

AN ANALYSIS OF EARLY CAREER PRINCIPALS' EXPERIENCE WITH
INDUCTION PROGRAMS AND JOB SATISFACTION.

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ABSTRACT

In recent years there has been a greater emphasis on support, guidance and orientation programs for early career teachers, referred to as induction programs. Though on a smaller scale, similar induction programs have been implemented for early career principals as well. This study provides information on whether such programs have a positive impact on the satisfaction levels of early career principals. The emphasis is placed on mentoring programs but also features several types of induction components including university programs, collaboration, research projects, networking and attendance/presentations at workshops and conferences.

The data used in the analysis are from the nationally representative 2003-2004 Schools and Staffing Survey, conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics. Findings show a high correlation between satisfaction levels of early career principals and the poverty levels and urbanicity (urban, suburban or rural) of school districts. More specifically, the study finds that principals in high poverty schools are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs if they took part in specific components of induction programs, namely participating in a network of principals and/or provided a mentor.

Considering the high attrition rate of principals in the United States, this research is significant in identifying possible relationships in job satisfaction and induction programs. Recent literature provided by the Kansas State Department of Education estimated that nearly 50% of the current principals in Kansas will be eligible for retirement within the next 5 years.

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When a friend and colleague of mine first mentioned that we should apply for admission to the doctoral program at the University of Kansas, I felt overwhelmed at first. Living two and a half hours from campus and already a principal working full-time, the task seemed daunting. When we were both accepted and granted leave from work by our superintendent, Dr. Dennis Wilson (a KU Ed.D graduate himself) for one afternoon each week to attend class, the overwhelming feeling turned to one of ambition and purpose. The first two people I would like to recognize are Dale May and Dennis Wilson for making this dream a reality.

I have enjoyed all of the classmates I have come in contact with over the years at the University of Kansas. They have all helped me grow professionally. Of all the connections made, one stands out above the rest. As everyone began to narrow down a focus for dissertation topic, I decided to finish with a topic that had been a theme throughout my classwork, principals as instructional leaders. This eventually brought me to principal induction programs -- training principals for this task. Gretchen Anderson also decided on a topic around the same time, she chose teacher induction programs. Since our themes had many of the same elements and we were both using similar data sets, we were able to work together and lend support to one another along the way. I would also like to thank Dr. Bruce Baker for help along the way understanding the data, and Dr. Mickey Imber for his encouragement to see the project through.

Of course I have to thank my parents. College was never looked at as an option for me, it was always a given I would attend. Once on my way, it seemed I was driven to go as far as I could. Something my dad always said when I was a child was that

sometimes I was never satisfied. I think he was right in a sense. That feeling of always wanting a little more than I had drove me to acquire all of the education that I could. As I look back now I owe both of my parents a great deal of gratitude for having so much confidence in me.

Though the dissertation and graduation from the University of Kansas should be the most important aspect of the program, for me it was not. Having my summers free I moved in with my cousin, Jason Keiter, who lived in the metro area, for the summer to be closer to campus. Because of this move, I met someone who would change my life forever. If not for enrolling in this coursework, I would not have met Jessica Eden. Married now for three and a half years, Jessica has been a source of encouragement throughout this entire process.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The demand for accountability and measurable results in student achievement has placed school-level leadership at the forefront for ensuring that all students are successful. As the significance of school principals' role is heightened, the policies and procedures regarding principals are gaining greater attention. The essential role of the principal is highlighted by Leithwood, Seashore, Louis, Anderson and Wahlstrom (2004), who state, "Leadership is second only to classroom instruction among all school-related factors that contribute to what students learn at school." (p. 7)

Instructional leadership can be an enormous challenge for a new administrator. Traditional pre-service educational programs do not always adequately prepare candidates for the principalship. "Central office administrators and local school board members are much less tolerant of errors and poor performance than ever before" (Daresh, 2004). New legislation and some national principals' organizations have called for induction programs for novice principals that include mentoring (ERS, 2000). The first states to create mandatory mentoring programs for beginning educational administrators were California, North Carolina, and Ohio. Each state had its own individual policy for each district to follow. In each of these programs, experienced administrators who had been deemed successful by their superintendents were identified to work with new administrators. Daresh and Playko (1993) believe that the use of such mentors is an effective tool for bringing about successful school practices. Additionally,

they view the structured mentoring program as a very effective tool in helping both women and minority administrators transition into leadership roles more smoothly.

The Kansas State Department of Education reported in 2007 that 50% of principals will be eligible for retirement within the next five years. In 2000, Blackman and Fenwick reported that according to the U.S. Department of Labor, 40% of the country's 93,200 principals are nearing retirement. A study released by the National Association of Elementary School Principals and the National Association of Secondary School Principals also shows an increased need for principals in the years to come. The study suggests that nearly half of urban, suburban and rural districts, and more than half of elementary, middle and high schools reported a shortage of principal candidates.

In recent years, a greater emphasis has been placed on support, guidance, and orientation programs for early career teachers, programs referred to as induction programs. Similar induction programs have been implemented for early career principals as well, though on a much smaller scale. These programs have begun to include mentors as one component of the induction process. Typically, mentors are practicing administrators within the district in which the candidate works, though other models are used. Most programs ask the mentor and mentee to make a mutual commitment to work collaboratively toward the accomplishment of an individually tailored professional development plan (Daresh, 2004). The Danforth Foundation announced its support of innovative principal preparation programs at universities across the nation in 1986 (Daresh and Playko). Although the programs supported by this foundation differed, each included a mentoring component.

Little research is available regarding principals' experience with induction programs using large-scale data sources. Of the studies conducted on a smaller scale (typically district, region, or state), the general themes that emerge include the specific components of specific induction programs, the existence of board or state policy regarding induction program components, and the role higher education plays in offering these services. Focusing on specific programs in isolated pockets makes generalization difficult.

1.2 Research Question

This dissertation answers the questions surrounding the types of induction components available to early career principals (principals in their first five years of leadership). This dissertation also identifies individual state policies regarding induction programs for new principals. In addition, this dissertation determines the level of job satisfaction of early career principals engaged in induction programs.

The five major research questions of this study are:

1. How widespread are principal induction programs across the nation?
2. How many beginning principals participate in various kinds of induction and mentoring activities?
3. What are the effects of different kinds of mentoring and induction activities on the likelihood that beginning principals will be satisfied with their jobs?
4. Is there a correlation between induction programs and the urbanicity of a school district regarding job satisfaction?

1.3 Significance

This dissertation seeks to present findings that will inform educational policy leaders, university leadership programs, and school district level personnel to help them understand the impact of induction strategies for early career principals on levels of job satisfaction.

Many research studies strongly maintain that the leadership of the school principal has a direct impact on the climate and student achievement of the building. School leadership was one of three major factors when determining school climate, as noted by Taylor and Tashakkori (1994). Study after study over the years has underscored the impact of a healthy school climate on student achievement (Bulach & Malone, 1994; Newman & Associates, 1996; Winter & Sweeney, 1994; Paredes & Frazer, 1992; Borger, Lo, Oh, & Wahlberg, 1985). This focus on school leadership has resulted in a re-examination of the processes for recruiting and retaining quality leaders in public schools where growing expectations have been placed on principals (Olson, 2000). Another area of significance is that of actual monetary loss relative to principal turnover. For example, a low estimate of the cost to replace a classroom teacher is 25% of the teacher's salary (Webb & Norton, 1999). This could result in \$7,000 for a beginning teacher with a salary of \$28,000. The best estimates for replacing a mid-management administrator is considerably higher, at approximately \$25,000 (Webb & Norton, 1999).

The U.S. Department of Labor estimates that 40% of the United States' 93,200 principals are nearing retirement (Blackman & Fenwick, 2000). Similarly, a study completed for the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP)

reported a turnover rate for elementary school principals of 42% during the preceding ten-year period (Educational Research Service, 2000). Another study conducted for the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) showed a 50% turnover rate for high school principals during the 1990s. In Vermont, 20% of the school principals retired in 2000, with Washington State losing 15% of its principals in the same year (Steinberg, 2000). In a study of elementary and secondary principals in Arizona, 30% of the participants stated that their future plans were to remain in the position; however, 30% planned to retire early, and another 30% were looking to move out of the principalship to a different administrative position in education. Another 10% planned to leave the principalship altogether for a position outside of education (Norton, 2001).

This finding supports the data of a study of school superintendents by Whitaker (2001) in which the participants indicated a “somewhat extreme” or “extreme” shortage of principal candidates. In the study, 90% of the superintendents rated the principal shortage a substantial problem. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (as quoted in Whitaker, 2001) has reported that a growing number of school districts across the country are experiencing a depleted pool of qualified candidates for available school leadership positions. Echoing this sentiment is the Educational Research Service (ERS), which conducted a national survey to determine school districts’ perceptions of the quality of current applications. The ERS survey, *Is There a Shortage of Qualified Candidates for Openings in the Principalship? An Exploratory Study*, found that districts perceived that the quality of current applicants for school leadership positions to be declining and that highly qualified candidates would become more difficult to find in the future (Educational Research Service, 2001).

