and a growing need to participate in the political world (Portin, Shen, & Williams, 1998).

Federal, state, and local policies were being drafted and implemented to meet the needs of all children. “Federal and state governments have created a kaleidoscope of new programmatic reforms, each with its own regulations and accounting system” (Tyack & Hansot, 1982, p. 8). Legislation, professional organizations, and the media demanded that the public

have more access to information. With this came accountability measures that often led to the end of “good ol’ boy” administration (Brubaker, 1995).

The complexity and expectations placed on school leaders had never been greater. Sweeping changes in the United States and around the world placed an increased level of emphasis on the role the principal serves. Tyack and Hansot (1982) asserted,

Public education in the 1960s became front-page news as a battle-ground in the War on Poverty and the quest for racial equality. Across the land in the generation following *Brown* appeared major changes in public education: desegregation, federal aid to schools serving poor children, dozens of state and federal categorical programs aimed at neglected populations, legislation guaranteeing racial and sexual equity, new entitlements for handicapped pupils, state laws demanding accountability and minimum standards for promotion and graduation, bilingual-bicultural programs, career education, and a host of other reforms large and small (p. 238).

This vast array of programs and initiatives changed the function and running of public schools. “All of these forces became and continue to be part of the complex responsibilities of the building principal” (Goodwin, Cunningham, & Eagle, 2005, p.5).

The perception and focus of public schools in America were drastically changed as a result of *A Nation at Risk* in 1983 (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). School effectiveness research of the 1980s placed a focus on instructional leadership leading to a call for higher levels of accountability in the 1990s (Bloom, 1999). Modern school leaders are expected to function as education professor, teacher supervisor, budget manager, counselor, local politician, social worker, disciplinarian, visionary, assistant custodian and bureaucrat (Bloom, 1999).



The 20<sup>th</sup> century served as an era of creation and evolution of public education and the role of the principalship (Spring, 1990; Tyack & Hansot, 1982). The building-level principal in the late 20<sup>th</sup> and early 21<sup>st</sup> century serves a very complex role. Tyack and Hansot asserted,

The building principal in such schools is less an in-house bureaucrat or accountant than a *principal teacher* (the origin of the title, now long forgotten) and a mobilizer, departing from the tradition in American public education of separating management from practice and administration from teaching. This kind of leader must have expertise in curriculum development and teaching and must also be able to generate a sense of common purpose (p.24).

Principals have evolved from being lead teachers to managers, and now the trend is moving back to being instructional leaders (MacCorkle, 2004; Portin, Shen, & Williams, 1998). Perhaps the most consistent finding from the literature is that the success of school improvement efforts is dependent upon leadership. Effective schools have effective principals and teacher leaders (Fullan, 1993). In turn, effective leadership requires adequate preparation for the role of school principal.

## **Principal Preparation Programs**

### ***History of Principal Preparation***

***The Ideology Era (1820 – 1900).*** The Era of Ideology in school administration (1820 – 1900), produced a knowledge base of applied philosophy very similar to the one informing teaching (Harris, Ballenger, & Leonard, 2004; Murphy, 1995). Literature discussing school administration or preparation was scarce prior to 1900. Murphy (1995) suggested a school leadership role separate from the teaching function did not emerge to any significant degree until after the Civil War. According to Button (1966), prior to the Civil War there were very few

school administrators, not enough of them to constitute anything even remotely resembling a profession. Button defined administration prior to 1900 as supervision, two words that were used interchangeably during this era, and supervision was the training of teachers (Button, 1966).

***The Prescriptive Era (1900 – 1946).*** The beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century marked a new era for the field of public school administration. “Concomitantly, a new perspective on management – the captain of commerce role – that reflected dominant social and cultural forces was held up as an appropriate model for school leaders” (Murphy, 1995, p.63). The knowledge base for the profession and its preparation programs followed suit. Influenced significantly by the industrial revolution, the foundation of the field followed the business ideology of the time (Button, 1966; Harris, Ballenger, & Leonard, 2004; Murphy, 1995). Button (1966) stated,

The appropriate basis for decision-making was ideally a fiscal one. Like a business enterprise, the schools were to be operated at minimum cost. Like factories, they were to be operated at maximum efficiency. The child was first the raw material and then the product; the teacher was the worker; and the school was the factory (p.219).

The business model for public school administration and preparation was founded on three premises: schools operated much like business enterprise or factories, justified for administrative control over a wider variety of matters, and allied the administrator with the businessman (Button, 1966).

Newlon published *Educational Administration as Social Policy* in 1934. This work completed a variety analysis of the field of educational administration. Newlon concluded the field was oriented toward finance, business management, physical equipment, and the more mechanical aspects of administration, organization, and personnel management. Newlon discovered that over 80% of the preparatory program materials focused on the executive,

organizational, and legal aspects of administration. Callahan and Button (1964) found the knowledge base of school administration to be a mixture of finance, business management, public relations, and plant management.

In the 1930s, during the Depression and the New Deal, the business management model, along with businessmen, fell into disrepute. The purpose of schools shifted not only to operate with the highest level of efficiency and economy, but to strengthen the democracy (Button, 1966; Harris, Ballenger, & Leonard, 2004). Newlon (1934) proclaimed,

Education should of course, be efficiently and economically administered, but it should be kept in mind always that efficiency and economy must be defined in terms of purposes and responsibilities and that economy and parsimony are not synonyms in the parlance of public affairs. The fundamental desideratum is that schools be kept free if they are to serve their primary purpose of social education (p.129).

The business ideology fell into disfavor and consideration of the social foundational aspects of leadership was significantly enhanced. The “human” dimension began to find its way into the knowledge base reshaping research agendas and preparation experiences (Murphy, 1995).

***The Behavioral Science Era (1947 – 1985).*** Andrews and Grogan (2002) asserted as a result of the effects of World War II and its aftermath, the principalship of the 1940s and early 1950s embraced patriotic values that stressed the importance of education to a democratic and strong society. The post World War II era also experienced severe criticisms of the existing knowledge base, preparation programs employing prescriptive content and of the administrators trained by such programs. New ideas about the appropriate knowledge base began to emerge as a result of these criticisms and a renewed hope for the possibility of developing stronger cognitive foundations for educational leadership (Harris, Ballenger, & Leonard, 2004; Murphy, 1995). The

pursuit began for a science of administration. Murphy (1995) stated prescriptions from practice were increasingly replaced with theoretical, conceptual, and empirical material drawn from the various social sciences. Technique-oriented material based on practical experience fell into disfavor as scholars tried to produce a foundation of scientifically supported knowledge (Culbertson & Farquhar, 1971).

During this era, relevant concepts from the behavioral sciences were plentifully available; scientists, both physical and behavioral, were rising in esteem. Button (1966) stated, “The first step in professionalization was to improve the preparation of those entering the field and to incorporate basic knowledge; knowledge of the behavioral sciences was the best choice” (p. 222). The behavioral science movement led to a view of administration as an applied science in which theory and research are directly and linearly linked to professional practice. According to Culbertson and Farquhar (1971) a danger recognized in the literature was that social and behavioral sciences were glorified in and of themselves as a means of academically legitimating educational administration as a field of scholarly endeavor.

Murphy (1995) asserted that despite periodic warning signals and occasional major assaults on the science of administration, by the middle of the 1980s the knowledge base of educational administration was firmly anchored in the social science disciplines. Cooper and Boyd (1987) suggested preparatory programs typically focused on the study of administration, leadership, and supervision including an introduction to school law, planning, politics, negotiation, budgeting, and finance. These courses generally relied on a small number of similar textbooks and articles from the management and educational administration journals. The programmatic content emphasized a knowledge base borrowed from social psychology, management, and the behavioral sciences (Cooper & Boyd, 1987; Milkos, 1983).

***The Dialectic Era (1986 – Present)***. Murphy (1995) stated, “It is without contention that we are now enmeshed in a third era of turmoil in educational administration, one which promises to reorient the knowledge base as radically as have the ... prescriptive and behavioral science eras” (p. 66). The existing knowledge base has been roundly criticized for being weak and inappropriate. Erickson (1979) identified a lack of concern for identifying connections between organizational variables and organizational outcomes. Murphy identified areas of weakness in the existing knowledge base including moral and ethical dimensions, educational issues, diversity, and craft dimensions of leadership.

The Dialectic Era began with several published concerns about the knowledge base of educational administration. The National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration report, *Leaders for America’s Schools*, (1987) brought national attention to the needs and concerns of educational leaders, especially their preparation programs. The 1989 report *Improving the Preparation of School Administrators: An Agenda for Reform* from the National Policy Board for Educational Administration also identified concerns. The 1990 National Commission for the Principals and the 1993 National Policy Board for Educational Administration both discussed the need for improvement within the knowledge base.

During the 1980s and early 1990s, principal preparation programs continued to train aspiring principals as top down building managers. Andrews and Grogan (2002) stated that the knowledge based deemed essential for principals to be prepared for management functions were organized around concepts such as planning, organizing, financing, supervising, budgeting, and scheduling rather than on the creation of relationships and environments within schools that promote student learning. Principal preparation was more concerned with mandates, rules,

regulations, and focused on supervision and incentives as a strategy for working with the staff in the school (Andrews & Grogan, 2002).

The late 1980s and 1990s marked an era of change in the conceptualization of the work and preparation of the school principal. The principal was no longer seen as the building manager, but as the instructional leader of the school (Andrews & Grogan, 2002). Harris, Ballenger, and Leonard described that the 1980s cast the principal as an instructional leader and the 1990s as a leader versus manager. In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the role of the principal has become more complex placing greater pressure on preparation programs. Effective principals must be skilled instructional leaders, change initiators, managers, personal directors, problem solvers, and visionaries (Blase & Kirby, 2000; Hale & Moorman, 2003).

The critical publications and transformation of the principalship led to a call for national standards. The Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium formed in 1994 also indicated a need for improvement and consistency within the knowledge base. This need led to the development of the ISLLC Standards in 1996 and revised in 2008, for educational leadership preparation programs. These standards focused on the six key areas for principal certification and evaluation including vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context (Council of Chief State School Officers , 1996; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). Harris, Ballenger, and Leonard (2004) reported the standards-based movement has led to identification of these specific components of leadership to serve as benchmarks for accountability. This movement has also increased pressure on leadership preparation programs to become more practitioner oriented. “In the pressure of this high-stakes testing accountability environment, the K-12 principal must not only know administrative theory, but is often held accountable through state accountability systems to demonstrate educational standards as

identified in written mandated state standards of administrator performance” (Harris, Ballenger, & Leonard, 2004, p. 156).

