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A Study of Principals' Perceptions as Implementers of Michigan's Mandated Teacher Evaluation Policy

by

Linda K. Foran

Dissertation

Submitted to the College of Education

Eastern Michigan University

In partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
Educational Leadership

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March 20, 2015

Ypsilanti, Michigan

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to those who have always supported me and specifically throughout the last four years as I returned to Eastern Michigan University, became an atypical doctoral student and loved almost every moment of the experience.

First, I dedicate this dissertation to the two most valuable assets I have in my life: my children. Danielle and Chip Armstrong have provided me with the love and understanding necessary for me to complete my amazing journey. They have tolerated their “Type A” mother and shared in my successes and my struggles. My love for them is immeasurable.

Second, my sister in everything but in blood, my best friend and cohort in life must be recognized in this dedication. Denise Haywood has been by my side since fifth grade (which was a few years ago!), and I looked forward to our daily phone conversations between Tucson and Highland as I shared my angst and joys through the doctoral process.

Finally, I salute the hard working principals in Michigan and hope that I have successfully provided them with a voice.

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- Kate Pittsley, Business Librarian, who relentlessly helped me with Stakeholder Theory

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to identify and develop an understanding of the relationships between the perceptions of principals regarding the Michigan mandatory annual teacher evaluation policy and job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and stress as principals navigated the roles of building manager, instructional leader and policy implementer.

This quantitative study asked 3,009 Michigan public school principals to share their perceptions regarding the teacher evaluation policy. A total of 426 principals responded to a questionnaire published in a web-based format using a Likert scale. Interest in this study by the Michigan Department of Education Research Department allowed access to all email addresses for Michigan public schools using the Educational Entity Master (EEM) system. Questions in the survey collected demographic data and uncovered perceptions held by respondents regarding policy implementation, role definition, and reinforced constructs of job satisfaction, self-efficacy, time, stress, need for training and fairness in the implementation process

Stakeholder theory, which had roots in business, defined the reciprocal relationship between owners and stakeholders by observing management practices implemented for the pursuit of articulated organizational goals and served as the conceptual framework.

Descriptive and inferential statistics were used for the analysis and showed Michigan principals were marginally knowledgeable regarding the requirements of the evaluation policy; job satisfaction and self-efficacy were correlated to principals' voice in the formation and implementation of the evaluation policy especially at the building and district levels; a weak relationship existed between knowledge and respondent self-esteem; and the constructs of job satisfaction, self efficacy, stress/time and knowledge were predictors for successful implementation of the policy. Coding the open-ended question led to the reinforcement of themes pertaining to self-efficacy, job satisfaction, time and stress. Additional identified themes included the need for training and a concern for statewide level of fairness in completing the evaluation.

Through the lens of stakeholder theory, it was important to acknowledge the reciprocal relationship between the principal (as stakeholder) and Michigan legislature (as the firm). To increase the knowledge, job satisfaction and self-efficacy of principals, the opportunity to provide a voice to policy formation and implementation is recommended. Professional organizations, government and educational agencies and higher education leadership programs must address communication and training opportunities for educational leaders.

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Chapter One: Introduction To The Study

In 2009, the Michigan Legislature passed the Michigan School Reform Law addressing the new responsibilities assigned to school districts and the Michigan Department of Education (MDE) with the goal of increasing student achievement (State of Michigan, 2009). Districts were now required to conduct annual educator evaluations using data collected from student academic growth. Evaluations would have a direct impact on teacher tenure, merit pay, and career longevity (Michigan Department of Education, 2011, January 6).

The Michigan Council of Educator Effectiveness (MCEE) was the agency charged with recommending an evaluation model and evaluation tool for teachers (Michigan Office of the Governor, December, 2011; Executive Office, March, 2012). In a process complete with politics, policy, and an apparent lack of direction, the April 2012 deadline for an evaluation process and instrument passed without a selection made. Finally, in August 2012 a different plan was reported. The MCEE believed it was "reckless, both fiscally and technically" to rush into developing a system and recommended a pilot study (Howe, 2013; MCEE Interim Progress Report, April 2012, p. 12).