The respondents to the ERS survey stated that they felt the job of school leadership was simply too stressful (ERS, 2001). Today's educational leader faces a growing list of demands that range from state mandates to improve schools to increased teacher, parent, and community expectations to lead schools successfully through high stakes testing (Olson, 2000). Over the past two decades, principals have reported increased levels of exhaustion, resulting in declining physical and mental health. Some researchers have theorized that a lack of experience can lead to higher levels of stress because one may lack the skills needed to cope with the demands of the job (Linthicum, 1994). Whitaker (2001) cited numerous researchers in claiming that the role of public school principal is among the most stressful in education. He also goes on to cite stress as a leading cause of attrition, job change, and difficulty attracting qualified applicants to fill vacant positions, particularly in low salary, low status areas, a finding confirmed in a study focusing on high poverty schools in North Carolina that found that turnover rates for principals were greater in high poverty schools versus low poverty schools (Clotfelter, Ladd, Vigdor, and Wheeler, 2006).

If induction programs do succeed in increasing the satisfaction rates of beginning principals, this could lead to a reduction in school staffing problems, which in turn could have a positive impact on school performance. My analysis is divided into two stages. The first stage presents descriptive data on induction, mentoring, and job satisfaction. I summarize descriptive data on the percentage of beginning principals participating in mentorship and induction programs, including the kinds of supports and components these programs typically include. Next, I show logistic regression models to present the data.

This study looks at induction programs and perceived job satisfaction of a cross-section of principals in their first five years of principalship in an early attempt to study and contribute to whether individual programs work or not. Based solely on this data alone, the study may not reveal causality but will provide insight for further research.

Considering the high attrition rate of principals in the United States, this research is significant in identifying possible relationships in job satisfaction and induction programs. This analysis allows for school districts to create or modify induction programs in an effort to increase retention rates among early career principals.

1.4 Limitations

The primary source for data used in this study is the National Center for Education Statistics' (NCES) Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), specifically data from the Principal Survey for the 2003-04 report. The overall objective of SASS is to collect information necessary for a complete representation of elementary and secondary education in the United States. This wealth of data allows detailed analyses of the characteristics of schools, principals, teachers, school libraries, and public school district policies. The 2003-04 SASS consisted of five types of questionnaires: a school district questionnaire, principal questionnaires, school questionnaires, teacher questionnaires, and a school library media center questionnaire. The SASS is administered roughly every four years (Tourkin, Parmer, Jackson, Zukerberg, Cox, and Soderborg, 2007). The greatest benefit of using a large-scale data source such as SASS is the ability to make generalizable assessments of whether induction and mentoring programs are associated with beginning principal job satisfaction. This is accomplished by controlling for some

key background characteristics of principals and their schools, such as the highest degree attained by the principal; whether the school was rural, urban, or suburban; whether the school was elementary, secondary, or combined; the gender of the principal; the age of the principal; the geographic region of the school; poverty level of the school; and the salary of the principal. However, importantly, SASS measures on principal induction and mentoring are limited in some important ways.

This analysis focuses on beginning principals, who are defined in this study as having fewer than five years of experience. In the 2003-04 SASS, approximately 8,100 principals were surveyed (excluding charter school principals), projecting to a total of 87,500 principals nationwide. This resulted in 3,222 principals with fewer than five years of experience as principal in any school. This analysis used data weighted to compensate for the over-and-under-sampling of the complex stratified survey design. A series of replicate weights must be implemented in each calculation through a procedure known as balanced repeated replication (brr), a statistical technique for estimating the sampling variability of a statistic obtained by stratified sampling, in order to generate appropriate estimates of standard errors.

This particular study does not attempt to break down the complex relationship between different components of induction programs or the quality of programs. The study does, however, provide preliminary evidence regarding the perceptions of early career principals associated with induction programs. With the descriptive findings herein, useful information will supply a basis to develop and understand approaches and policies related to induction programs for principals.

The study asks only if principal mentees participated in a mentor program; nothing was mentioned about the characteristics of the mentors or the means of their selection. Everston and Smithey (2000), have argued that one of the most important factors for program effectiveness is the skill and knowledge of the mentor. The mentor's knowledge of how to support new teachers and skill at providing guidance are also crucial. No detail was available as to the intensity, duration, or structure of the induction programs. Despite the possible limitations of the study, the results of this analysis are pertinent to policy makers, state departments of education, boards of education, higher education, and school administration, as well as to future researchers. Details regarding the benefit of induction programs for principals could lead to a substantial cost-savings for school districts and, more importantly, lead to increased student achievement by having a satisfied and effective principal.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

As reported in recent studies by Educational Research Services for the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) and the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) (2000), leadership development has reached a critical point. Due to the large number of retirements of school administrators and the impending shortage of qualified applicants with experience to move into the leadership positions, school districts across the United States are facing the challenge of recruiting and preparing increasing numbers of candidates for the administrative role (Hargreaves & Fink, 2004).

It is demonstrated in numerous studies (Ehrich, Hansford, & Tennent, 2003; Fullan, 1999; Lambert, 1998) that effective leaders, in order to meet the challenges and changing expectations for the administrator's role, particularly the aspiring school administrator, will need continued support and guidance to gain the knowledge and skills necessary to master the district and state requirements of school leadership. The research further states that today's principals are expected to face complex responsibilities and are held accountable for more than simply managing the school. Effective principals are expected to manage their buildings, be human resource administrators, change agents, visionaries, disciplinarians, cheerleaders, instructional leaders, and more. This need for high-quality candidates is heightened also because of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB)

act. NCLB is a federal initiative that mandates that school principals manage the instruction in their buildings to ensure student and school improvement.

Mentoring has gained increased credibility in the field of management as support and development strategies for administrators. The benefits of mentoring include better relationships with colleagues, increased job satisfaction (reported by 61% of companies), greater organizational commitment, and improvement of employee retention (HR Focus, September, 2001). This chapter will review the current status of induction programs and requirements across the United States as well as examine research into professional and organizational socialization as they relate to the development of instructional leadership.

2.2 Status of Induction Requirements

Most school districts have established formal mentoring programs for teachers; however, similar programs for early career principals are not as common. Currently, just over half of the states (26) require that principals complete an induction program (LeTendre, 2005a). Formal mentoring programs are growing and are beginning to be considered as key components of the new principal induction process (Daresh, 1995). Ohio, North Carolina and California were among the first states to create mandatory mentoring programs for beginning educational administrators. The most common aspect of these programs provides early career principals with a successful, experienced administrator as a mentor. Peggy Hopkins-Thompson describes common features of effective principal mentoring programs in *Making the Case for Principal Mentoring* (2003), published by the National Association of Elementary Principals (NAESP). These common features include:

1. Organizational support. Superintendents are critical to ensuring success for mentoring programs. Hopkins-Thompson found that mentors are more likely to schedule time with protégés if they know the organization values the practice.
2. Clearly defined outcomes. Principal mentoring programs must have clearly stated goals and detailed plans for knowledge and skills to be attained.
3. Screening, selection and pairing. Hopkins-Thompson found this phase to be critical. Mentors must be highly skilled in communicating, listening, analyzing, providing feedback and negotiating.
4. Adequate training. Training for mentors should build communication, needs analysis and feedback skills. Training for protégés should include strategies for needs analysis, self-development utilizing a professional growth plan and reflection.
5. Learner-centered focus. Feedback should focus on reflection, address that which the protégé can control and change, and be confidential and timely.

Many of Hopkins-Thompson's ideas are shared by other scholars in the field. Dick Weindling's *Innovation in Headteacher Induction* (2004), published for the National College for School Leadership, identified programs for new principals operating in different countries and described their structure and content to highlight good practice. These findings show that mentoring plays a vital role, particularly during the first year when principals want help and advice from the mentor about the initial problems they encounter. Weindling also states that careful consideration should be given to the

recruitment, training and support of the mentors themselves and that the mentors be experienced, practicing principals.

Daresh described effective mentoring programs for school leaders as powerful devices to help leaders develop new insights into the profession. He found that mentorships reduced isolation and helped to build a collegial network among professional colleagues, allowing the novice leader to achieve success rather than merely survive. Daresh also recommended several commonalities that effective principal mentoring programs must include. These include an investment in time and commitment from the mentor and principal, a willingness to share information and resources from both partners, and the creation of a mutually enhancing relationship where both parties actively participate.

Coleman (1996) wrote *Re-Thinking Training for Principals: The Role of Mentoring*, focusing on comparing the differences between mentoring models found in Singapore and the United Kingdom. The quantitative study was developed by the researcher and piloted with 13 respondents in Singapore and ten in the United Kingdom. The major contribution of this study was a very well developed survey that offered many ideas for replication. Questions were included on the personal and professional characteristics of the mentor, the nature and development of the relationship between mentor and protégé, the perceived benefits for the relationship for both parties as well as the educational system, and participants' understanding of the concept of mentoring and the problems associated with mentoring. A mentoring system for new principals in Singapore is well established and a compulsory aspect of their training. In England,

mentoring is a relatively new and voluntary process. Coleman explains that mentoring for new principals is not only a concern in the United States, but in other countries as well.