### ***National Standards for Educational Leadership Programs***

***The ISLLC Standards for School Leaders (1996).*** The National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA) created the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) in 1994 under the auspices of the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) to develop standards for educational leadership and anchor the profession for the 21<sup>st</sup> century. ISLLC is a collaborative group with a collective interest in the field of educational leadership – states, professional associations, and universities (Murphy, 2001; Wiedmer, 2007). Universities were represented by the University Council of Educational Administration (UCEA) and the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA). Associations were represented by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP), the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP), the American Association of School Administrators (AASA), and the Association for Curriculum and Development (ASCD). In addition to these professional groups, approximately 27 states were represented (Davis & Jazzar, 2005; Murphy, 2001).

The ISLLC Standards for School Leaders were developed between August, 1994, and November, 1996. The foundation for educational leadership standards were based on research and the literature (Murphy, 2001). Murphy asserted,

The Standards were built primarily from the literature on (1) productive school leadership and the research on school improvement and (2) emerging conceptions of school leadership for the 21<sup>st</sup> century embedded in publications of the association partners, as well as extant sets of professional standards for school leaders. We located this

knowledge in the context of the changing nature of education and the shifting nature of the political, social, and economic environments in which school is nested (p. 3).

Development of the ISLLC Standards allowed for the integration of panels of experts from both the practitioner and academic communities. In addition, drafts were regularly shared by state representatives with their constituents at home for feedback including state level professional organizations, employees of state agencies, and faculty of educational administration programs (Murphy, 2001).

Murphy (2001, p. 4) indicated the ISLLC Standards were guided by three central tenets. There is a single set of standards that applies to all leadership positions. The focus and ground of the standards should be the core of productive leadership. The standards should not simply codify what is; they should help elevate the profession to a higher level. Murphy (2005) indicated the following seven principles were developed to provide guidance during the standards development process.

1. Standards should reflect the centrality of student learning.
2. Standards should acknowledge the changing role of the school leader.
3. Standards should recognize the collaborative nature of school leadership.
4. Standards should be high, upgrading the quality of the profession.
5. Standards should inform performance-based systems of assessment and evaluation for school leaders.
6. Standards should be integrated and coherent.
7. Standards should be predicated on the concepts of access, opportunity, and empowerment for all members of the school community (p. 167).



These guiding principles served two functions during the development of the ISLLC standards. First, the principles acted as a touchstone to provide scope and focus for emerging products. Second, the principles gave meaning to standards and the nearly 200 knowledge, disposition, and performance indicators that define the standards (Murphy, 2001; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008).

The ISLLC Standards for School Leaders and the “intellectual pillars” on which they rest, provide the means to shift the focus of school administration from management to educational leadership and from administration to student learning (Murphy, 2005, p. 166). The ISLLC Standards are supported by research on successful schools and districts and on investigations of the men and women who lead organizations where all children are well educated with a bias toward schools that work well for students of color and children from low-income homes (Murphy, 2005).

The standards’ primary objectives are to strengthen school leaders by improving preparation programs, upgrading professional development for school leaders and creating a framework of accountability for evaluating candidate’s licensure (Murphy, 2001). “In 2006, 43 states reported adopting, adapting, or using the ISLLC Standards (1996) in developing state leadership standards” (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008, p. 4). The ISLLC Standards as adopted in 1996 are as follows.

1. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community.

2. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.
3. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources, for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.
4. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.
5. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.
6. A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context (Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium, 1996).

The ISLLC Standards are used to guide postsecondary institutional course content delivery for the purpose of increased expected and measurable performance indicators of school leaders grounded in research of teaching and learning (Murphy, 2001; Wiedmer, 2007).

***Educational Leadership Policy Standards: ISLLC 2008.*** The ISLLC Standards were reviewed and revised by the State Consortium on Education Leadership (SCEL) convened by the Council of Chief State School Officers and adopted by the National Policy Board for Educational Administration on December 12, 2007 (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2007). The ISLLC Standards, 2008, are as follows.

1. An education leader promotes 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.
2. 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.
3. An education leader promotes the success of every student by ensuring the management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.
4. 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.
5. An education leader promotes the success of every student by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.
6. 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, 2007).

Constituents in states, districts, and programs agreed that, in general, the content of the *Educational Leadership Policy Standards: ISLLC 2008 and the ISLLC Standards for School Leaders* (1996) represent the same ideals and central concepts of leadership. The ISLLC Standards have been extensively used in policies and programs and are seen as the *de facto* national leadership standards. The standards provide the foundation for developing and

maintaining coherence among system components about preparation, administrator certification, and assessments (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008).

***Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) Standards.*** In 2002, the Educational Leadership Constituent Council developed standards that are used to evaluate university preparation programs seeking National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) accreditation. The NCATE/ELCC Standards are widely used by states to accredit administrator preparation programs for certification (Davis & Jazzar, 2005; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). The ELCC Standards (2002) are stated as follows.

1. Candidates who complete the program are educational leaders who have the knowledge and ability to promote the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a school or district vision of learning supported by the school community.
2. Candidates who complete the program are educational leaders who have the knowledge and ability to promote the success of all students by promoting a positive school culture, providing an effective instructional program, applying best practice to student learning, and designing comprehensive professional growth plans for staff.
3. Candidates who complete the program are educational leaders who have the knowledge and ability to promote the success of all students by managing the organization, operations, and resources in a way that promotes a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.
4. Candidates who complete the program are educational leaders who have the knowledge and ability to promote the success of all students by collaborating with

- families and other community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.
5. Candidates who complete the program are educational leaders who have the knowledge and ability to promote the success of all students by acting with integrity, fairly, and in an ethical manner.
  6. Candidates who complete the program are educational leaders who have the knowledge and ability to promote the success of all students by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context.
  7. The internship provides significant opportunities for candidates to synthesize and apply the knowledge and practice and develop the skills identified in Standards 1-6 through substantial, sustained, standards-based work in real settings, planned and guided cooperatively by the institution and school district personnel for graduate credit (National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002).

The purview of the Educational Leadership Constituency Council Standards is professional accreditation in school administration. In an effort to link the leverage point of accreditation to the goal of reshaping the profession around the ISLLC principles, the ELCC guidelines were scaffold directly on the ISLLC Standards (Murphy, 2005). “Indeed, the ELCC guidelines are primarily a restatement of the six ISLLC Standards, with the addition of a seventh guideline on the internship” (Murphy, 2005, p. 155).

### ***Characteristics of Preparation Programs***

The standards created by the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium in 1996 and revised in 2008, and the Educational Leadership Constituent Council in 2002 are based on the

same fundamental principles. These principles described the characteristics of effective principal preparatory programs including vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context (Murphy, 2005; Wiedmer, 2007; Wilmore, 2002). The State Consortium on Education Leadership (SCEL) identified six performance expectations derived from the central concepts of the ISLLC Standards. “The performance expectations and indicators represent a current national consensus about the most important, observable aspects of education leaders’ work” (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008, p. 12). The NCATE/ELCC Standards were also based on the central tenants of the ISLLC Standards and are widely used by states to accredit administrator preparation programs for certification (Murphy, 2005; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008).

The following table was created by the author and compiled by identifying the common fundamental principles shared by the ISLLC 1996, ISLLC 2008, and ELCC 2002 Standards which provide a foundation for the characteristics of effective principal preparatory programs identified above. The identified characteristics are vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context.

Table 1

*Educational Leadership Characteristics Comparisons*

Characteristic Description	ISLLC 1996	ISLLC 2008	ELCC 2002
Vision – the ability of an educational leader to promote the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a set of goals that are supported by all stakeholders.	✓	✓	✓
Culture – the ability of an educational leader to promote the success of all students by advocating and sustaining a positive school environment and instructional program conducive to student learning and comprehensive professional growth plans for staff.	✓	✓	✓
Management – the ability of an educational leader to promote the success of all students by supervising the organization, operations, and resources in a way that promotes a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.	✓	✓	✓
Collaboration – the ability of an educational leader to promote the success of all students by collaborating with the faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.	✓	✓	✓
Integrity – the ability of an educational leader to promote the success of all students by acting fairly and in an ethical manner.	✓	✓	✓
Context – the ability of an educational leader to promote the success of all students by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural framework.	✓	✓	✓

The six fundamental principles or central tenants shared by the standards provided literature-based support for the use of vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context as the desired characteristics of the guiding knowledge base of preparation programs for this study.

Education leaders should be able to develop and implement a school vision (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). The ISLLC Standards (2008) performance expectations proclaim that administrators “...ensure the achievement of all students by guiding the development and implementation of a shared vision of learning, strong organizational mission, and high expectations for every student” (p. 13). An educational leader must guide the collaborative development of a sustainable vision, mission, and goals that are commonly understood and committed to by all stakeholders. The vision should establish high expectations for every student by utilizing data, current practices, research, policies, and diverse perspectives (National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). “Educational leaders are accountable and have unique responsibilities for developing and implementing a vision of learning to guide organizational decisions and actions” (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008, p. 13).

School administrators should be able to advocate, nurture, and sustain a school culture and instructional program that is conducive to student learning and promotes staff professional growth (Consortium, Interstate School Leaders Licensure, 1996; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). The ISLCC Standards (2008) performance expectations state, “Educational leaders ensure achievement and success of all students by monitoring and continuously improving teaching and learning” (p. 16). A positive and strong school culture supports teacher learning and commitment to the school vision; implements a rigorous curriculum and effective instructional practices for the



success of every student; and utilizes data, assessment, and accountability strategies to increase student learning and closing of the achievement gap (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). A strong school culture fosters all components of the instructional system including staff professional growth, curriculum, instructional materials, pedagogy, and student assessment (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008).

Educational leaders should be able to manage the organization, operations, and resources within the school (Consortium, Interstate School Leaders Licensure, 1996; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). The ISLLC (2008) performance expectations asserted that administrators, "...ensure the success of all students by managing organizational systems and resources for a safe, high-performing learning environment" (p. 19). School leaders should supervise continuous management structures and practices that enhance teaching and learning; maintain infrastructure for finance and personnel in support of student success; and address potential challenges to the physical and emotional safety and security of staff and students (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). "In order to ensure the success of all students and provide a high-performing learning environment, education leaders manage daily operations and environments through efficiently and effectively aligning resources with vision and goals" (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008, p. 19).