In the new proposal, the MCEE selected four evaluation models to pilot for the 2012-2013 school year in thirteen different school districts across Michigan. The four models listed in the *Michigan Council for Educator Effectiveness (MCEE) Executive Summary of the Update Report* (MDE, 2013) included: Charlotte Danielson's Framework for Teaching, The Marzano Teacher Evaluation Model, The Thoughtful Classroom and 5 Dimensions of Teaching and Learning. All other school districts in Michigan were allowed to continue using their current evaluation tool but needed to include a component to show "significant" student growth (Michigan School Reform Law, 2009). As delineated in their report, the MCEE (2013) was to recommend an evaluation model by June of 2013 (p. 2).

One component of the evaluation process, as noted in the 2013 MCEE report, was to examine student performance on standardized test scores. High stakes testing, such as the MEAP, Explore, NWEA, and ACT assessments taken by Michigan students, were identified as value-added models (VAM). VAMs were purported to reflect the contribution of the teacher to individual student learning thereby determining teacher effectiveness, but some educational researchers questioned this supposition (Gallagher, Rabinowitz and Yeagley, 2011).

Still, for Michigan, it was determined that new VAM assessments were to be created/selected for the 2014-2015 school year (MCEE, 2013). Apple (2011) warned that performance pay linked to test results and the criticism of media directed toward teachers could lead to an “emphasis of teaching for the tests” (p. 27).

Along with the challenges of implementing a new Michigan evaluation process and having concerns regarding the validity of VAM assessments, the responsibilities of Michigan principals increased due, in part, to the time requirements necessary to complete the yearly evaluations mandated for all educators. Mack (2011, November 20) reported comments made by Vicksburg Community Schools Superintendent, Charles Glaes, when talking about Michigan school reform: “We have a difficult, ongoing battle with our Legislature over unfunded mandates… you can’t do this reform without trained administrators to do the work” (p. 5).

Local Michigan school administrators reported that administrative ranks were shrinking with the elimination of assistant principals and principals were now supervising multiple buildings. This increased their workload, “even before adding on a heightened emphasis on teacher evaluations” (Mack, November 20, p. 5).

Mack (2011, November 13) reported that Michigan principals were concerned about the amount of time consumed when implementing new evaluation systems. Potentially, principals in Michigan needed to manage their time to evaluate all teachers, consider the validity of assessments attached to specific teachers, and wait for a final decision to be made in June 2013 by the state regarding the evaluation process and tool.

Articulation of a brief history of state and federal education reform, beginning with the *No Child Left Behind* Act of 2001 and ending with the eventual passage of the Michigan School Reform Law of 2009, set the stage for exploring the relationships between the identified constructs found within this quantitative study. Additionally, the perceptions of Michigan principals regarding the implementation of this new evaluation policy led to a deeper appreciation of the complexity of the role of the principal in K-12 schools. The voices of Michigan’s principals provided insight into the relationship between the new evaluation policy and principals’ perceptions of job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and stress.

Background: The Political Impact on Teacher Evaluation

The drive toward improved student achievement directed the attention of federal and state leaders to focus upon teacher effectiveness as measured through the evaluation process. Peterson (2004) noted, “Many audiences of education, such as legislatures, parents and taxpayer groups want pupil achievement data to be used in teacher evaluation as an indication of school quality” (p. 64). Wise, Darling-Hammond, McLaughlin and Bernstein (1985) cautioned, “states should not impose highly prescriptive teacher evaluation requirements” (p.104).

The No Child Left Behind Act, a United States Act of Congress, required teachers to be highly qualified in every classroom by the 2005-2006 school year (O'Pry, 2011). Previous federal documents, including the findings from the 1983 report issued by the Education Commission of the States (ECS) Task Force on Education for Economic Growth called *Action for Excellence*; the 1989 creation of *Goals 2000: Educate America Act*; and the 1993 National Commission on Excellence in Education publication *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform* stressed the importance of teacher excellence and higher expectations for teacher performance (Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005; O'Pry, 2011; Wise et al., 1985).

In 2009, President Obama and U. S. Secretary of Education Arne Duncan announced, through a press release, grant-based funding for school reform (U.S. Department of Education, 2009). In this press release, Secretary Duncan announced that states were to compete for funds to "drive reform, reward excellence and dramatically improve our nation's schools" (p. 1).