In a study of first-year principals in Alabama, Mississippi and South Carolina, Elsberry & Bishop (1993) identified thirteen induction practices considered by the principals to be the most effective for success in their new roles. The practices in rank order:

1. summer induction conference prior to first year (learning about the school without the stress of daily school responsibilities)
2. mentoring by veteran principal in the same school system (technical advice, help in learning and understanding the district's unwritten rules, or simply the provision of a confident person with whom the principal can discuss ideas and problems)
3. internship under another administrator
4. orientation by school district officers
5. orientation by out-going principal
6. development of a plan for professional growth
7. in-service workshops
8. professional needs assessment followed by seminars and training in areas of need
9. peer group problem-solving and idea sharing
10. mentoring by veteran principal outside the school system
11. collegial observation and reflective feedback
12. structured workload to allow time for induction activities
13. collegial support group

Many of these best-practices are repeated throughout the literature by principals. While there is little empirical evidence on how specific components influence leadership behaviors, on-the-job performance, or student outcomes, there is some promising research seeking to understand the outcomes of preparation. For example, a recent study found that principals who participated in a preparation program that is concept driven and cohort based and consists of a yearlong and carefully mentored field-based internship scored higher on the newly developed Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) performance assessment test, received higher performance evaluation ratings by supervisors, and were perceived by teachers as being more effective in managing their schools (Valentine, 2001).

2.3 Organizational Socialization of School Administrators

The professional life of a school administrator is filled with challenges, but perhaps a beginning administrator faces the most difficult challenge, according to Normore (2001). The principalship is unlike any other position in the education field. Principals typically move from classroom teacher to leader of a school. Owens (2001) defines organizations as social systems. An open system, such as a school, represents a “sub-system” of the organization (the district) as well as a part of the social system (local society) and the “supra-system” (in this case, the national society). Deming (1986) describes the organizational system as a network of interdependent components that work together to accomplish the goal of the system. According to Owens (2001), the term *social system* refers to the administrative functions of the organization.

Brouwers and Tomic (2002) contend that professional socialization in educational organizations has considerable impact on candidates of programs that focused on the development of both practical experience and theoretical study. Professional socialization of school leaders typically begins within the pre-appointment stages of leadership (Weindling & Earley, 1987) and entails an interactive process to gain the knowledge, skills, and behaviors necessary to gain acceptance into the group or profession.

The professional socialization experience is an interactive process that involves formal and informal preparation to gain membership into the profession. The induction process for school administrators occurs over a period of time (Hix, Wall, & Frieler, 2003). This process is intended to produce internal and external solutions for a novice group that works to teach new members the correct ways to perceive, think about, and feel in relation to the expected administrative performance (Assor & Oplatka, 2003). This process is important for developing the technical knowledge and skills that administrators require to be successful (Greenfield, 1985; Normore, 2002). According to Bloom (1956) and Siemens (2005), learning that creates associations and comes from experiences is difficult to achieve, but it is also very important and represents a higher order of learning.

The act of socialization involves many complex, cognitive processes. Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) and Vygotsky (1962) recommend the use of scaffolding, a learning strategy that provides extra support from mentors to reduce the complex tasks experienced by learners during this socialization period. Bennis (1999) and Merton (1968) believe that socialization includes the process by which administrators learn the skills, knowledge, and dispositions required to perform successfully in their roles. According to Bennis, this process of socializing behavior involves the acquisition of new

learning and is a key component in developing organizational behaviors. The process is designed for the individual to gain the newly acquired knowledge and behaviors necessary to perform the administrative functions deemed as effective by the organization.

Merton (1968) insists that socialization is a complex set of human relationships within an organization that includes people and relationships with others in the outside world of their social system. Merton believes that the socialization process has important implications for the organization as well as for the individual. Researchers support this idea and recommend that through the process of socialization, new members will be able to function at their highest potential so they can become fully functional members of the organization. Organizations often require participation in a prescriptive initial training program intended to promote commitment to organizational practices and procedures to achieve this goal (Reichers, Wanous, & Steele, 1998).

2.4 Instructional Leadership

The term instructional leadership was once used to describe building principals and their roles in creating and maintaining successful schools and individual teacher professional development. The role of the principal has been in a state of transition, progressing from the principal as master teacher to the principal as transactional leader and, most recently, to the role of transformational leader. Before the creation of many of the larger school districts, master teachers served as the head of a school while still teaching, devoting time before and after school to helping teachers. The transactional leader, the model used through the 1980's, conducted the principalship as a business and

dealt largely with managerial issues. Transformational leaders, which districts now must have to accomplish preset accountability standards, emphasize change through common commitment and mutual purpose of improving practices to benefit the group as a whole. These instructional leaders inspire teachers to go beyond meeting basic expectations through the use of empowerment and encouragement, creating conditions where all factions of the community desire to work to create situations leading to school improvement (Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood & Duke, 1999; Leithwood, et al., 2000). This trend has been largely influenced by research on effective schools.

Instructional leadership was found to be a major trait among principals in effective schools (Brookover and Lezotte, 1979). Studies show how crucial this role is for a principal in improving teaching and learning. Successful principals must know academic content and pedagogical techniques. Principals must also be able to work with teachers to strengthen skills and collect, analyze, and use data to help make instructional decisions. Gaining the support of students, teachers, parents, local agencies, businesses, and other community residents is another important priority for the principal if he/she is to be seen as an instructional leader. Fullan (1999) states, “The role of the principal has become dramatically more complex, overloaded and unclear over the past decade.” Schools are changing due, in part, to various pressures such as parent complaints about the quality of education, labor market demands, advances in technology, and the growing popularity in public school alternatives such as charter schools and vouchers for private education. In spite of these competing priorities, the top priority of the building principal must remain student learning. Everything that a principal does— creating a vision, setting goals, managing staff, inspiring the community, creating effective learning environments,

guiding instruction and so on—must be done in the interest of student learning. In order to accomplish this task, the building principal must decide if student learning is best achieved through management or leadership.

The literature regarding successful leadership frequently distinguishes between managers and leaders by stating that a manager does things right and a leader does the right things (Bennis, 1999). According to Podmostko (2000), for most of the last century being an effective building manager was good enough. Principals, for the most part, have primarily been expected to comply with district-level directives, address personnel issues, order supplies, balance program budgets, keep the school and grounds safe, put out public relations “fires”, and make sure busing and meal services operate smoothly. With today’s schools changing rapidly, principals in the coming decades will lead schools that are far different than those of today (Podmostko, 2000). Students will be more numerous and diverse, technology will play an increasing role in education. Perhaps most importantly, however, academic achievement will be the priority for professional accountability. Adding instructional leadership to the duties of the principal is not just adding more to an already full load; instructional leadership requires a different mindset.

The successful instructional leader makes learning the top priority of the school and attempts to deliver that vision to everyone in the learning community. “Researchers, policy makers and educational practitioners agree: good school principals are the keystone of good schools. Without the principal’s leadership, efforts to raise student achievement cannot succeed,” reports the Education Research Service (2000) regarding the importance of an instructional leader in the school. A leader is characterized as the vision holder, the keeper of the dream or the person who has a vision of the purpose of

the organization. Bennis (1999) believes that leaders are the ones who “manage the dream.” Leaders must have not only a vision but also the skills necessary to communicate that vision to others to develop a “shared covenant” (Sergiovanni, 1990). The successful principal will invite and encourage others to participate in determining and developing the vision. This vision should become the driving force of the principal, the faculty, and the school as a whole. Once his or her vision is developed, a principal’s job is to convey this vision to teachers, students, and parents. Because the interactions between teachers and students are critical, it is crucial that the principal be aware of this interaction and help to guide this for mastery learning.

In today’s world, effective principals are expected to be effective facilitators of learning to the teaching staff. They must be knowledgeable about curriculum development, teacher and instructional effectiveness, clinical supervision, staff development, and teacher evaluation. Findley and Findley (1997) state, “[I]f a school is to be an effective one, it will be because of the instructional leadership of the principal.” Flath (1989) concurs: “Research on effective schools indicate that the principal is pivotal in bringing about the conditions that characterize effective schools.” Ubben and Hughes (cited in Findley & Findley, 1992) state that “although the principal must address certain managerial tasks to ensure an efficient school, the task of the principal must be to keep focused on activities which pave the way for high student achievement.” The principals of tomorrow’s schools must be more than building managers; they must have the training, tools, and skills for leadership for student learning. Some of the recurring strategies of successful leaders are instructional focus, instructional evaluation, and monitoring of student progress (Daresh, 1997). Instructional focus behaviors demonstrated by effective

principals include support of teachers' instructional methods and their modifications to the approach or materials to meet students' needs, allocation of resources and materials and frequent visits to classrooms. Instructional evaluation includes making frequent visits to classrooms as well as soliciting and providing feedback on instructional methods and materials. It also includes using data to focus attention on ways to improve curriculum and instructional approaches and to determine staff development activities that strengthen teachers' instructional skills. When monitoring progress, effective principals focus on students' outcomes by leading faculty members to analyze student data, to evaluate curriculum and instructional approaches, and to determine appropriate staff development activities. The principal has to focus on activities that pave the way for high student achievement. Supporting teachers is a key element in this strategy. Programs that meet students' basic needs such as providing assistance in acquiring social and health services are equivalent to instructional leaders meeting teachers' basic instructional needs when they provide teachers with adequate and appropriate teaching materials. Instructional leaders meet teachers' professional needs with staff development in specific instructional areas. Teachers' affective needs can be met by building a sense of community when the principal includes faculty members in developing a "shared meaning" of the school's vision, mission, and goals. Block (1993) states, "Ownership resides with those who craft and create a vision, and with them alone."