School administrators should collaborate with faculty and community members, respond to diverse community interests, and mobilize community resources (Consortium, Interstate School Leaders Licensure, 1996; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). The ISLLC (2008) performance expectations contend that administrators supported student success by, "...collaborating with

families and stakeholders who represent diverse community interests and needs and mobilizing community resources that improve teaching and learning” (p. 22). Successful collaboration is achieved by utilizing stakeholder resources to positively affect student and adult learning, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and sharing school and community resources with students and their families (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). “Leaders regard diverse communities as a resource and work to engage all members in collaboration and partnerships that support teaching and learning” (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008, p. 22).

Educational leaders should conduct themselves with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner (Consortium, Interstate School Leaders Licensure, 1996; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). The ISLLC (2008) performance expectations suggest, “Education leaders ensure the success of all students by being ethical and acting with integrity” (p. 25). School leaders should model personal and professional ethics, integrity, justice, and fairness; demonstrate respect and provide equitable treatment for the interests of diverse stakeholders; and develop lifelong learning strategies related to content, standards, assessment, data, teacher support, evaluation, and professional development (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). “Ethics and integrity mean leading from a position of caring, modeling care and belonging in educational settings, personally in their behavior and professionally in concern about students, their learning, and their lives” (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008, p. 25).

Administrators should understand, respond to, and influence the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context (Consortium, Interstate School Leaders Licensure, 1996; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002; The State Consortium on

Education Leadership, 2008). The ISLLC (2008) performance expectations indicate, “Education leaders ensure the success of all students by influencing interrelated systems of political, social, economic, legal, and cultural contexts affecting education to advocate for their teachers’ and students’ needs” (p. 28). School leaders contribute to the context of the educational system by participating and exerting professional influence in local and larger educational policy environments, supporting excellence and equity in education, and collaborating with policy makers to improve education (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). “Professional relationships with a range of stakeholders and policymakers enable leaders to identify, respond to, and influence issues, public awareness, and policies (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008, p. 28).

In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the role of the principal is increasingly more complex placing greater pressure on preparation programs. Effective principals must be skilled instructional leaders, change initiators, managers, personal directors, problem solvers, and visionaries (Blase & Kirby, 2000; Hale & Moorman, 2003). These complex roles and responsibilities have facilitated the need and creation of National Standards for Educational Leadership. The literature guided experts to identify six fundamental characteristics of effective school leadership including vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). The complex role of the principal, the standards, and the principles that guide them have placed increasing pressure on principal preparation programs. In an effort to meet this pressure, traditional and alternative methods of preparation are competing to prepare aspiring principals for future positions of educational leadership.

### ***Preparation Program Types***

The systems that prepare our nation's principals are complex and interrelated. Individual states establish licensure and certification requirements for educational leadership and most states approve programs that prepare school leaders. The intense pressure for principals to be instructional leaders who can implement standards-based reform has given unprecedented prominence and political visibility to the challenges of preparing school principals (Hale & Moorman, 2003). Behar-Horenstein (1995) observed, "Changes in the professional preparation of aspiring principals reflect an increased responsiveness to the work that emerging school principals are expected to perform" (p. 18). Hall (2006) asserted theory and craft knowledge must be incorporated to prepare leaders who have the skills needed to lead 21<sup>st</sup> century schools.

The focus on principal preparation and development has intensified, leading to innovations in both leadership development programs and program structures. The content of principal preparation programs should reflect the current research on school leadership, management, and instructional leadership (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). "Program content should be delivered through a variety of methods to best meet the needs of adult learners and to allow principals or aspiring principals to apply the curricular content in authentic settings and toward the resolution of real-world problems and dilemmas" (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005, p. 9). Hale and Moorman (2003) asserted,

Principals of today's schools must be able to (1) lead instruction, (2) shape an organization that demands and supports excellent instruction and dedicated learning by students and staff and (3) connect the outside world and its resources to the school and its work. As a corollary proposition, preparation programs must

fulfill the vision embodied in the ISLLC standards and develop principals who have the knowledge, skills and attributes of an instructional leader and the capacity to galvanize the internal and external school communities in support of increased student achievement and learning (p. 10).

Excellent principal preparation programs exist and are anchored in research on teaching and learning and the role of the principal as an instructional leader (Hale & Moorman, 2003).

The increased complexity of the role of the principal and the demand for quality leaders have influenced the creation of new and alternative leadership preparation programs. Since the late 1990s, there has been a “literal explosion” of new administrative preparation programs both in and outside of the university context (Young & Creighton, 2002). Four categories of preparation program type emerged from the literature including university-based programs, district-based programs, third-party professional development organization programs, and partnership programs (Barbour, 2005; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003).

***University-based Programs.*** University-based programs are established by higher education institutions and typically offer courses for completion of a master’s degree in Educational Leadership or a principal licensure in addition to an existing master’s degree from an accredited institution (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003). Programs established by insitutions of higher education typically offer courses for aspiring administrators framed around discrete subjects such as school law, finance, and personnel management. Many university-based programs have minimal adminission standards, do not target needs of specific populations, and are not sensitive to variations in school community settings (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). However, Davis,

Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, and Meyerson (2005) reported a nationwide examination of university-based programs revealed innovative instructional strategies including clinical internships, mentoring, collaboration with school districts, cohort groups, and relevant curricula. Hale and Moorman (2003) identified university-based programs requiring field experiences, portfolio development and defense, reflection, and self-evaluation. Many university-based programs are aligned with national standards and focus on providing prospective administrators with the skills necessary to effectively lead 21<sup>st</sup> century schools (Hale & Moorman, 2003; Nicholson, 2004).

***District-based Programs.*** District-based programs are developed and operated by school districts and may include collaboration with a third-party professional development organization. As a result of liberalized policy development and certification requirements in some states, district owned and operated principal preparatory programs have proliferated (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). Many school districts across the country have developed leadership preparation programs for aspiring administrators (Quenneville, 2007). Districts have the advantage of selecting candidates with natural leadership skills and offering curriculums relevant to the district (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). Quenneville (2007) reported that a comprehensive search of the literature did not provide evidence that district level principal preparation programs prepared aspiring administrators better than traditional programs.

***Third-party Professional Development Organizations.*** Third-party professional development organizations can be defined as (a) nonprofit organizations such as The Principal Residency Network (PRN), New Leaders for New Schools (NLNS), and the Wallace Foundation; (b) for-profit organizations such as “non-brick and mortar” institutions including

Capella and Strayer Universities; and (c) state-based alternative certification programs (Barbour, 2005; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003).

Preparatory programs operated by third-party organizations are relatively new and typically serve multiple districts with a common focus (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005).

Barbour (2005) suggested that nonprofit organizations provide opportunities for preparation that prepares school administrators to be effective leaders of the challenges of today's schools. The Principal Residency Network (PRN) preparatory program is individualized to meet the needs of aspiring principals by working in the small, personalized school setting. New Leaders for New Schools (NLNS) is focused on recruiting talented individuals who display diverse but proven skills and have a history of success in urban schools (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003). Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, and Meyerson (2005) asserted, "... most programs in this category are so new and have so few graduates that there is a limited basis from which to judge their effectiveness" (p. 17).

For-profit organizations include "non-brick and mortar" institutions including Capella and Strayer Universities. Barbour (2005) proclaimed,

Generally, the online, non-university for-profit programs for principal preparation offer convenience, flexibility, appeal to members of the armed forces from a graduate degree focus, and appeal to full time working adults with or without families. Many of these programs call themselves a university, but it is often difficult to ascertain what affiliation the program has to a brick-and-mortar university (p. 4).

Nontraditional programs are less restricted and are more likely to develop innovative courses and curricula than traditional academic institutions. Web-based principal preparation relies primarily on 21<sup>st</sup> century tools and resources for instruction and evaluation (Hale & Moorman, 2003).

State-based alternative certification programs are typically individualized to meet the needs of the state. Many states have begun to provide alternate routes to certification, some funded partially by foundations (Barbour, 2005). Several states have developed leadership academies providing programs for leaders or leadership teams. Their methods include workshops, institutes, professional development plans, networks, coaching, and mentoring (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005).

***Partnership Programs.*** Partnership programs consist of programs provided in a collaborative effort between universities, districts, and/or third-party organizations. Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, and Meyerson (2005) contended partnership programs between stakeholders most often include universities in collaboration with school districts. These partnerships typically occurred in cities where the university and district partners have developed a common vision of education and principal preparation. Barbour (2003) described partnerships between a third-party organizations including the Wallace Foundation, and universities, school districts, or individual schools. These programs are often highly contextualized and faculty may include university and district staff (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005).

### **Summary**

Schools have existed in the United States since the first settlers arrived from Europe. The first public high school was established in Boston in 1821 (Drue, 1981). Both 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> century schools were run by teachers with administrative responsibilities or “principal teachers,” the forgotten origin of the title (Tyack & Hansot, 1982, p. 256). During the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the role



of the principal evolved from promoters of accepted values in the 1920s, facilitating a business-like atmosphere in the 1930s, advancing patriotism and democracy in the 1940s and 1950s, advocating societal change in the 1960s and 1970s, to focusing on improving schools and student achievement during the 1980s to the present day (Beck & Murphy, 1993; Tyack & Hansot, 1982). As the role and responsibilities of the principal evolved, principal preparatory programs experienced their own evolution. Murphy (1995) divided the history of principal preparation into four eras: the Ideology, Prescriptive, Behavioral Science, and Dialectic eras (Murphy, 1995).

In response to critical publications and the changing role of the principal from that of manager to instructional leader, the development of national standards for educational leadership ensued. The Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium developed a set of standards for educational leadership in 1996 and revised them in 2008 (Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium, 1996; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). In 2002, the Educational Leadership Consituent Council developed standards that are used to evaluate university preparation programs seeking accreditation (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). The ISLLC and ELCC Standards are based on the same fundamental principles describing the characteristics of effective principal preparation including vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context (Murphy, 1995; Wiedmer, 2007; Wilmore, 2002).

As a result of the evolving responsibilities of the principal, educational leadership preparation programs have been forced to evolve (Behar-Horenstein, Spring, 1995). Innovation in programmatic development and structure have increased (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). The demand for change in traditional preparation and the emergence of non-traditional program types are in response to the changing role of the principal

(Hale & Moorman, 2003). Four categories of classification for principal preparation program type emerged from the literature: university-based, district-based, third-party professional development organizations, and partnership programs (Barbour, 2005; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003). This research considered the effect of program type or delivery method on the principal's perceived level of preparedness for administrative work.