Although less restrictive than No Child Left Behind, McGuinn (2012) believed the Obama educational agenda, guided by his Race to the Top (RTTT) legislation, "supports only those states that have strong track records and plans for innovation and can demonstrate key stakeholder commitment to reform" (p. 137). McGuinn noted that this new federal education policy generated a significant amount of state policy changes considering the amount of time RTTT was in existence.

Ellett and Teddlie (2003) discussed the role played by many politicians and education policy makers in the 1980s and 1990s to evaluate teachers and to reform education in the

United States. They noted that many states had mandated evaluation policies, beginning with the Georgia Teacher Performance Assessment Instruments.

Ellett and Teddlie reported that millions of dollars had been spent on the development and implementation of "large-scale, politically motivated, state-mandated programs targeting teacher accountability and school improvement" (p.107). Their conclusion noted that few programs had survived and many were revised or disbanded. Tuytens and Devos (2010) inferred that because the initiative to implement evaluations often was a directive from the government, implementation might be problematic.

At the state level, Michigan educators were impacted through the Michigan School Reform Law and the ambiguity that had existed since 2010 when initially finalizing the evaluation process. Guerra (2011) reported that Republican State Rep. Margaret O'Brien, who introduced one of the bills, acknowledged the future work of the MCEE and reinforced that the decision of the MCEE would not "automatically go into effect": the legislature would vote on the final recommendation (p. 1). Guerra (2011) reported that the commission (MCEE) had until April 1, 2012, to develop an evaluation tool and present it to Governor Snyder to allow for the tool to be implemented or "phased in" by 2012 (p. 2).

The following timelines of dates and necessary revisions demonstrated the efforts of the MDE and MCEE during the initial implementation process to communicate with school districts, considered stakeholders, in Michigan. Clearly, each deadline was an attempt to inform stakeholders of the requirements necessary for implementation of the mandated educational policy.

Table 1

Progression of Deadline Dates for Implementation of Policy

Michigan Department of Education, 2010 Educator Evaluation Overview

(MDE Website)

Fall 2011-Spring 2012

- Districts conduct educator evaluations as locally bargained/determined

Early Fall 2011:

- MDE will provide districts with measures for all educators based on data from the 2009-10 and 2010-11 school years

End of year 2011:

- Teacher Student Data Link Collection available in Michigan Student Data System (MSDS)
- Principal effectiveness ratings must be reported in Registry of Educational Personnel (REP)
- Other administrative evaluations *encouraged*, but optional until 2012

End of year 2012:

- Districts report effectiveness ratings for all administrators and teachers

Michigan Department of Education, 2011

January 6, 2011 Memorandum

(MDE Website)

Senate Bill 1509:

- Effective date of September 2, 2011, for the new evaluation systems for teachers and administrators

- Data on the results of evaluations for all educators will be collected beginning April 1, 2012, through June 30, 2012

Timeline:

June 2011:

- Teacher /student data link is available in the Michigan Student Data System (MSDS) End-of-School Year (EOY) collection

April-June 2011:

- Principal effectiveness ratings based on district evaluations are required to be reported in the Registry of Educational Personnel (REP)
- Annual educator evaluations should be conducted for all educators

April-June 2011:

- Survey current practices of each school district related to educator evaluations

Early Fall 2011:

- MDE provides measures to districts for every educator, regardless of subject taught, based on 2009-10 and 2010-11 data

Fall 2011-Winter 2012:

- Districts implement their locally-determined educator evaluation systems of all educators, using the data provided by MDE when appropriate

Spring 2012:

- Districts conduct educator evaluations

End of year 2012:

- Districts report effectiveness ratings for all principals, administrators, and teachers

A later legislative timeline attempted to clarify the dates and expectations for schools in Michigan. Each timeline was publicized on the MDE website for all stakeholders: the legislative and executive branches, the Department of Education, the intermediate school districts, the Michigan Association of Public School Academies, school district central offices, principals, teachers, parents and students.