An understanding of what the term *instructional leader* means and what leadership qualities are necessary to fulfill this role is required for principals to lead successful schools. Many writers use their own definitions, and meanings vary from one practitioner to another. Kroeze (cited in Flath, 1989) found that certain instructional

leadership activities could be grouped together. These typically include creating a vision and a supportive work environment within the school. Communication is also paramount among all stakeholders (teachers, students, and parents) for creating a positive learning environment.

The new emphasis on accountability for learning will drive the need for successful instructional leaders within our schools. Tomorrow's leaders must know not only how to run a school but, more importantly, how to engage teachers to embrace the concept that all students can learn and learn at high levels. Conveying this message is the top priority of the instructional leader. Through the use of learning communities, the principal can facilitate teams of teachers creating their own common vision. While successful instructional leaders must be knowledgeable about curriculum, effective pedagogical strategies, and assessment, they also need to be an instructional resource to the teachers. Principals should be well informed on current educational trends and effective instructional practices. By becoming a valuable instructional resource, principals now find themselves in a key role, that of a supporter of teachers and learning. The leader must now learn to meet the needs of the teachers in order to facilitate high learning success for all students. The top priority of the principalship must be leadership for learning. Therefore, our leaders need to be well informed to meet this challenge.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Data

The data for this study come primarily from NCES' nationally representative Schools and Staffing Survey, as indicated, as well as information specific to individual states regarding their principal induction program requirements. SASS is the largest and most comprehensive data source available on the staffing, occupational, and organizational aspects of elementary and secondary schools and was designed specifically to remedy the lack of nationally representative data on these issues (Haggstrom et al., 1998).

The U.S. Census Bureau collects the SASS data for NCES from a random sample of schools stratified by state, public/private sector, and school level. Each cycle of SASS included separate, but linked, questionnaires for administrators and for a random sample of teachers in each school.

This dissertation focuses on full-time beginning principals, as defined as those serving as public school lead principals for the first time and with fewer than five years of experience as of the 2003-04 school year (private and charter schools were omitted from this study since most are exempt from many state educational oversight). The sample is 3,222 new principals. This analysis uses data weighted to compensate for the over-and-under-sampling of the complex stratified survey design. Each observation is weighted by the inverse of its probability of selection in order to obtain unbiased estimates of the national population of principals in their first four years.

The following items are questions taken from the 2003-04 SASS survey taken by principals in their first five years of administration.

21. In the past 12 months, have YOU participated in the following kinds of professional development?
- a. University course(s) related to your role as principal?
 - b. Visits to other schools designed to improve your own work as principal?
 - c. Individual or collaborative research on a topic of interest to you professionally?
 - d. Mentoring and/or peer observation and coaching of principals, as part of a formal arrangement that is recognized or supported by the school or district?
 - e. Participating in a principal network (e.g., a group of principals organized by an outside agency or through the Internet)
 - f. Workshops, conferences, or training in which you were a presenter?

The data collected utilizing the SASS survey of 2003-04 relating to the above questions are used to tabulate all basic or cross statistical tabulations as well as logistic regressions.

3.2 Methods and Measures

This analysis is divided into two stages. The first stage presents descriptive data on induction and more specifically, mentoring of beginning principals. This will attempt to answer and/or lay a foundation for all of the research questions. The study begins by showing how widespread principal induction and mentoring programs are across the nation.

In the second stage, a multinomial logistic regression analysis of the impact of participation in mentorship and induction activities is presented. This presentation measures the impact of this participation on the likelihood that job satisfaction is increased. This analysis also measures whether participation in induction programs predicts a change in job satisfaction, expressly for principals of high poverty schools. Four different sets of predictors for these outcomes are: 1) principal characteristics; 2) school characteristics; 3) participation in mentor activities; and 4) participation in principal network opportunities. Figure 1 provides definitions for these variables. Table 1 provides mean principal and school characteristics associated with the principals in the sample.

Figure 1: Definitions of Measures used in the Analysis

Teacher Characteristics

- **Degree:** a categorical variable where 1 = less than a Bachelor's degree, 2 = Bachelor's degree, 3 = Master's Degree, 4 = EdS degree, and 5 = EdD or PhD.
- **Gender:** a dichotomous variable where 1 = Male and 2 = Female.
- **Salary:** a continuous variable measuring the principal's total yearly earnings from all school-related jobs.

School Characteristics

- **School Level:** a categorical variable where 1 = elementary school, 2 = secondary school, and 3 = a combined elementary/secondary school.
- **Urbanicity:** a categorical variable where 1 = an urban, inner-city school, 2 = suburban school on the fringe of a major metropolitan area, and 3 = a rural school.
- **Region:** a categorical variable where 1 = Southern U.S., 2 = Northeastern U.S., 3 = Midwestern U.S., and 4 = Western U.S.
- **Poverty:** percentage of students approved to receive free or reduced price lunches through the National School Lunch Program.

Induction Programs:

- **Had Mentor:** a dichotomous variable where 1 = had mentor and 0 = did not have a mentor.
- **Participated in Principals Network:** a dichotomous variable where 1 = participated in a principals' network and 0 = did not participate in a principals' network.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Variables Utilized in Multinomial Logistics Regression Analysis (Weighted)

<i>Teacher Characteristics</i>	Mean	Standard Error
<i>Degree</i>		
Bachelors	0.017	0.002
Masters	0.627	0.008
EdS	0.292	0.008
EdD or PhD	0.061	0.004
<i>Gender</i>		
Female	0.452	0.008
Male	0.547	0.008
Age	45.725	0.143
Salary	71145	290.929
<i>School Characteristics</i>		
<i>School Level</i>		
Elementary	0.622	0.016
Secondary	0.233	0.014
Combined	0.143	0.012
<i>Urbanicity</i>		
Urban	0.359	0.016
Suburban	0.277	0.015
Rural	0.362	0.016
<i>Region</i>		
South	0.493	0.017
Northeast	0.097	0.01
Midwest	0.132	0.011
West	0.276	0.015
Poverty	41.512	0.485
<i>Induction Programs</i>		
Had Mentor	42.8	0.008
Participated in Network	63.8	0.008

Control variables are included in the models for key characteristics of principals; highest degree earned, gender, and salary. Also included, as independent variables, are school characteristics typically found to be important in the literature: school level, urbanicity, region; school level, and the socio-economic status of the student population (as determined by free/reduced lunch participation). The following is a chart that briefly describes the main variables involved in the study.

Table 2: Additional Definitions of Measures Used

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Type</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>Range of Value</u>	<u>Operational Definition</u>
Job Satisfaction	Dependent	measure of individual principal satisfaction by answering question “like the district”	1=Strongly Agree, 2=Somewhat Agree, 3=Somewhat Disagree, 4=Strongly Disagree	Principal’s satisfaction with current job
<u>Principal Level</u>				
Principal assigned a mentor	Independent	Principal was assigned mentor, yes or no		
Principal participated in a networking program	Independent	Principal participated, yes or no		
Principal gender	Independent	Individual principal = M or F		
Principal ethnicity	Independent	Individual principal = Black, Hispanic, Asian, Native American, or White		
Principal Salary	Independent	Salary level of principal		
Principal degree level	Independent	highest degree obtained by individual principal	BA, MA, Specialist, or Doctorate	
<u>School Level</u>				
School Poverty Level	Independent	Percent of students on Free/Reduced Lunch Program	0-100%	>70%=High Poverty <30%=Low Poverty
Urbanicity	Independent	School location relevant to city	Urban Suburban Rural	
Percentage minority students	Independent	percentage of student population in the school that is minority		
Total enrollment	Independent	number of students attending the school		
School grade level	Independent	school level = elementary, middle, or high school		

Finally, after controlling for the above principal and school factors, the study focuses on the effects of two sets of measures of induction and mentoring programs. These include 1) whether the principal participated in any type of formal network of principals, and 2) if the principal participated in a formal mentor program for new principals.

This second stage of the analysis examines whether the likelihood that a principal is satisfied with his/her job is related to the above principal-level measures of induction, while controlling for both principal-level and school-level characteristics. The analysis uses a multinomial logit regression procedure – STATA software’s svy estimator svymlogit – that accounts for the clustering of principals within schools resulting from the complex multilevel design of the SASS sample (for a description of these commands see STATA Corp., 2001; for a description of the methodological background of these variance estimation procedures, see Cochran, 1977 and Wolter, 1985).