### **CHAPTER THREE: METHODS**

In response to the increasing complexities of the role of the educational leader, programs of professional preparation for aspiring principals are evolving (Behar-Horenstein, 1995). The demand for change in traditional graduate preparation and the emergence of non-traditional preparation program types are in response to this changing role (Hale & Moorman, 2003). A disparity exists in the academic literature concerning the effectiveness of principal preparation programs. There is little evidence demonstrating whether and how the types of learning opportunities provided by programs enable principals to become more effective in their practice (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). In response to the evolving role of the school leader, the responding changes in preparation, and the disparity in the academic literature it is imperative that studies of the effectiveness of principal preparation for administrative work be conducted in order to learn how to strengthen preparation programs. This study examined preparation program type and principals perceived level of preparedness for administrative work.

#### **Method**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the disparity in the literature on principal preparation programs by determining if practicing principals believed their preparation program adequately prepared them for administrative work. The level of perceived preparedness was a direct reflection of the quality of the preparation program type. The research method for this study was survey research, a method of systematic data collection (Borg & Gall, 1989). The survey type was a cross-sectional survey collecting standardized information from a sample drawn from a predetermined population (Borg & Gall, 1989). The conceptual framework of the research questions and survey instrument was based on the educational leadership principles established by the ISLLC and ELCC Standards including vision, culture, management,

collaboration, integrity, and context (Council of Chief State School Officers ,1996; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002). This chapter will describe the population and sample, the instrumentation used to gather data, procedures for conducting the study, and methods used for data analysis.

### **Population and Sample**

A survey was mailed by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) to a random sampling, selected by the NASSP, of all current secondary administrators who are members of the NASSP. The current membership of the NASSP consists of 30,230 principals, assistant principals, and other middle level and high school leaders (C. Corr, NASSP, personal communication, September 2, 2008). According to Gay and Airasian (2003) the minimum sample size for a population of this size is 379. The sample size for this study was 600 using a systematic random selection procedure (Hardyck & Petrinovich, 1975). There are approximately 31,000 middle schools and high schools in the United States. The current membership of the NASSP provided adequate representation of the population (Gay & Airasian, 2003). This sample was sufficient to allow generalization of the findings to the population (Borg & Gall, 1989).

### **Design**

This research was a descriptive study, determining and describing the way things are by comparing how subgroups view issues or topics (Gay & Airasian, 2003). This study used an e-mailed and paper mailed survey instrument for ex post facto research (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). The research was quantitative in nature and the data gathered from the electronic and paper survey were tested for differences in means using SPSS 17.0 to run an ANOVA statistical analysis. The variables of principals' perceived level of preparedness for the six areas of

educational leadership as established by the ISLLC and ELCC Standards including vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context were compared for differences in relation to the variable of preparation program type. A review of the literature provided four categories of classification for preparation program type including university-based, district-based, third-party professional development organizations, and partnership programs (Barbour, 2005; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003).

The statistical method used to analyze the data was one-way analysis of variance better known as ANOVA (Gay & Airasian, 2003). The purpose of analysis of variance is to determine whether the groups being compared differ significantly among themselves on the variables being studied (Borg & Gall, 1989). The statistical power can be increased by raising the level of significance. The level of significance for this study was set at  $p < .05$  (Borg & Gall, 1989). The analysis of variance technique analyzes two types of variability – the variability of subjects within each group and the variability between different groups (Spence, Cotton, & Underwood, 1976).

### **Instrumentation**

This study used a survey created by the author entitled the *School Administrator Preparedness Survey* which consisted of two parts. The first section gathered demographic information including sex, age, administrative position, number of years in administration, total number of years in the field of education, and preparation program type. The second section consisted of six sub-sections organized by the variables of vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context derived from the *Performance Expectations and Indicators for Education Leaders, An ISLLC-Based Guide to Implementing Leader Standards and a Companion Guide to the Educational Leadership Policy Standards: ISLLC 2008*. The sub-

sections were expanded into specific survey items based on the performance expectations and indicators for school leaders. The survey was pilot tested with acting school principals to determine reliability and validity.

### **Data Analysis**

Data for each participant, section and survey item were entered into the SPSS 17.0 data analysis software. This provided 93 pieces of data for each respondent. A combined mean score for each sub-section of vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context was calculated. Each sub-section addressed one of the six research questions. The level of perceived preparedness for each section was measured on a scale of one to ten.

Next, the variables (vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context) were compared for differences in means with the variable (preparation program type) using the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) in SPSS 17.0. In addition, the demographic data including age, sex, administrative position, number of years in administration, and total number of years in the field of education were compared for differences among the responses to the level of preparedness revealed in the responses to the survey questions. These differences, or the lack thereof, provided valuable information to better understand the disparity in the academic literature on the effectiveness of principal preparation programs.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA**

Chapter Four of this survey research study is a presentation of the data gathered from the *School Administrator Preparedness Survey* (see Appendix A) and a statistical analysis of those data. This chapter will be divided into three sections. The first section will discuss the population and sample. The second section will focus on the method of data collection. The third and final section will examine the major findings of the study including a discussion for each research question.

### **Population and Sample**

The population for this study (N= 32,320) consisted of members of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) including principals, assistant principals, and other middle level and high school leaders. The sample included 600 members randomly selected by the NASSP. The initial electronic survey instrument distribution was followed by a United States Postal Service distribution of the paper survey and finally a reminder postcard was sent to the remaining non-respondents.

### **Method of Data Collection**

A group of five practicing school administrators (See Appendix B) were asked to serve as experts, complete the survey, and provide feedback on clarity, readability, and length of the instrument. To ensure validity and reliability, Cronbach's Correlation Alpha was conducted for the 87 survey questions associated with the educational leadership characteristics of vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context. The Cronbach's Alpha score was .993 indicating a high level of reliability for the survey instrument.

The *School Administrator Preparedness Survey* consisted of 93 questions in two main sections. The first section requested demographic information that included sex, age, administrative position, number of years of administrative experience, total number of years in the field of education, and preparation program type. The second section consisted of six sub-sections organized by six educational leadership characteristics. These variables of vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context were derived from the *Performance Expectations and Indicators for Education Leaders, An ISLLC-Based Guide to Implementing Leader Standards and a Companion Guide to the Educational Leadership Policy Standards: ISLLC 2008*. The sub-sections were expanded to specific survey items based on the performance expectations and indicators for school leaders. The level of perceived preparedness was measured using a 10-point Likert Scale format ranging from “not prepared” to “very prepared.”

Each of the 600 potential respondents received an email consisting of an introductory statement (see Appendix C) and an electronic link to the questionnaire. The electronic version of the survey was created by the author using *Survey Monkey*, a web-based survey instrument. The paper version was also created by the author using Microsoft Word 2007. The same survey was created by the author and distributed by two delivery methods. After approximately two weeks, a second email was sent to the sample including a reminder statement and the link to the electronic version of the questionnaire.

The electronic method of survey collection did not provide a sufficient return with an 8.5 % return rate. Three weeks after the second email, a paper copy of the survey, a cover letter (see Appendix D), and a self-addressed stamped envelope were mailed via the United States Postal Service to all 600 members of the sample group. The cover letter included the link to the electronic survey for the respondent to use if they preferred this method. Approximately three



weeks later a second mailing was sent to the remaining potential respondents including an abbreviated cover letter (see Appendix E), a paper copy of the survey, and a self-addressed stamped envelope. After three additional weeks, a post card was mailed to the remaining potential respondents including an email address to request an additional paper copy of the survey or a URL link to the electronic version of the questionnaire. The paper mailing produced six insufficient addresses and three respondents declined to participate. After subtracting these nine potential respondents, the sample size was reduced, resulting in  $n = 591$  as per Dillman (2000). The electronic and paper questionnaires produced 295 returned surveys resulting in a return rate of 50%.

Data from the 93 survey items were collected from each returned survey. These data were compared for differences in means using SPSS 17.0 to run an analysis of variance (ANOVA). The variables of principals' perceived level of preparedness for the six areas of educational leadership were compared for differences in relation to the variable of preparation program type.

The sample was a representation of school administrators that are members of the NASSP. The demographic of sex consisted of 199 males and 94 females. The age of the sample included 170 respondents over and including 49 years of age with the remaining 121 below the age of 49. The sample also included 279 principals, 8 assistant principals, and 5 other individuals. The preparation program types included 273 university-based programs, 16 partnership programs, and 5 other program types (See Table 2).

Table 2

*Demographics for Preparation Program Type*

Program Type	Frequency	Percent
University-Based	273	92.5%
Partnership	16	5.5%
District-Based	1	0.3%
Third-party Professional Development Organizations	0	0.0%
Other	2	0.7%
No Response	3	1.0%

**Major Findings***Research Questions***Q1: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to develop and implement a school vision and his/her preparation program type?**

Participants were asked to describe their perceived level of preparedness for developing and implementing a school vision. The level of preparedness was a perceptual score derived from responses to a ten point Likert scale ranging from not prepared to very prepared. The mean vision score for respondents prepared by university-based programs was 90.58. The mean vision score for respondents prepared by partnership programs was 123.31. The number of respondents prepared by other program types was too low to be statistically analyzed.

When compared for differences in means with an ANOVA (See Table 3) a *p* value of .008 was derived. This indicated statistically significant differences in the administrator's preparation type and his/her perceived ability to develop and implement a school vision.

Respondents prepared by partnership programs felt more prepared to develop and implement a school vision than those prepared by university-based programs.

**Q2: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to promote a positive school culture and his/her preparation program type?**

Participants were asked to describe their perceived level of preparedness to promote a positive school culture. The level of preparedness was a perpetual score derived from responses to a ten point Likert scale ranging from "not prepared" to "very prepared." The mean culture score for respondents prepared by university-based programs was 97.79. The mean culture score for respondents prepared by partnership programs was 117.06. The number of respondents prepared by other program types was too low to be statistically analyzed.

When compared for differences in means with an ANOVA, as seen in Table 3, a *p* value of .268 was derived. This did not indicate statistically significant differences in the administrator's preparation type and his/her perceived ability to promote a positive school culture.

**Q3: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to manage the organization and his/her preparation program type?**

Participants were asked to describe their perceived level of preparedness to manage organizational systems. The level of preparedness was a perpetual score derived from responses to a ten point Likert scale ranging from "not prepared" to "very prepared." The mean management score for respondents prepared by university-based programs was 101.74. The mean management score for respondents prepared by partnership programs was 118.20. The number of respondents prepared by other program types was too low to be statistically analyzed.

When compared for differences in means with an ANOVA a  $p$  value of .478 was derived. This did not indicate statistically significant differences in the administrator's preparation type and his/her perceived ability to manage the organization. This information is arrayed in Table 3.