Michigan Department of Education

Michigan's Educator Evaluation Systems: Reflecting Local System Determinations for 2011-2012

(MDE Website)

Table 2

Legislative Timelines for Implementation of Policy

Year	**Evaluation Tool**	**Percent of Evaluation Based on Student Growth and Achievement Data**	**Reporting Requirements**
2011-2012	Evaluation Tool: locally determined Educator Evaluation Systems	Significant Part	Effectiveness labels in June REP collection
2012-2013	Evaluation Tool: locally determined Educator Evaluation Systems & MCEE pilot	Significant part	Effectiveness labels in June REP collection
2013-2014	MCEE's Evaluation Tool	25%	Effectiveness labels in June REP collection
2014-2015	MCEE's Evaluation Tool	40%	Effectiveness labels in June REP collection
2015-2016	MCEE's Evaluation Tool	50%	Effectiveness labels in June REP collection

Finally, in the 2013 MCEE Update, a June 2013 date was presented for recommendation of a multi-year schedule for implementation of a "high-quality system of educator evaluation in Michigan" (p. 2).

Problem Statement

Clearly the goal of the Michigan legislation was to increase student achievement by regulating the evaluation process. The vision of the MCEE was to “develop a fair, transparent, and feasible evaluation system for teachers and school administrators” (MCEE Website). Their goal was “to contribute to enhanced instruction, improve student achievement, and support ongoing professional learning” (MCEE Website).

The MCEE also had the responsibility to recommend the evaluation tool to be implemented by 2013-2014 (Educator Evaluations, 2011, October; Michigan’s Educator Evaluation Systems, 2012). Regulation of teacher evaluations would be simplified if all school districts were using the same or similar evaluation tool; however, many Michigan districts wanted to keep their current tool for measuring teacher effectiveness (MDE, 2011). This turmoil segued into a pilot of four different evaluation tools to determine the best tool for use in Michigan schools.

Wise et al. (1985) noted in their study that it was important to have school districts involve teacher organizations in the “design and oversight of teacher evaluation to ensure its legitimacy, fairness, and effectiveness” (p. 111). Guerra (2011) noted that State Board of Education President John Austin believed that teachers and union representatives “absolutely” needed to be part of the commission [MCEE] and expressed “that without teachers and representatives co-creating a system that’s objective, we’re not going to get a fair thing.” (p. 2). Austin also had concerns with the recommendation being placed in front of the legislature. Guerra (2011) reported, “The legislature has done its job and I think we don’t want the legislature, nor any politically charged policymakers micro-managing this, because it could get too polarizing” (p. 2).

Spring (1997) reported how a "sense of crisis in teacher quality served diverse interest groups in the political arena, from conservatives to liberal. Payoffs in votes, program expansion, political agendas, candidate and party advancement and changed tax policies await groups that can use teacher evaluation processes and data" (as cited in Peterson, 2004, p. 75).

Significant studies existed examining teacher empowerment and site-based decision making, but studies focusing upon principal empowerment and the impact of educational policy on principal performance were lacking (Addi-Raccah, 2009; Marks & Louis, 1997; Reeves, 2006). The issues, for the principals in Michigan, might not have been the implementation of a specific evaluation tool. Rather, the issues might have derived from the procedures required of principals for the implementation of the mandated evaluation. Examining the perceptions of principals involved in the evaluation implementation process might lead to the discovery of relationships between variables and constructs that could be rationalized when applying the theoretical framework of stakeholder theory.

Fowler (2009), in her work with policy studies and educational leaders, noted that major actors in implementation of policy were considered implementers. Formal implementers could be government officials who had the responsibility to see the policy put into effect, with intermediaries delegated the responsibility to help with the implementation (p. 271). Therefore, school principals could be considered intermediary implementers as they had the responsibility to put the policy into effect and had been delegated certain responsibilities, much like an intermediary, to work with the target population.

To review, a focus of this research was to discover the relationship between the mandatory evaluation policy and principal job satisfaction, self-efficacy and stress as it filtered down through multiple power (and political) structures until finally reaching the office of the principal as an intermediary implementer. To elaborate on this premise, a possibility existed to consider the principal a policy stakeholder in an intermediary role that implemented an educational policy.

Significance of the Research

Schleicher (2011) reported on the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) completed in 2007-2008 by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. The survey was taken by over two million teachers and principals in 23 countries and asked for "information on teaching and learning at their schools, the leadership in their schools, their preparation and professional development, and the feedback and appraisal that they do or do not receive" (p. 202). In most of the countries, teachers perceived they were making a significant difference in education and achieving progress with their students.