3.3 Limitations

The advantage of using a large-scale data source such as SASS is that it allows for generalizable assessments of whether induction or mentoring are associated with principal satisfaction, after controlling for some key background characteristics of principals and their schools. However, it is necessary to note that there are also some important limitations to the SASS measures on principal induction and mentoring.

First, the study asks only if principal mentees participated in a mentor program; nothing was mentioned about the characteristics of the mentors or the means of their selection. Everston and Smithey (2000), have argued that one of the most important

factors for program effectiveness is the skill and knowledge of the mentor. The mentor's knowledge of how to support new teachers and skill at providing guidance are also crucial. Second, while SASS did ask principals to indicate which kinds of supports were provided by their schools, there is limited detail available as to the intensity, duration, or structure of the induction programs.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this study is to examine the demographic characteristics of early career principals and their experience with induction programs. How widespread principal induction programs are in the United States was also examined. The data used was collected by the National Center for Education Statistics' Schools and Staffing surveys administered during the 2003-2004 school year.

This section begins with a review of the demographic data for the principals involved in this study by examining data collected by the National Center for Education Statistics' Schools and Staffing Surveys administered during the 2003-2004 school year. Next, each of the original research questions will be addressed.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Beginning School Principals

Data analysis of the 2003-04 administration of the survey show that 10,202 principals responded to the questionnaire. Of those respondents, 3,222 were designated as principals in the first five years of their job. Table 3 shows that principals with no previous experience made up 17.5% (564) of the sample, while principals with one to three years experience averaged about 21% and those principals with four years of previous experience made up 18.84% (607) of the total. As previously stated, private and charter schools were not included due to their lack of state educational oversight.

Table 3: Total Years Principal Experience

Years Experience	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
0	564	17.5	17.5
1	664	20.61	38.11
2	696	21.6	59.71
3	691	21.45	81.16
4	607	18.84	100
Total	3,222	100	

The preceding table indicates how many years of experience as lead principal each respondent had prior to 2003-04. This included any principalship in any school. Principals with two years previous experience were the majority with 21.6%. The principals with the least amount of experience, 0 years, make up 17.5% of the study population.

To examine the educational preparation of the building principals in the survey, results from the questions regarding educational degrees earned from the Principal Questionnaire of the Schools and Staffing Surveys are analyzed in Table 4. Data collected from the survey show that two principals had earned an Associate degree. Fifty-five principals earned a Bachelor's degree. Further, master's degrees were obtained by 2,023 of the respondents. An Educational Specialist degree was earned by 944 principals, and another 198 had earned a Doctorate degree.

Table 4: Highest Degree Earned

Degree Type	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
Associate degree	2	0.06	0.06
Bachelor's degree	55	1.71	1.77
Master's degree	2,023	62.79	64.56
Education specialist	944	29.3	93.85
Doctorate	198	6.15	100
Total	3,222	100	

According to the Principal Questionnaire of the Schools and Staffing Survey, 1,763 (54.72%) were male while 1,459 (45.28%) of the principals were female.

Table 5: Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cum.
Male	1,763	54.72	54.72
Female	1,459	45.28	100
Total	3,222	100	

Responses to the survey are analyzed to determine the average salary of full-time principals and also the range of salaries for the 2003-2004 school year. Results indicate that the average salary was \$71,145.25. The minimum salary was \$25,000 with the maximum salary \$180,000.

Table 6: Salary

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Salary	3222	71145.25	16513.92	25000	180000

The following table shows the types of schools represented in the survey. The schools were organized into three categories: elementary, secondary, or a combination K-12 school. Elementary schools represented over half of the total with 1,558. The number of secondary schools was 1,294, while combined schools made up 370 of the total number.

Table 7: School Type

School Type	Total
Elementary	1,558
Secondary	1,294
Combined	370
Total	3,222

The term ‘Urbanicity’ is used in this study to define a school’s location as urban, suburban, or rural. Urban schools made up 715 of the total. Suburban schools numbered 1,370, and there were 1,137 small town or rural schools included in the study.

Table 8: Urbanicity of the School

Urbanicity of the School	Total
Urban	715
Suburban	1,370
Small Town/Rural	1,137
Total	3,222

The Schools and Staffing Survey defines geographic regions in four regions: Northeast, Midwest, South, and West. In the Northeast, 469 schools were represented, which is 14.56% of the total. The Midwest had 721 schools, with 22.38% of the total. The South, with the largest number of schools represented, had 1,206 schools in the survey, with 37.43% of the total. The West region had 826 schools for 25.64% of the total schools represented in the survey.

Table 9: School Region

Region	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
Northeast	469	14.56	14.56
Midwest	721	22.38	36.93
South	1,206	37.43	74.36
West	826	25.64	100
Total	3,222	100	

4.2 How widespread are induction programs across the nation and how many beginning principals participate in various kinds of induction and mentoring activities?

The data indicate that participation in principal induction programs varies widely across the nation by state, region, urbanicity, and school level. In the first stage of this paper, the prevalence of induction programs includes six types of induction programs identified on the 2003-04 SASS Principal Questionnaire. These are: In the past 12 months, have you participated in the following kinds of professional development? A) University courses related to your role as principal; B) Visits to other schools designed to improve your own work as principal; C) Individual or collaborative research on a topic of interest to you professionally; D) Mentoring as part of a formal arrangement that is recognized or supported by the school or district; E) Participation in a principal network; F) Workshops, conferences, or training in which you were a presenter.

Given the time and money districts spend on mentoring programs, item D (participation in mentoring as a part of a formal arrangement recognized or supported by the school or district) is of special interest to this study. The other types of professional development will be reviewed in a less-detailed breakdown.

Table 10 lists all 50 states' percentages of candidates who reported participating in a mentoring program for new principals, sorted from highest to lowest percent of participation. Hawaii had the largest percentage, with 65.91% of the state's principals responding that they had been involved in a formal mentoring program. North Dakota had the fewest percent of principals participating in a mentoring program, with 17.14%.

Table 10: State Mentor Percentage

State	Had Mentor	No Mentor
HI	65.91	34.09
KY	61.76	38.24
LA	60	40
WV	58.82	41.18
WA	56.06	43.94
NV	54.39	45.61
NM	52.7	47.3
MS	50.63	49.37
AL	50.59	49.41
FL	50.59	49.41
CO	49.3	50.7
SC	49.23	50.77
IA	49.02	50.98
AZ	47.06	52.94
TX	46.56	53.44
AR	46.27	53.73
OH	46.15	53.85
NC	45.45	54.55
CA	45.08	54.92
AK	44.26	55.74
MT	43.14	56.86
PA	42.86	57.14
NY	42.68	57.32
KS	42.31	57.69
UT	42.11	57.89
TN	42.03	57.97
ID	41.94	58.06
GA	40.96	59.04
MA	40.68	59.32
SD	38.6	61.4
IL	38.46	61.54
MD	38	62
WI	37.31	62.69
DE	36.84	63.16
IN	36.73	63.27
VA	36.62	63.38
MN	36.59	63.41
ME	36.54	63.46
DC	36.36	63.64
NJ	36.21	63.79
MO	35.9	64.1
CT	35.85	64.15
RI	34.15	65.85
WY	32.65	67.35
MI	32.47	67.53
VT	32.14	67.86
OK	29.75	70.25
NE	27.94	72.06
NH	25.71	74.29
OR	25	75
ND	17.14	82.86

Graphs 11 through 13 list the number and percent of principals who participated in each of the six induction components listed above: 1) Mentoring as part of a formal arrangement that is recognized or supported by the school or district; 2) Individual or collaborative research on a topic of interest to you professionally; 3) Visits to other schools designed to improve your own work as principal; 4) University courses related to your role as principal; 5) Participation in a principal network; 6) Workshops, conferences, or training in which you were a presenter.

Table 11 shows regional data for those principals who participated in a formal mentoring program and principals who conducted professional research. The data show that the South and West regions were more active in principal mentoring programs (45.89% and 46.42% respectively) than the Northeast and Midwest regions (37.73% and 36.86% respectively). The percent of principals who participated in professional research was virtually the same in all four regions, ranging from 66.6% in the Northeast to 68.22% in the West. The survey found that 1,437 principals (42.84%) had been assigned a mentor, while 1,917 principals (57.16%) had no mentor. The number of early career principals who participated in a principals network were greater, with 2,258 principals (67.22%) participating and 1,096 (32.68%) not participating in a similar network.

Table 11: Principals participating in mentoring and or professional research by region

Census					
Region,					
based on					
FIPS state	Assigned Mentor			Research	
code	Yes	No		Yes	No
Northeast	183	302		323	162
	37.73	62.27		66.6	33.4
	12.73	15.75		14.3	14.78
Midwest	275	471		498	248
	36.86	63.14		66.76	33.24
	19.14	24.57		22.05	22.63
South	570	672		836	406
	45.89	54.11		67.31	32.69
	39.67	35.05		37.02	37.04
West	409	472		601	280
	46.42	53.58		68.22	31.78
	28.46	24.62		26.62	25.55
Total	1,437	1,917		2,258	1,096
	42.84	57.16		67.32	32.68
	100	100		100	100

Table 12 shows regional data for those principals who participated in school visits and principals who participated in university courses as part of their professional growth. School visits were utilized more in the Southern region (70.37%) than any other (Northeast 60.62%, Midwest 63%, and West 63.68%). University courses used for professional development were taken more by principals in the Midwest and West regions (53.35% and 52.1% respectively) than the Northeast and South (40.21% and 32.85%).