**Q4: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to collaborate with families and community members and his/her preparation program type?**

Participants were asked to describe their perceived level of preparedness to foster collaboration. The level of preparedness was a perpetual score derived from responses to a ten point Likert scale ranging from "not prepared" to "very prepared." The mean collaboration score for respondents prepared by university-based programs was 88.86. The mean collaboration score for respondents prepared by partnership programs was 104.71. The number of respondents prepared by other program types was too low to be statistically analyzed.

When compared for differences in means with an ANOVA a  $p$  value of .136 was derived. This did not indicate statistically significant differences in the administrator's preparation type and his/her perceived ability to collaborate with all stakeholders. These data are displayed in Table 3.

**Q5: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to act in an ethical manner and his/her preparation program type?**

Participants were asked to describe their perceived level of preparedness to act with integrity. The level of preparedness was a perpetual score derived from responses to a ten point Likert scale ranging from "not prepared" to "very prepared." The mean integrity score for respondents prepared by university-based programs was 105.94. The mean integrity score for respondents prepared by partnership programs was 115.88. The number of respondents prepared by other program types was too low to be statistically analyzed.

When compared for differences in means with an ANOVA (See Table 3) a  $p$  value of .760 was derived. This did not indicate statistically significant differences in the administrator's preparation type and his/her perceived ability to act in an ethical manner.

**Q6: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to understand the larger, social, political, economic, legal, and cultural context of schools and his/her preparation program type?**

Participants were asked to describe their perceived level of preparedness to understand the cultural context of schools. The level of preparedness was a perpetual score derived from responses to a ten point Likert scale ranging from "not prepared" to "very prepared." The mean context score for respondents prepared by university-based programs was 65.58. The mean context score for respondents prepared by partnership programs was 79.13. The number of respondents prepared by other program types was too low to be statistically analyzed.

When compared for differences in means with an ANOVA (See Table 3) a  $p$  value of .336 was derived. This did not indicate statistically significant differences in the administrator's preparation type and his/her perceived ability to understand the cultural context of schools.

Table 3

*ANOVA for Preparation Program Type*

Variable	Df	F	P
Vision	3	4.032	.008**
Culture	3	1.321	.268
Management	3	0.830	.478
Collaboration	3	1.865	.136
Integrity	3	0.390	.760
Context	3	1.134	.336
Grand Score	3	1.692	.170

\*\*Significance =  $p < .05$

**Ancillary Findings**

The additional demographic variables including sex, age, administrative position, years of administrative experience, and total years of educational experience were compared for statistically significant differences in the means of the six educational leadership characteristics sub-sections individually using ANOVA. Only one of the six sub-sections organized by the educational leadership characteristics variables of vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context produced a significant difference when compared to the additional demographic variables. When the variables of management and years of administrative experience were compared for differences in means with an ANOVA and, as displayed in

Table 4, a  $p$  value of .021 was derived. This indicated statistically significant differences in an administrator's perceived ability to manage the organization and the administrator's number of years of administrative experience.

A second ancillary finding was found in the area of university-based preparation. A large portion of the academic literature is very critical of traditional university-based principal preparation programs. The results of this study contradict the negative literature about university-based principal preparatory programs. The traditionally prepared respondents were surveyed on their perceived level of preparedness for the six educational leadership characteristics of vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context. These respondents produced an average score of 6.41 (see Table 5) on a Likert scale of one to ten, with one representing "not prepared" and ten representing "very prepared." This score indicated a positive view of traditional university-based preparation by the respondents. The only additional statistically significant program type represented was partnership programs. These respondents produced a mean average score of 7.65, slightly higher than university prepared respondents.

Table 4

*ANOVA for Demographic Variables (p values)*

Variable	Sex	Age	Administrative Position	Administrative Experience	Education Experience
Vision	.475	.467	.952	.567	.393
Culture	.659	.595	.737	.175	.836
Management	.300	.098	.232	.021**	.179
Collaboration	.125	.714	.867	.481	.977
Inegrity	.531	.838	.726	.229	.670
Context	.072	.842	.229	.050	.828
Grand Score	.098	.931	.553	.488	.955

\*\*Significance =  $p < .05$



Table 5

*Mean Likert Scale Scores (Range 1 – 10) for Educational Leadership Characteristics for Respondents Prepared by University-Based Programs*

Education Leadership Characteristic	Total Mean Score	Possible Mean Score	Average Likert Scale Score	Possible Likert Scale Score
Vision	90.58	160.0	5.66	10.0
Culture	97.79	160.0	6.11	10.0
Management	101.74	160.0	6.36	10.0
Collaboration	88.86	140.0	8.08	10.0
Integrity	105.94	140.0	7.57	10.0
Context	65.58	110.0	4.68	10.0

### Summary

One research question produced a significant finding. When preparation program type was compared for differences in means with an ANOVA for the variable of vision a  $p$  value of .008 was derived. Respondents prepared by partnership programs felt more equipped to develop and implement a school vision than respondents prepared by university-based programs. One statistically significant ancillary finding was also discovered. When comparing the variables of management and years of administrative experience a  $p$  value of .021 was produced. This analysis indicated statistically significant differences in an administrator's number of years experience and perceived ability to manage the organization. An additional ancillary finding was the positive perception of traditionally prepared administrators of their preparation.

The remaining five research questions comparing preparation program type for differences in means with the variables of culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and

context did not produce statistically significant differences. The education characteristics variables of vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context were also compared for differences in means with the additional demographic variables that included sex, age, administrative position, and total years of educational experience. These comparisons did not produce significant differences.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

This chapter includes a review of the purpose, sample, procedures and methods used in this study. The chapter also includes a summary of the findings and conclusions of the research. Additionally, the implications and recommendations for further study are discussed.

### **Summary of Purpose**

The intended objective of this study was to investigate the disparity in the academic literature on the effectiveness of principal preparation program type by determining if practicing principals feel their preparation programs adequately prepared them for their professional responsibilities. The increasing complexity of the role and responsibilities of the principalship has created demand for new types of preparation. A review of the literature provided four preparation programs types: (a) university-based programs, (b) district-based programs, (c) third-party professional development organization programs, and (d) partnership programs.

The responsibilities of educational leaders were divided into six categories that included vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context. These six educational leadership characteristics were derived from commonalities identified in the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) and the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) Standards.

A survey of a random sampling of the membership of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) was conducted to determine if preparation program type influenced principals' perceived level of preparation for administrative work. The survey design was organized to investigate perceived level of preparation in regard to the six education leadership characteristics. The following research questions were used as a guide for this study.

Q1: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to develop and implement a school vision and his/her preparation program type?

Q2: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to promote a positive school culture and his/her preparation program type?

Q3: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to manage the organization and his/her preparation program type?

Q4: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to collaborate with families and community members and his/her preparation program type?

Q5: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to act in an ethical manner and his/her preparation program type?

Q6: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to understand the larger, social, political, economic, legal, and cultural context of schools and his/her preparation program type?

### **Summary of Population/Sample**

The population for this study (N= 32,320) consisted of members of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) including principals, assistant principals, and other middle level and high school leaders. The sample (n= 600) included randomly selected members of the NASSP. There are approximately 31,000 middle schools and high schools in the United States. The current membership of the NASSP provided adequate representation of the population. This sample was sufficient to allow generalization of the findings to the population as a whole.

### **Summary of Method**

A survey was created by the author using *Survey Monkey*, a web-based survey instrument. The survey, *School Administrator Preparedness Survey*, was sent to 600 randomly selected members of the NASSP. The survey consisted of two main sections. The first section requested demographic data, while the second section investigated perceived level of preparedness for administrative work in the areas of educational leadership characteristics that included vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context. The electronic survey did not produce an adequate response. A paper version of the survey was sent to all 600 potential respondents, followed by a second mailing, and a third mailing of a reminder postcard.

The data collected were analyzed using SPSS 17.0 data analysis software. The educational leadership characteristic variables vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context were compared for differences in means with the variable preparation program type using the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) in SPSS. Additionally, the educational leadership characteristics variables were also compared for differences in relation to the additional demographic data obtained in section one of the survey.

### **Summary of Findings**

The variables of preparation program type that included university-based, district-based, third-party professional development organizations, and partnership programs were compared for differences in means to the respondent's perceived level of preparation for the educational leadership characteristic variables that encompassed vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context. When compared for differences in means, one research question produced a significant result. The question addressing developing and implementing a school vision produced a significant difference. Respondents prepared by partnership programs felt more

prepared in the area of vision. When comparing the educational leadership characteristic variables to additional demographic variables one significant ancillary finding was produced. When the variables of management and years of administrative experience were compared for differences, a significant difference was found. An additional ancillary finding was the positive perception of traditionally prepared administrators of their preparation.

### ***Vision***

#### **Q1: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to develop and implement a school vision and his/her preparation program type?**

Educational leaders should be able to develop and implement a school vision (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). The ISLLC Standards (2008) performance expectations proclaim that administrators "...ensure the achievement of all students by guiding the development and implementation of a shared vision of learning, strong organizational mission, and high expectations for every student" (p. 13). This research study found that preparation program type influenced the perceived level of preparedness to develop and implement a school vision. When compared for differences in means using ANOVA, a statistically significant difference was revealed. Respondents prepared by partnership programs felt more prepared to develop and implement a school vision than those prepared by university-based programs. The number of respondents prepared by other program types was too low to be statistically analyzed.

## *Culture*

### **Q2: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to promote a positive school culture and his/her preparation program type?**

Educational leaders should be able to advocate, nurture, and sustain a school culture and instructional program that is conducive to student learning and promotes staff professional growth (Consortium, Interstate School Leaders Licensure, 1996; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). A strong school culture fosters all components of the instructional system including staff professional growth, curriculum, instructional materials, pedagogy, and student assessment (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). School administrators must be instructional leaders and foster a school culture that facilitates a focus on teaching and learning. When preparation program type was compared for differences in means for school culture, a statistically significant difference was not found.

## *Management*

### **Q3: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to manage the organization and his/her preparation program type?**

Educational leaders should be able to manage the organization, operations, and resources within the school (Consortium, Interstate School Leaders Licensure, 1996; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). School administrators must supervise continuous management structures and practices that enhance teaching and learning, maintain infrastructure for finance and personnel in support of student success, and address potential challenges to the physical and emotional safety and security of staff and students (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). When

preparation program type was compared for differences in means for management, a statistically significant difference was not found.

### ***Collaboration***

**Q4: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to collaborate with families and community members and his/her preparation program type?**

School administrators should collaborate with faculty and community members, respond to diverse community interests, and mobilize community resources (Consortium, Interstate School Leaders Licensure, 1996; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). Successful collaboration is achieved by meeting diverse community interests and needs by utilizing stakeholder resources to positively affect student and adult learning (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). When preparation program type was compared for differences in means for collaboration, a statistically significant difference was not found.

### ***Integrity***

**Q5: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to act in an ethical manner and his/her preparation program type?**

Educational leaders should conduct themselves with integrity, fairness, and act in an ethical manner (Consortium, Interstate School Leaders Licensure, 1996; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). School administrators should model personal and professional ethics, integrity, justice, and fairness, demonstrate respect and provide equitable treatment for the interests of diverse stakeholders, and develop lifelong learning strategies related to content, standards, assessment, data, teacher support, evaluation, and professional development (The State Consortium on



Education Leadership, 2008). When preparation program type was compared for differences in means for integrity, a statistically significant difference was not found.

### *Context*

**Q6: Do significant differences exist in a school administrator's perceived ability to understand the larger, social, political, economic, legal, and cultural context of schools and his/her preparation program type?**

School leaders should understand, respond to, and influence the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context (Consortium, Interstate School Leaders Licensure, 1996; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2002; The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). Administrators contribute to the context of the educational system by participating and exerting professional influence in local and larger educational policy environments; supporting excellence and equity in education; and collaborating with policy makers to improve education (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). When preparation program type was compared for differences in means for integrity, a statistically significant difference was not found.

### **Ancillary Findings**

In addition to the demographic variable of preparation program type, the variables of sex, age, administrative position, years of administrative experience, and total years of educational experience were compared for statistically significant differences for the means of the six educational leadership characteristic sub-sections individually using ANOVA. Only one of the six sub-sections organized by the educational leadership characteristic variables of vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context produced a statistically significant difference. When the variables of management and years of administrative experience were

compared for differences in means, a statically significant difference was produced. This indicated statistically significant differences in an administrator's number of years of administrative experience and their perceived preparation to manage the organization.

A second ancillary finding was in the area university-based principal preparation programs. A portion of the academic literature on principal preparation provides a negative perspective of traditional preparatory methods. The university prepared respondents to this survey provided an average Likert scale response of 6.41 on a scale of 1 to 10 for the educational leadership characteristics of vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context. This score indicated a positive view of university-based preparation by the survey respondents, contrary to the findings in the literature.

### **Conclusions and Discussion**

The role of the modern principal has increasingly become more complex placing greater pressure on preparation programs. Effective principals must be skilled instructional leaders, change initiators, managers, personnel directors, problem solvers, and visionaries (Blase & Kirby, 2000; Hale & Moorman, 2003). These complex roles and responsibilities have facilitated the need and creation of National Standards for Educational Leadership. The literature guided experts to identify six fundamental educational leadership characteristics including vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context that would become the foundation of the National Standards (The State Consortium on Education Leadership, 2008). The standards created by the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium in 1996 and revised in 2008, and the Educational Leadership Constituent Council in 2002 are based on the same fundamental educational leadership principles (Murphy, 2005; Wiedmer, 2007; Wilmore, 2002).

The focus on principal preparation has intensified the development of innovations in both leadership development and program structures. The curriculum of principal preparation programs should reflect the current research on educational leadership, management, and instructional leadership (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). Principals of 21<sup>st</sup> century schools must be able to lead instruction, manage an organization that demands and support excellent teaching by staff and dedicated learning by students and, connect exterior stakeholders and their resources to the school and education of children (Hale & Moorman, 2003). In an effort to meet this pressure, traditional and alternative methods of preparation are competing to prepare aspiring principals for future positions of educational leadership. In the last few years, there has been a “literal explosion” of new administrative preparation programs both in and outside of the university context (Young & Creighton, 2002). A exhaustive review of the literature produced four categories of preparation program types including (a) university-based programs, (b) district-based programs, (c) third-party professional development organization programs, and (d) partnership programs (Barbour, 2005; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003).

The data collected for this study revealed that 273 of the 295 respondents (92.5%) were prepared by university-based programs, 16 (5.5%) were prepared by partnership programs, and 5 (2%) were prepared by other methods. These data suggest that if large numbers of new program types exist, significant numbers of individuals prepared by these method are not practicing school administrators, are not members of the NASSP, or simply chose not to reply to the survey.

One research question produced a significant difference. A difference in means was found when comparing preparation program type to the educational leadership characteristics.

Respondents prepared by partnership programs felt more prepared to develop and implement a school vision than those prepared by university-based programs. This difference is likely because of the partnership program's close relationship between the district and the university and their strong preparation focus on creating and implementing the district or school level vision.

In addition to the research questions, one ancillary finding was found when comparing variables. The additional demographic variables including sex, age, administrative position, years of administrative experience, and total years of educational experience were compared for statistically significant differences in the means for the six educational leadership characteristics. When the variables of management and years of administrative experience were compared for differences in means, a statistically significant difference was produced. This finding suggested the administrator's number of years of administrative experience influenced their perceived ability to manage the organization. It is the conviction of the researcher that the years of experience yielded management expertise and is doubtful to have a relationship with level of preparation; this finding was not related to preparation or program type, but the level of experience of the administrator.

A second ancillary finding was in the area of university-based principal preparation programs. A portion of the academic literature provided a negative view of traditional university-based principal preparatory programs. Murphy (2007) asserted universities have historically constructed their principal preparation programs on the foundation of theory and have marginalized practice. Universities have traditionally concentrated on introducing potential administrators to the latest trends and theories in educational leadership, but have failed to provide practical skills for applying that knowledge in the real world (Peel, Buckner, Wallace, Wrenn, & Evans, 2005). Hall (2006) proclaimed that traditional models of principal preparation

delivered packaged and abstract learning, were disconnected from the realities of public schools, and were not sufficient to prepare educational leaders for the organizational complexities modern principals face. The results of this study contradict this literature. The average Likert scale score for respondents prepared by traditional methods was 6.41 on a scale of 1 to 10 for each. This score indicated a positive view of university-based preparation by the respondents to this survey.

The lack of additional statistically significant differences within the research questions or ancillary comparisons may be a reflection of the continuity in the demographics of the respondents. The 295 respondents included 199 (68%) males, 170 (58%) were age 49 or over, 279 (95%) principals and 273 (93%) prepared by university-based programs. This sample was drawn from more than 30,000 members of the NASSP. It is the conclusion of the researcher that the age range of the membership role of the NASSP had a direct influence on the respondent's preparation program type. Only 12% of the membership is under 42 years of age, with 53% being over the age of 52. When these respondents were prepared for the principalship, alternative programs did not exist. There are approximately 31,000 middle schools and high schools in the United States. It is the belief of the researcher that the current membership of the NASSP provided adequate representation of the national population of school administrators.

### **Implications**

The largest complication of this study is the lack of respondents from the alternative forms of preparation program types imply that few practicing administrators were prepared by alternative methods. Alternative programs can be defined as other than university-based including district-based programs, third-party professional development organization programs, and partnership programs. This research did not support an existence of large numbers of alternative methods of principal preparation as indicated in the literature. If these programs exist,

the individuals prepared by these means chose not to reply to the survey, are not practicing administrators or do not join the NASSP. It also important to recognize the age of the membership role of the NASSP, 53% are over the age of 52. Alternative forms of preparation did not exist when most of these administrators were prepared.

A second outcome of this research was the significant difference for the variable of vision. When the mean vision scores for respondents prepared by university-based programs were compared to those prepared by partnership programs, a statistically significant difference was found. Partnership programs consist of programs provided in a collaborative effort between universities, districts, and/or third-party organizations. Partnership programs between stakeholders most often include universities in collaboration with school districts. (Barbour, 2005; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003). This finding implies a collaborative effort between the university and district better prepare principals in the area of creating and implementing a vision.

A third implication of the study was university prepared respondent's positive view of their preparation. A portion of the academic literature is very negative when discussing the effectiveness of university-based preparatory programs. The average response on a ten-point Likert scale for traditionally prepared respondents in this study was 6.41. The results of this study imply educational leaders prepared by university-based programs feel adequately prepared for administrative work. This finding contradicts a portion of the academic literature.

The low number of respondents from alternative assessment licensure programs would suggest that researchers in the profession continue to study graduates of all types of programs in order to determine the best pathway for licensure. Additionally, professional education leadership associations like NASSP may want to target programs for alternatively prepared

individuals as they may not be taking advantage of the resources the associations deliver to their members.

### **Researcher Observations**

The original intent of this study was to compare respondent's preparation program type to their perceived level of preparation for administrative work for the six educational leadership characteristics of vision, culture, management, collaboration, integrity, and context. The literature suggested that large numbers of alternative preparatory programs exist. It was the belief of the researcher that the sample would provide a statistically significant representation of the four types of principal preparation programs found in the literature. A diverse representation of program type was not found with 92.5% of respondents prepared by traditional university-based preparation programs.

Several explanations may exist for the lack of representation of respondents to this study that were prepared by alternative preparatory programs. First, membership roles of service organizations including churches, Masonic lodges, and professional organizations such as the NASSP are dwindling nationally gaining little interest from younger generations. Second, the demographics of the membership role of the NASSP may be a factor with 53% of the members over the age of 52 and 88% of the membership 42 or older. Alternative means of preparation did not exist when these members were prepared. Lastly, individuals prepared by alternative means may choose not to join the NASSP or similar organizations. These individuals are often selected and prepared by districts and may focus on the mission and goals of their district placing little value on networking, research, or professional literature outside of their organization. The NASSP needs to pursue individuals prepared by alternative means for membership or seek to work with districts or other organizations that offer this type of preparation.

## **Recommendations**

1. Perform a study similar to this one with principals having five or less years of experience.
2. Further study of the existence, effectiveness and viability of alternative educational leadership preparation programs.
3. A study comparing the effectiveness of university-based programs that are established by institutions of higher education for completion of a master's degree in Educational Leadership and university-based principal licensure programs in addition to an existing master's degree in education from an accredited institution.
4. An exploration of additional variables that may influence an educational leader's perceived level of preparedness for administrative work.
5. A study similar to this one should be conducted with the membership of the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP).



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**APPENDIX A**  
**SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR PREPAREDNESS SURVEY**



# School Administrator Preparedness Survey

## Part A

Please mark or list the appropriate response below.