Table 12: Principals participating in school visits and or university courses by region

Census					
Region,	Prof dev		Prof dev		
based on	participd-visit		participd-university		
FIPS state	schools		crses		
code	Yes	No	Yes	No	
Northeast	294	191	195	290	
	60.62	39.38	40.21	59.79	
	13.37	16.54	13.36	15.31	
Midwest	470	276	398	348	
	63	37	53.35	46.65	
	21.37	23.9	27.26	18.37	
South	874	368	408	834	
	70.37	29.63	32.85	67.15	
	39.75	31.86	27.95	44.03	
West	561	320	459	422	
	63.68	36.32	52.1	47.9	
	25.51	27.71	31.44	22.28	
Total	2,199	1,155	1,460	1,894	
	65.56	34.44	43.53	56.47	
	100	100	100	100	

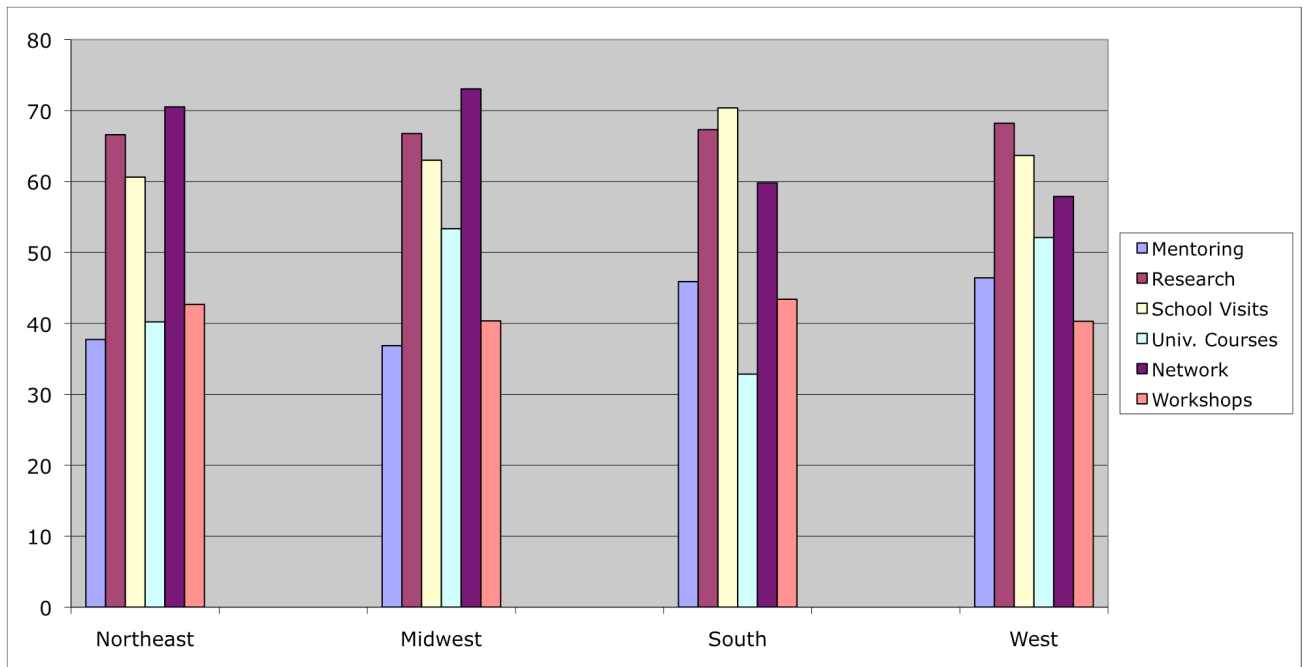
The percentage of principals who participated in a designated network for professional development and principals who presented at workshops were identified in table 13. Principal networks were utilized in the Northeast and Midwest (70.52% and 73.06%) more than in the South and West (59.82% and 57.89%). Principals presenting at workshops showed little change throughout the four regions, ranging from 40.3% in the West to 43.4% in the South.

Table 13: Principals participating in networks and presenting at workshops

Census					
Region,	Prof dev		Prof dev		
based on	participd-principal		participd-prncpls'		
FIPS state	network		workshops		
code	Yes	No	Yes	No	
Northeast	342	143	207	278	
	70.52	29.48	42.68	57.32	
	15.98	11.78	14.76	14.24	
Midwest	545	201	301	445	
	73.06	26.94	40.35	59.65	
	25.47	16.56	21.47	22.8	
South	743	499	539	703	
	59.82	40.18	43.4	56.6	
	34.72	41.1	38.45	36.01	
West	510	371	355	526	
	57.89	42.11	40.3	59.7	
	23.83	30.56	25.32	26.95	
Total	2,140	1,214	1,402	1,952	
	63.8	36.2	41.8	58.2	
	100	100	100	100	

Graph 1 provides a visual representation of all six of the induction components addressed above by region of the U.S.

Graph 1: Induction Components by Geographic Region



Tables 14 through 16 identify the same six areas of principal induction programs in association with a district’s location, or urbanicity. The term ‘urbanicity’ is used in this study to define a school’s setting as urban, suburban, or rural, depending on locale. Table 15 shows data for those principals who participated in a formal mentoring program and principals who conducted professional research in regard to the school’s urbanicity. Urban districts tend to use both mentoring and research programs more than the suburban and rural schools.

Table 14: Principals participating in mentoring and or professional research by urbanicity

	Prof dev				Prof dev		
Urbanicity of the school	participated-mentoring				participated-research		
	Yes	No	Total		Yes	No	Total
Urban	427	359	786		556	230	786
	54.33	45.67	100		70.74	29.26	100
	29.71	18.73	23.43		24.62	20.99	23.43
Suburban	577	834	1,411		958	453	1,411
	40.89	59.11	100		67.90	32.10	100
	40.15	43.51	42.07		42.43	41.33	42.07
Small town/rural	433	724	1,157		744	413	1,157
	37.42	62.58	100		64.30	35.70	100
	30.13	37.77	34.5		32.95	37.68	34.5
Total	1,437	1,917	3,354		2,258	1,096	3,354
	42.84	57.16	100		67.32	32.68	100
	100	100	100		100	100	100

Table 15 shows data for those principals who participated in school visits and principals who participated in university courses as part of their professional growth, sorted by urbanicity. School visits were utilized more in the urban schools (70.36%) than any other (Suburban 66.55% and Small town/rural 61.11%). University courses used for professional development were taken more from principals in the small town/rural region (49.27%) than the urban and suburban (42.01% and 39.62%).

Table 15: Principals participating in school visits and or university courses by urbanicity

	Prof dev				Prof dev	
	participd-visit				participd-university courses	
Urbanicity of the schools						
	Yes	No	Total		Yes	No
Urban	553	233	786		331	455
	70.36	29.64	100		42.11	57.89
	25.15	20.17	23.43		22.67	24.02
Suburban	939	472	1,411		559	852
	66.55	33.45	100		39.62	60.38
	42.70	40.87	42.07		38.29	44.98
Small town/rural	707	450	1,157		570	587
	61.11	38.89	100		49.27	50.73
	32.15	38.96	34.5		39.04	30.99
Total	2,199	1,155	3,354		1,460	1,894
	65.56	34.44	100		43.53	56.47
	100	100	100		100	100