1. Sex	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <span><input type="checkbox"/> Male</span> <span><input type="checkbox"/> Female</span> </div>
2. Age	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <div style="width: 45%;"> <input type="checkbox"/> &lt; 30  <input type="checkbox"/> 37 – 42  <input type="checkbox"/> 49 – 54                 </div> <div style="width: 45%;"> <input type="checkbox"/> 31 – 36  <input type="checkbox"/> 43 – 48  <input type="checkbox"/> 55+                 </div> </div>
3. Current administrative position	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <span><input type="checkbox"/> Principal</span> <span><input type="checkbox"/> Assistant Principal</span> </div> <div style="margin-top: 10px;"> <input type="checkbox"/> Other              Specify _____         </div>
4. Number of years of administrative experience	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <div style="width: 45%;"> <input type="checkbox"/> 1 – 5  <input type="checkbox"/> 12 – 17  <input type="checkbox"/> 24 – 29                 </div> <div style="width: 45%;"> <input type="checkbox"/> 6 – 11  <input type="checkbox"/> 18 – 23  <input type="checkbox"/> 30+                 </div> </div>
5. Total number of years in the education field	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> <div style="width: 45%;"> <input type="checkbox"/> 1 – 5  <input type="checkbox"/> 12 – 17  <input type="checkbox"/> 24 – 29                 </div> <div style="width: 45%;"> <input type="checkbox"/> 6 – 11  <input type="checkbox"/> 18 – 23  <input type="checkbox"/> 30+                 </div> </div>
6. Preparation program type	<div style="margin-bottom: 10px;"> <input type="checkbox"/> <b>University-based – Established by higher education institutions for obtainment of a degree or licensure.</b> </div> <div style="margin-bottom: 10px;"> <input type="checkbox"/> <b>District-based – Operated by school districts and may include collaboration with a third party organization.</b> </div> <div style="margin-bottom: 10px;"> <input type="checkbox"/> <b>Third-party Professional Development Organization – Non-Profit, for-profit, or state-based alternative licensure programs.</b> </div> <div style="margin-bottom: 10px;"> <input type="checkbox"/> <b>Partnership Program – Consists of a collaborative effort between universities, districts, and/or third party organizations.</b> </div> <div> <input type="checkbox"/> Other              Specify _____         </div>

These questionnaire items are based on the *Performance and Expectations and Indicators for Education Leaders, An ISLLC-Based Guide to Implementing Leader Standards and a Companion Guide to the Educational Leadership Policy Standards: ISLLC 2008*. Each section will focus on one of the six education leadership characteristics identified by the standards.

Please rate the performance indicators below by how well prepared you were when beginning administrative work on a scale of 1 to 10:

## Part B

**Vision:** An education leader promotes 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 stake holders.

(1 = Not prepared 10 = Very Prepared)

**Rate (1-10)**

1. To use varied sources of information and analyze data about current practices and outcomes to shape a vision, mission, and goals with high, measurable expectations.	_____
2. To align the vision, mission, and goals to school, district, state, and federal policies.	_____
3. To incorporate diverse perspectives about vision, mission, and goals that are high and achievable for every student.	_____
4. To advocate for a specific vision of learning in which every student has equitable, appropriate, and effective learning opportunities and achieves at high levels.	_____
5. To establish, conduct, and evaluate processes used to engage staff and community in a shared vision, mission, and goals.	_____
6. To engage diverse stakeholders, including those with conflicting perspectives, in ways that build a shared commitment to a vision, mission, and goals.	_____
7. To develop shared commitments and responsibilities that are distributed among staff and the community for making decisions and evaluating outcomes.	_____
8. To communicate and act from a shared vision, mission, and goals to promote consistency.	_____
9. To advocate for the vision, mission, and goals to provide equitable, appropriate, and effective learning opportunities for every student.	_____
10. To use or develop data systems and other sources of information (e.g., test scores, teacher reports, student work) to identify strengths and weaknesses of students.	_____
11. To make decisions informed by data, research, and best practices to shape plans, programs, and activities.	_____
12. To use data to determine effective change strategies, engaging staff and community stakeholders.	_____

13. To identify and remove barriers to achieving the vision, mission, and goals.	_____
14. To incorporate the vision and goals into planning (e.g., strategic plan, school improvement plan), change strategies, and instructional programs.	_____
15. To obtain and align resources (such as learning technologies, staff, time, funding, materials, and training) to achieve the vision, mission, and goals.	_____
16. To revise plans, programs, and activities based on systematic review of progress toward the vision, mission, and goals.	_____
<b>Part C</b>	
<b>Culture:</b> 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.	
(1 = Not prepared 10 = Very Prepared)	<b>Rate (1-10)</b>
1. To develop shared commitment to high expectations for students and closing the achievement gap.	_____
2. To guide and support standards-based professional development that improves teaching and learning and meets diverse needs of every student.	_____
3. To model openness to change and collaboration that improves practices and student outcomes.	_____
4. To develop time and resources to build a professional culture of openness and collaboration, engaging teachers in sharing information, analyzing outcomes, and planning improvement.	_____
5. To provide support, time, and resources for leaders and staff to examine their own beliefs and practices in relation to the vision and goals of teaching and learning.	_____
6. To provide ongoing feedback using data, assessments, and evaluation methods that improve practice.	_____
7. To guide and monitor individual professional development plans and progress for continuous improvement of teaching and learning.	_____
8. To develop a shared understanding of rigorous curriculum and standards-based instructional practices, working with teams to analyze student work and student achievement, and redesign instructional programs to meet diverse needs.	_____
9. To provide coherent, effective guidance of rigorous curriculum and instruction, aligning content standards with teaching and learning.	_____
10. To provide and monitor effects of different teaching strategies, curricular materials, technologies, and other resources appropriate to address diverse student needs.	_____

11. To identify and use high-quality research and data-based strategies that are appropriate in the local context to increase learning for every student.	_____
12. To develop and appropriately use aligned, standards-based accountability data to improve the quality of teaching and learning.	_____
13. To use varied sources and kinds of information and assessments to evaluate student learning and effective teaching.	_____
14. To guide regular analyses and disaggregation of data about students to improve instructional programs.	_____
15. To use effective data-based technologies to monitor and analyze assessment results for accountability reporting and to guide continuous improvement.	_____
16. To interpret data and communicate progress toward vision, mission, and goals for educators, the school community, and other stakeholders.	_____

#### Part D

**Management:** An education leader promotes the success of every student by ensuring the management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.

(1 = Not prepared 10 = Very Prepared)

	<b>Rate (1-10)</b>
1. To use effective tools such as problem-solving skills and knowledge of strategic, long-range, and operational planning to continuously improve the operational system.	_____
2. To maintain the physical plant for safety and other access issues to support learning for every student.	_____
3. To develop and facilitate communication and data systems that assure a timely flow of information.	_____
4. To oversee acquisition and maintenance of equipment and effective technologies, particularly to support teaching and learning.	_____
5. To distribute and oversee responsibilities for leadership of operational systems.	_____
6. To evaluate and revise processes to continuously improve the operational system.	_____
7. To operate within budget and fiscal guidelines and direct them effectively toward teaching and learning.	_____
8. To allocate funds based on student needs within a framework of federal and state rules.	_____
9. To align resources (such as time, people, space, and money) to achieve the vision and goals.	_____

10. To implement practices to recruit and retain highly qualified personnel.	_____
11. To assign personnel to address diverse student needs, legal requirements, and equity goals.	_____
12. To conduct personnel evaluation processes that enhances professional practice, in keeping district and state policies.	_____
13. To seek and secure additional resources needed to accomplish the vision and goals.	_____
14. To advocate for and create collaborative systems and distributed leadership responsibilities that support student and staff learning and well-being.	_____
15. To involve stakeholders in developing, implementing, and monitoring guidelines and norms for accountable behavior.	_____
16. To develop and monitor a comprehensive safety and security plan.	_____

## Part E

**Collaboration:** An education leader promotes the success of every student by collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interest and needs, and mobilizing community resources.

(1 = Not prepared 10 = Very Prepared)

**Rate (1-10)**

1. To bring together the resources of schools, family members, and community to positively affect student and adult learning, including parents and guardians.	_____
2. To involve families in decision making about their children's education.	_____
3. To use effective public information strategies to communicate with families and community members (such as email, night meetings, and written materials).	_____
4. To apply communication and collaboration strategies to develop family and local community partnerships.	_____
5. To develop comprehensive strategies for positive community and media relations.	_____
6. To identify key stakeholders and be actively involved within the community, including working with community members and groups that have conflicting perspectives.	_____
7. To use appropriate assessment strategies and research methods to understand and accommodate diverse student and community conditions and dynamics.	_____
8. To seek out and collaborate with community programs serving students with special needs.	_____
9. To capitalize on diversity (such as cultural, ethnic, racial, economic, and special interest groups) as an asset of the school community to strengthen educational programs.	_____

10. To demonstrate cultural competence in sharing responsibilities with communities to improve teaching learning.	_____
11. To link to and collaborate with community agencies for health, social, and other services to families and children.	_____
12. To develop mutually beneficial relationships with business, religious, political, and service organizations to share school and community resources (such as buildings, playing fields, parks, and medical clinics).	_____
13. To use public resources and funds appropriately and effectively.	_____
14. To secure community support to sustain existing resources and add new resources that address emerging student needs.	_____

#### Part F

**Integrity:** An education leader promotes the success of every student by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.

(1 = Not prepared 10 = Very Prepared)

**Rate (1-10)**

1. To model personal and professional ethics, integrity, justice, and fairness and expect the same from others.	_____
2. To protect the rights and appropriate confidentiality of students and staff.	_____
3. To behave in a trustworthy manner, using professional influence and authority to enhance education and the common good.	_____
4. To demonstrate respect for the inherent dignity and worth of each individual.	_____
5. To model respect for diverse community stakeholders and treat them equitably.	_____
6. To demonstrate respect for diversity by developing cultural competency skills and equitable practices.	_____
7. To assess personal assumptions, values, beliefs, and practices that guide improvement of student learning.	_____
8. To use a variety of strategies to lead others in safely examining deeply held assumptions and beliefs that may conflict with vision and goals.	_____
9. To respectfully challenge and work to change assumptions and beliefs that negatively affect students, educational environments, and student learning.	_____
10. To reflect on your own work, analyze strengths and weaknesses, and establish goals for professional growth.	_____

11. To model lifelong learning by continually deepening understanding and practice related to content, standards, assessments, data, teacher support, evaluation, and professional development strategies.	_____
12. To develop and use understanding of educational policies such as accountability to avoid expedient, inequitable, or unproven approaches that meet short term goals (such as raising test scores).	_____
13. To help educators and the community understand and focus on vision and goals for students within political conflicts over educational purposes and methods.	_____
14. To sustain personal motivation, optimism, commitment, energy, and health by balancing professional and personal responsibilities and encouraging similar action by others.	_____

## Part G

**Context:** An education leader promotes the success of every student by understanding, responding to, and influencing the political, social, economic, legal and cultural context.