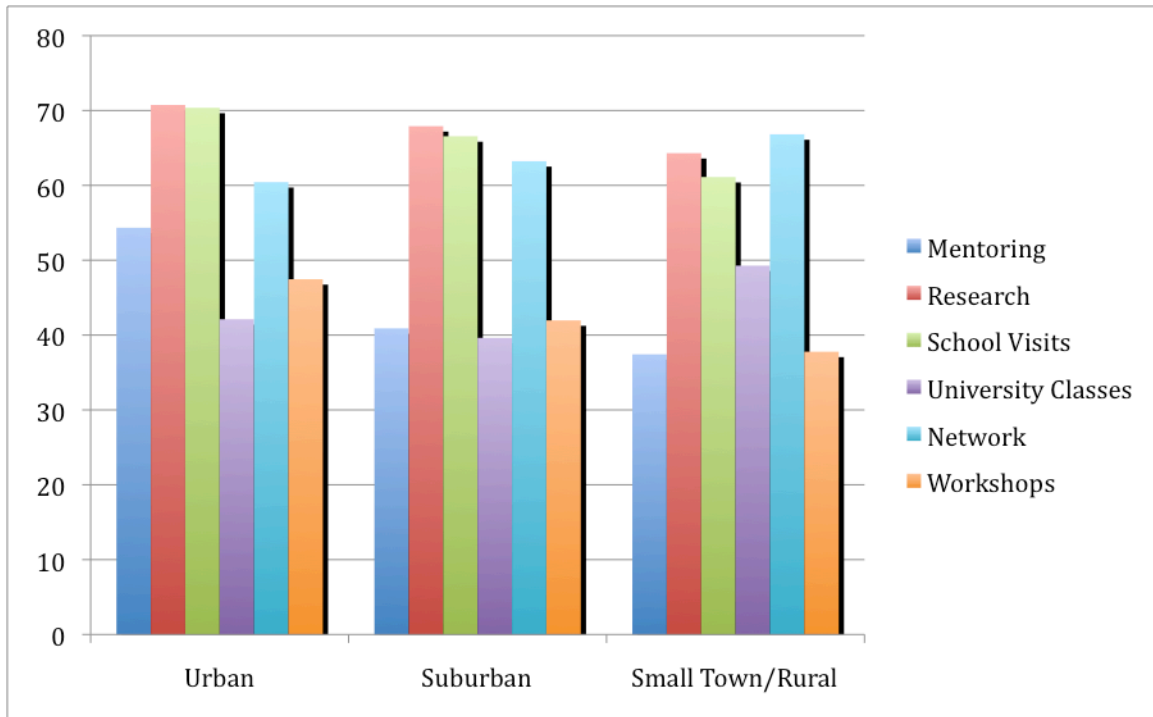
In table 16, the percentage of principals who participated in a designated network for professional development and principals who presented at workshops were identified. Principal networks were utilized between 60% and 67% in the three areas, and principals presenting at workshops showed a range from 37.77% in small town/rural schools to 47.46% in the urban schools.

Table 16: Principals participating in networks and presenting at workshops

	Prof dev				Prof dev	
	participd-principal				participd-prncpls' workshops	
Urbanicity of the school	Network			Urbanicity of the school		
	Yes	No			Yes	No
Urban	475	311		Urban	373	413
	60.43	39.57			47.46	52.54
	22.2	25.62			26.6	21.16
Suburban	892	519		Suburban	592	819
	63.22	36.78			41.96	58.04
	41.68	42.75			42.23	41.96
Small town/rural	773	384		Small town/rural	437	720
	66.81	33.19			37.77	62.23
	36.12	31.63			31.17	36.89
Total	2,140	1,214		Total	1,402	1,952
	63.8	36.2			41.8	58.2
	100	100			100	100

Graph 2 provides a visual representation of all six of the induction components addressed above by urbanicity. The most commonly used components by all three areas were the use of research for professional development, utilizing structured visits to other schools, and the use of a designated network for the new principals.

Graph 2: Induction Components by Urbanicity



4.3 What are the effects of different kinds of mentoring and induction activities on the likelihood that beginning principals will be satisfied with their jobs?

Job satisfaction is an important area of study due to the consistent relationship found between job satisfaction and the propensity to remain with the organization, (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Among educators, dissatisfaction has been associated with higher levels of stress (Sutton & Huberty, 1984), turnover, absenteeism, and illness (Culver et al., 1990).

Two specific questions were taken from the 2003-2004 Schools and Staffing Survey Principal Questionnaire: “*The job is worth it*” and “*I like the way the district is run.*” Both questions were used to provide more validity.

Table 17 presents the results of the logistic model that examines the effects of principal networks and mentors on job satisfaction, defined in this model as *job worth*. The table shows that principals who participated in a principal network were almost 32% more likely to answer yes on this question than those principals not participating in a principal network. Principals assigned a mentor were 24% more likely to answer yes than those principals not assigned a mentor. Both of these were statistically significant ($p < .05$).

Table 17: Logistic Regression Analysis of Job Worth

Job is worth it	Participated in Principals Network			Assigned a Mentor		
	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	P>t	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	P>t
<i>Participated in Principals Network</i>	1.315076	0.1515243	*			
<i>Assigned a Mentor</i>				1.245313	0.1400459	*
<i>Degree</i>						
Bachelors	2.268102	0.9533273	*	2.238111	0.94723	*
Masters or Higher	0.9499509	0.1087214		0.9618525	0.1102786	
<i>Urbanicity</i>						
Urban						
Suburban	0.8811967	0.1330412		0.9004703	0.1367149	*
Rural	0.6187022	0.1023525	*	0.6498057	0.1092364	*
<i>School Type</i>						
Elementary						
Secondary	0.8247899	0.1079035	**	0.8238946	0.1059731	**
Combined	0.6051136	0.1078091	*	0.6235558	0.1102317	*
<i>Sex</i>						
Male						
Female	0.9166892	0.1086707		0.9308046	0.1099347	
<i>Age</i>	1.011018	0.0076298	**	1.01001	0.0076366	**
<i>Region</i>						
South						
Northeast	1.055416	0.1803197		1.104185	0.1884853	
Midwest	0.9651533	0.1414535		1.013324	0.1478321	
West	1.027044	0.1611361	**	1.015648	0.1578756	
<i>Poverty</i>						
Free/Reduced %	0.9988437	0.0022799		0.9982602	0.002227	
<i>Salary 10k</i>	0.9829416	0.0389187		0.9847845	0.039008	

* p<.05, ** p<.10

Table 18 examines the effects of participating in a principal network and being provided a mentor on job satisfaction, defined in this model as *liking the district*. Those principals who participated in a principal's network were 40% more likely to like their district than those not participating. Similarly, principals who were assigned a mentor were 29% more likely to like their district. Again, both of these are statistically significant ($p < .05$).

Table 18: Logistic Regression Analysis of Liking District

Like the District	Participated in Principals Network			Assigned a Mentor		
	Odds Ratio	Std. Err.	P>t	Odds Ratio		P>t
<i>Participated in Principals Network</i>	1.405422	0.1682903	*			
<i>Assigned a Mentor</i>				1.293995	0.1555011	*
<i>Degree</i>						
Bachelors	1.126947	0.5861213		1.10838	0.5798212	
Masters or Higher	0.9357429	0.1127007		0.948577	0.1149355	
<i>Urbanicity</i>						
Urban						
Suburban	1.469695	0.2351375	*	1.506609	0.2462381	*
Rural	1.708217	0.3136756	*	1.804572	0.3389619	*
<i>School Type</i>						
Elementary						
Secondary	0.9455416	0.1244758		0.9457379	0.1276051	
Combined	1.11799	0.2119077		1.157145	0.2169745	
<i>Sex</i>						
Male						
Female	1.180449	0.1440257	**	1.201796	0.1482117	*
<i>Age</i>	0.9930258	0.0072452		0.9919705	0.0075226	
<i>Region</i>						
South						
Northeast	0.6739985	0.1220101	*	0.715036	0.1293411	**
Midwest	0.8512334	0.129847		0.9075237	0.1385633	
West	0.8142974	0.1284531	**	0.8057497	0.1289032	**
<i>Poverty</i>						
Free/Reduced %	0.9933945	0.0022627	*	0.9927433	0.0022712	*
<i>Salary 10k</i>	0.9743262	0.0399475		0.9757281	0.0407379	

* p<.05, ** p<.10

Table 19 compares the likelihood that principals will state that they liked their district and the relative poverty level of the school. The poverty level is based on the Free and Reduced Lunch count of each school (the number of students who have parents qualified to receive either a free or reduced rate lunch). Low Poverty is defined as 30% or less of the students in the school were eligible for Free or Reduced Lunches. High Poverty is defined as 60% or more of the student population was eligible for Free or Reduced Lunches.

When asked if they liked their district, principals in the low poverty schools were 29% more likely to say yes if they had been assigned a mentor. In contrast, principals of high poverty schools were an overwhelming 78.5% more likely to say they liked their district if they had been assigned a mentor.

Table 19: Logistic Regression Analysis of Liking District and Assigned a Mentor Ranked By Poverty

Low Poverty Like the District	Odds Ratio	Std. Error	P>t	High Poverty Like the District	Odds Ratio	P>t
<i>Assigned a Mentor</i>	1.29457	0.24155	**	<i>Assigned a Mentor</i>	1.785014	0.4771666 *
<i>Degree</i>				<i>Degree</i>		
Bachelors	0.6419877	0.6541496		Bachelors	0.0796548	0.0715537 *
Masters or Higher	1.091651	0.1985437		Masters or Higher	0.6178208	0.1715674 **
<i>Urbanicity</i>				<i>Urbanicity</i>		
Urban				Urban		
Suburban	1.553465	0.3881814	**	Suburban	1.162364	0.3856083
Rural	1.07582	0.3167098		Rural	1.903798	0.7819379 **
<i>School Type</i>				<i>School Type</i>		
Elementary				Elementary		
Secondary	0.9945746	0.1949487		Secondary	1.144408	0.4430714
Combined	1.12147	0.417221		Combined	1.70484	0.5514218 **
<i>Sex</i>				<i>Sex</i>		
Male				Male		
Female	1.038361	0.2050688		Female	2.139012	0.5668013 *
<i>Age</i>	1.000269	0.0124071		<i>Age</i>	0.9691903	0.0151105 *
<i>Region</i>				<i>Region</i>		
South				South		
Northeast	0.7666616	0.1955754		Northeast	0.5931098	0.2647082
Midwest	0.9673332	0.2336309		Midwest	1.022429	0.3449474
West	0.6433495	0.1644914	**	West	0.8840318	0.2878379
<i>Poverty</i>				<i>Poverty</i>		
Free/Reduced %	1.00049	0.0088136		Free/Reduced %	0.9841298	0.0101918 **
<i>Salary 10k</i>	0.8759603	0.0538667	*	<i>Salary 10k</i>	1.099655	0.0997568
Low Poverty < 30% Free/Reduced				High Poverty >60% Free/Reduced		

* p<.05,
**p<.10

* p<.05,
**p<.10

The results for beginning principals who participated in a principal's network program as part of an induction program were also quite striking. Those principals in a low poverty school were 70% more likely to say they liked their district when participating in a principal's network and those in a high poverty school were 64% as likely to state that they liked their district.

Table 20: Logistic Regression Analysis of Liking District and Participating in a Principals Network Ranked By Poverty

Like the District	Odds Ratio	Std. Error	P>t	Like the District	Odds Ratio	P>t
Participated in Principals Network	1.695634	0.3167531	*	Participated in Principals Network	1.6464	0.4158566 *
<i>Degree</i>				<i>Degree</i>		
Bachelors	0.6261051	0.6116414		Bachelors	0.0782034	0.0708929 *
Masters or Higher	1.088663	0.1979171	**	Masters or Higher	0.5850669	0.15836 *
<i>Urbanicity</i>				<i>Urbanicity</i>		
Urban				Urban		
Suburban	1.467605	0.362965	*	Suburban	1.097812	0.3468825
Rural	0.9804549	0.2878829		Rural	1.805948	0.7133474 **
<i>School Type</i>				<i>School Type</i>		
Elementary				Elementary		
Secondary	1.003763	0.1940201		Secondary	1.286195	0.428071
Combined	1.102931	0.407687		Combined	1.672599	0.5385681 **
<i>Sex</i>				<i>Sex</i>		
Male				Male		
Female	1.032765	0.2019768		Female	2.1468	0.5491889 *
<i>Age</i>	1.001259	0.0120775		<i>Age</i>	0.972532	0.0142967 *
<i>Region</i>				<i>Region</i>		
South				South		
Northeast	0.6912014	0.1781385		Northeast	0.5664904	0.2482111
Midwest	0.8616245	0.2039442		Midwest	0.9776564	0.3422965
West	0.6465777	0.1650267	**	West	0.9196307	0.2891856
<i>Poverty</i>				<i>Poverty</i>		
Free/Reduced %	1.001336	0.0088373		Free/Reduced %	0.986322	0.0101796
Salary 10k	0.8718302	0.0532306	*	Salary 10k	1.099121	0.0957264

Low Poverty < 30% Free/Reduced Lunch

High Poverty >60% Free/Reduced Lunch

* p<.05,
**p<.10

Chapter 5

CONCLUSION

5.1 Summary of Findings

5.1.1 Principal Characteristics

This study identified 3,222 early career public school principals. The definition for ‘early career’ for purposes of this study was any principal in his or her first five years of being a lead principal in his or her current or previous experience. The experience level of the principals ranged evenly from zero to four years of previous experience. Males continue to be far more represented in the principalship than in teaching positions, holding almost 55% of the principal positions in this study, compared to 31% of males in teaching positions. Roughly 63% of the study participants had obtained a Master’s degree and 35% had obtained an Ed.S/Ed.D/Ph.D. This leaves about two percent of the participants receiving only a Bachelor’s degree. The salary range was between \$25,000 and \$180,000, with a mean salary of \$71,145.

5.1.2 School Characteristics

Characteristics of the schools were also identified. School type, urbanicity, and region of the school were analyzed. The three school types identified in the survey were elementary, secondary, and combined. Elementary schools made up the majority of the schools, making up 48% of the schools in the study. Secondary schools totaled 40%, and the remaining 12% of the schools were combined elementary/secondary schools. In the urbanicity model, 22% of the schools were classified as urban, 43% as suburban and 35% as rural schools. Regarding region, the survey defines geographic regions as: Northeast, Midwest, South, and West. These regions ranged from the Northeast with the lowest

representation of principals (15%) to the highest percent of principals coming from the South (37%).

As previously noted, the data indicate that participation in principal induction programs vary widely across the nation by state, region, urbanicity, and school level. The states with the largest percentage of early career principals with assigned mentors were Hawaii, Kentucky, and Louisiana with 66%, 62%, and 60% respectively. The states with the lowest percentage were North Dakota (17%), Oregon (25%), and New Hampshire (26%). A much greater percentage of urban school principals reported participation in a mentor program than either suburban or rural (54%, 41%, and 37% respectively).

Within the areas of region and urbanicity, a greater breakdown of induction programs was analyzed. This analysis correlated with the SASS questions regarding the six induction components asked about: 1) Mentoring as part of a formal arrangement that is recognized or supported by the school or district; 2) Individual or collaborative research on a topic of interest to you professionally; 3) Visits to other schools designed to improve your own work as principal; 4) University courses related to your role as principal; 5) Participation in a principal network; 6) Workshops, conferences, or training in which you were a presenter.

As seen in the previous chapter, each region was unique regarding the percent of each of the induction components present. However, as seen in graph 1, when all of the induction components are totaled, the regions fared much closer to one another than when looking at each component individually. The following table combines each of the six induction components. The Northeast region had 53% of its early career principals

involved in some aspect of induction as described above. The Midwest region had 56%, the South had 53%, and the West region had 55%.

Table 21: Principal participation in induction programs (all) by region

Northeast	53%
Midwest	56%
South	53%
West	55%

The percentage of the individual induction components was varied in each of the urbanities also, as described in greater detail in chapter 4. However, similar to the regions, the total of all induction components within the different urbanities was more balanced, as evidenced in the table below.

Table 22: Principal participation in induction programs (all) by urbanicity

Urbanicity	%
Urban	57%
Suburban	53%
Rural	54%

5.2 Implications

In response, induction programs for beginning principals have increased in recent years. As shown by the data in this study, slightly over 50% of beginning principals nationwide participated in at least one component of an induction program.

The data also show that there are large variations among different school types and settings in the number and types of beginning principal induction programs offered. A strong link was found between early career principals in high poverty schools and their reported job satisfaction when involved in a mentoring program and/or involved in a network for principals. Given the limitations in using data from large-scale survey questionnaires (discussed below), the strength of these findings are notable.

While this research provides general support for the use of mentors for beginning principals, there are important limits to its practicality. Several studies have documented large variations in purpose, length, intensity, structure, numbers, and types of beginning principals they serve and in the numbers and types of veteran administrators they utilize, how these veterans are selected, whether or not they received training, and any actual cost involved. SASS does not collect information on the details of induction program intensity, duration, structure, or cost. Therefore, this research cannot address questions concerning which kinds of programs are most cost effective. District factors could also play a key role in the satisfaction levels of principals. Other issues, such as districts that provide these induction components may also provide other supports or benefits to their principals which increase their reported satisfaction levels is possible.

While causality cannot be proven from the results of this research, the implications for large, high-poverty school districts could be substantial in both time and

money invested. The assumption made is that principals that report to being ‘more satisfied’ will be more likely to stay in their current roles longer. The findings of this study do point to the need for further research to determine if causality exists or if other factors could be responsible.

5.3 Direction for Future

If recent predictions from the Kansas State Department and U.S. Department of Labor hold true, there will be a larger number of principal vacancies in the coming years than every before. According to many researchers, the role of the school leader is pivotal for schools to be successful (Leithwood, Seashore, Louis, Anderson and Wahlstrom, 2004; Taylor and Tashakkori, 1994; Bulach and Malone, 1994; Newman and Associates, 1996; Winter and Sweeney, 1994; Paredes and Frazer, 1985; Borger, Lo, Oh, and Wahlberg, 1985; Olson, 2000). Another factor weighing heavy on school districts is that of finances. Webb & Norton (2001), estimate that it costs a school district at least 25% of a beginning teacher’s salary to replace a classroom teacher. They also contend that it costs much more to replace a building administrator, approximately \$25,000. These factors make it imperative that school districts seek to prepare their beginning principals to the best of their ability.

There is still much to be understood about the specific components of each induction program to thoroughly explain the apparent statistical relationships found in these large-scale data sources. The present study provides only a limited snapshot of this field. Further investigations applying mixed quantitative analysis along with qualitative follow-up studies may shed light on additional reasons for observed patterns.

In summary, direction for future inquiry can build on this study's findings as well as explore additional factors associated with principal preparation and job satisfaction that are not measured in this study. The following research efforts are suggested:

- Is there a significant difference in effectiveness between induction and mentoring programs depending on how the mentors are selected?
- Is there a significant difference in the new principals experience depending on the kind of training mentors are given?
- Is there a significant difference in the quality of the mentor regarding the amount of compensation provided to mentors?
- How does the quantity and timing of contact between new principals and their mentors affect the effectiveness of the experience?
- Are induction and mentoring programs particularly helpful for new principals whose formal preparation is relatively weak, or are they helpful regardless of the quality of preparation?

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