(1 = Not prepared 10 = Very Prepared)

**Rate (1-10)**

1. To facilitate constructive discussions with the public about federal, state, and local laws, policies, and regulations affecting continuous improvement of educational programs and outcomes.	_____
2. To actively develop relationships with a range of stakeholders and policymakers to identify, respond to, and influence issues, trends, and potential changes that affect the context and conduct of education.	_____
3. To advocate for equity and adequacy in providing for students' families educational, physical, emotional, social, cultural, legal, and economic needs, so every student can meet educational expectations and policy goals.	_____
4. To operate consistently to uphold and influence federal, state, and local laws policies, regulations, and statutory requirements in support of every student learning.	_____
5. To collect and accurately communicate data about educational performance in a clear and timely way, relating specifics about the local context to improve policies and inform progressive political debates.	_____
6. To communicate effectively with key decision makers in the community and in broader political contexts to improve public understanding of federal, state, and local laws, policies, regulations, and statutory requirements.	_____
7. To advocate for increased support of excellence and equity in education.	_____
8. To build strong relationships with the school board, district and state education leaders to inform and influence policies and policymakers in the service of children and their families.	_____

9. To support public policies that provide for present and future needs of children and families and improve equity and excellence in education.	_____
10. To advocate for public policies that ensure appropriate and equitable human and fiscal resources and improve student learning.	_____
11. To work with community leaders to collect and analyze data on economic, social, and other emerging issues that impact district and school planning, programs, and structures.	_____

Thank you for completing this survey in an effort to provide information about preparedness and principal preparation program type. Please return this survey in the self addressed stamped envelope as soon as possible to make a contribution to this important research.



**APPENDIX B**  
**SURVEY PILOT GROUP**

### **Participants in Pilot Study**

Lynn Bayle, Assistant Principal  
Princeton Middle School  
Princeton, West Virginia

Danny Buckner, Principal  
Princeton Middle School  
Princeton, West Virginia

Lori Comer, Principal  
Whitethorn Primary School  
Bluefield, West Virginia

Steve Comer, Principal  
Glenwood School  
Glenwood, West Virginia

Kristal Filipek, Principal  
Sun Valley Elementary School  
Lerona, West Virginia

**APPENDIX C**  
**INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT OF EMAILS**

## **Introductory Statement for Emails**

Dear Principal:

Did your preparation program adequately prepare you for your professional responsibilities? Researchers at Marshall University, in cooperation with NASSP, are exploring this question for different types of principal preparation programs, and they need your assistance.

Please provide your input by taking this brief survey:

[http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=zIL0uP9\\_2batvv\\_2ffYf6cyS9A\\_3d\\_3d](http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=zIL0uP9_2batvv_2ffYf6cyS9A_3d_3d)

The survey should take approximately 20 minutes to complete, and all responses will be confidential and reported only in the aggregate. If you have any questions regarding the research, feel free to contact Michael Cunningham in the Leadership Studies Program at Marshall University, 800-642-9842, ext. 61912, [mcunningham@marshall.edu](mailto:mcunningham@marshall.edu).

Sincerely,

Dick Flanary

Senior Director for Leadership Programs and Services

**APPENDIX D**  
**COVER LETTER FROM FIRST MAILING**



Graduate College  
School of Education & Professional Development  
Office of Doctoral Programs

February 9, 2009

Dear fellow school administrator and NASSP member:

I appreciate your taking time from your important and challenging career to provide assistance to me as I complete my dissertation at Marshall University.

Did your preparation program adequately prepare you for your professional responsibilities? The purpose of this research project is to investigate the disparity in the academic literature on principal preparation programs by determining if practicing principals feel their preparation program type adequately prepared them for their professional responsibilities. This research will provide the opportunity to determine if differences exist in principals' perceived level of preparation for administrative work in relation to preparation program type.

Your participation is vital to the success of this study and is entirely voluntary. You have the right to not respond to every question. You have the right to withdraw from the study without penalty. All individual responses will be kept anonymous. Completing the questionnaire constitutes your consent to participate.

If you complete the survey electronically, please return the self-addressed stamped envelope to be exempt from future mailings. I encourage you to complete the survey online. You can access the survey directly at the following address:

[http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=zIL0uP9\\_2batvv\\_2ffYf6cyS9A\\_3d\\_3d](http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=zIL0uP9_2batvv_2ffYf6cyS9A_3d_3d).

The survey should take approximately 20 minutes to complete. I have also enclosed a paper copy of the survey and a stamped return envelope if you prefer this method.

If you have any questions regarding the research, feel free to contact Dr. Michael Cunningham in the Leadership Studies Program at Marshall University by calling 800.642.9842 ext. 61912 or by email to [mcunningham@marshall.edu](mailto:mcunningham@marshall.edu), or Ernie Adkins, at 304.898.3731 or [adkins262@marshall.edu](mailto:adkins262@marshall.edu). If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, please contact the Office of Research Integrity at Marshall University at 304.696.7320. Thank you again for your participation.

Sincerely,

Ernie Adkins

**APPENDIX E**  
**COVER LETTER FOR SECOND MAILING**



Graduate College  
School of Education & Professional Development  
Office of Doctoral Programs

March 2, 2009

Dear fellow school administrator and NASSP member:

You recently received a copy of a questionnaire that I am using to gather information for my doctoral dissertation on the important topic of the effectiveness of principal preparation programs for administrative work. If you have already responded, thank you and please disregard this request and return the self-addressed stamped envelope to be removed from any future mailings.

If not, please take a few minutes to complete the survey now. You may complete the enclosed paper copy or, if you prefer an electronic method, the survey can be accessed at:  
[http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=zLL0uP9\\_2batvv\\_2ffYf6cyS9A\\_3d\\_3d](http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=zLL0uP9_2batvv_2ffYf6cyS9A_3d_3d)  
I realize this address is cumbersome to type. If you prefer, I will email you a hot hyperlink to easily access the questionnaire. You can reach me at [adkins262@marshall.edu](mailto:adkins262@marshall.edu) and I will email the link to you.

I appreciate your taking time from your important and challenging career to provide assistance to me as I complete my dissertation at Marshall University. I believe your input and this research will benefit our profession and education in general. Thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

Ernie Adkins



**APPENDIX F**  
**IRB APPROVAL LETTER**



www.marshall.edu

Office of Research Integrity  
Institutional Review Board

Friday, October 24, 2008

Michael Cunningham, Ed.D.  
Leadership Studies  
MU Grad. School

RE: IRB Study # EX08-0026 At: Marshall IRB 2

Dear Dr. Cunningham:

**Protocol Title:**

The Effectiveness of Principal Preparation Program Type for Administrative Work

**Expiration Date:** 10/23/2009

**Our Internal #:** 5339

**Type of Change:** (Other) exempted

**Expedited ?:** ☐

**Date of Change:** 10/24/2008

**Date Received:** 10/24/2008

**On Meeting Date:**

**Description:**

In accordance with 45CFR46.101(b)(2), the above study and informed consent were granted Exempted approval today by the Marshall University IRB#2 for the period of 12 months. The approval will expire 10/23/09. A continuing review request for this study must be submitted no later than 30 days prior to the expiration date. This study is for student Ernest Akins.

The purpose of this anonymous survey study is to investigate the disparity in the literature on principal preparation programs by determining if practicing principals feel their preparation program adequately prepared them for their professional responsibilities.

Respectfully yours,

Stephen D. Cooper, Ph.D.  
Marshall University IRB #2 Chairperson

**WE ARE... MARSHALL .**

421 11th Street, Suite 1400 • Huntington, West Virginia 25701 • Tel: (204)896-6330 for FAX #1 or (204)895-4933 for IRB #2 • [www.marshall.edu/oi](http://www.marshall.edu/oi)  
Admission: 1-800-456-6666 • 24-Hour Emergency: 204-896-6666 • 24-Hour Security: 204-896-6666

## **APPENDIX G**

### **IRB APPROVED INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT**

October 14, 2008

Dear School Administrator:

Please accept this invitation to participate in an important study. The purpose of this research project is to investigate the disparity in the academic literature on principal preparation programs by determining if practicing principals feel their preparation program type adequately prepared them for their professional responsibilities. This research will provide the opportunity to determine if differences exist in principals' perceived level of preparation for administrative work in relation to preparation program type.

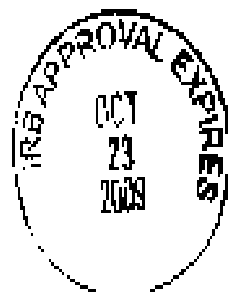
Your participation is vital to the success of this study and is entirely voluntary. You have the right to not respond to every question. You have the right to withdraw from the study without penalty. All individual responses will be kept anonymous. Completing the questionnaire constitutes your consent to participate.

Please complete the survey by clicking on the link provided below. The survey should take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

If you have any questions regarding the research study, feel free to contact Dr. Michael Cunningham in the Leadership Studies Program at Marshall University by calling 800.642.9842 ext. 61912 or by email to [mcunningham@marshall.edu](mailto:mcunningham@marshall.edu), or Ernie Adkins, at 304.898.3731 or [adkins262@marshall.edu](mailto:adkins262@marshall.edu).

If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, please contact the Office of Research Integrity at Marshall University at 304.696.7320. Thank you again for your participation.

Sincerely,



**MU IRB**

SDC

OCT 21

**APPROVED**

**APPENDIX H**  
**CURRICULUM VITAE**

**CURRICULUM VITAE**  
**ERNEST RUSSELL ADKINS**  
[eradkins@access.k12.wv.us](mailto:eradkins@access.k12.wv.us)

**EDUCATION**

Marshall University Graduate College  
**Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership, 2009**  
Marshall University Graduate College  
**Master of Arts in Leadership Studies, 2004**  
Concord University  
**Bachelor of Science in Education, 2000**

**CERTIFICATION**

State of West Virginia, Professional Teaching Certificate  
General Science, 5 – 12  
Biology, 9 – 12  
State of West Virginia, Professional Administrative Certificate  
Principal, PK – AD  
Supervisor General Instruction, PK – AD  
Superintendent, PK – AD

**PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE**

2008 – Present	Principal, Oakvale School, Oakvale, West Virginia
2005 – 2008	Assistant Principal, Princeton Middle School, Princeton, West Virginia
2000 – 2005	Teacher, Bluefield Middle School, Bluefield, West Virginia

**HONORS AND RECOGNITION**

2007 Distinguished Scholar, Principals Leadership Academy  
West Virginia Center for Professional Development