Yet, negative results from TALIS reported that, on average, 13% of teachers received no appraisal and feedback from principals on their work; fewer than four in ten teachers worked in schools where school evaluations were linked to the school budget; and nearly half of all teachers thought that their school principals did not use effective methods to determine teacher performance within their school (Schleicher, 2011, p. 210). These negative responses reflected a need to improve the evaluation process at the building level.

This phenomenon of principals not providing feedback and lacking the skills to complete an effective evaluation was representative of the concerns reported in previous research on teacher evaluation. Zimmerman and Deckert-Pelton (2003) noted that many stakeholders would agree principals were "key players" in the success of an effective teacher evaluation (p. 28). Yet, Toch (2008) observed that the typical teacher evaluation in public education "consists of a single, fleeting classroom visit by a principal or other building administrator untrained in evaluation who wields a checklist of classroom conditions and teacher behaviors that often don't focus directly on the quality of instruction" (p. 32).

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (1991) noted that key features for a high-quality teacher evaluation system were "professionally credible, publicly acceptable, legally defensible, administratively feasible and economically affordable" (p. 13). The standards stressed that the actions taken by the evaluator must be fair and transparent to assure a mutual respect for the process and the summative evaluation must be meaningful to the teacher while having an impact on improving student achievement.

In his report regarding supervision and evaluation of teachers, O'Pry (2011) found through his research that the value a principal placed on the evaluation instrument was very important and a direct factor on teacher perceptions during the evaluation process. Zimmerman and Deckert-Perlton (2003) reported that unfortunately, for multiple reasons, teacher evaluations were often placed too low on the principals' list of priorities for the process to maintain any level of integrity or value.

Lack of training or conceptualization of the formal evaluation process by principals has long been an issue impacting the validity of the evaluation process. Perhaps this study would create an awareness of the relationship between a mandatory educational policy and how principals perceived their role as a policy stakeholder/implementer in their schools.

The results of this study have the potential of leading to additional coursework in principal preparation programs in Michigan. Members of the Michigan higher education community need to remain current on the passage of the educational policies in Michigan;

students need to be prepared for twenty-first century public leadership roles (Fowler, 2009, p. 20). For principals, professional development at the district, county and/or state levels may introduce or reinforce the skills and strategies required to successfully navigate the implementation of a mandated educational policy. Developing an understanding of potential positive and negative outcomes from a mandated educational policy would prepare principals, personally and professionally, for future challenges.

Definition of Terms

Teacher evaluation: a formative and summative process involving an observation of the teacher with a written summary of teacher performance with a focus on increasing teacher effectiveness in the classroom thereby raising student achievement.

Formative evaluation: occurs once or numerous times throughout the school year: typically focusing on one teaching practice (Peterson, 2004; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001). The principal may hold a conference with the teacher prior to the observation or the observation may be unannounced. Thrun (2010) defines the purpose of the formative evaluation process is to review identified goals designed to improve instruction and student growth. It is not to be punitive in nature (p. 7).

Summative evaluation: the final observation with written documentation to measure teacher performance and may be in a narrative or checklist format. This holistic evaluation considers previous formative evaluations and should reflect multiple classroom visits. Summative evaluations assist in providing the information to determine advancement or dismissal (Peterson, 2004; Spillane et al., 2001).

Unannounced observation: observation of a teacher that is not scheduled and may last the entire class period or be a walk-through.

Walk-through: a form of observation that usually lasts three to five minutes with the principal entering the classroom and typically observing a specific component of the lesson (Peterson, 2004, p. 62).

Principal: designated leader of a school building and is often synonymous with "administrator," "instructional leader," "building manager," "policy implementer," "policy stakeholder," or "evaluator."

Principalship: refers to the position of being a principal: the post of principal in the organization.

Instructional leader: the principal who focuses on building goals, allocates resources for instruction, examines curriculum and lesson plans, emphasizes teaching and learning, and evaluates teachers (Jenkins, 2009). A role of the principal.

Manager-administrator or building manager: the principal who is focused upon the day-to- day management of the building rather than teaching and learning due to bureaucratic tasks, lack of time, additional paperwork, discipline issues, and/or the perceived role of the principal by the community (Fullan, 1991; Jenkins, 2009). Synonymous with the term "manager." A role of the principal.

Policy implementer or policy stakeholder: the principal charged with the implementation of an educational policy. For this study, the policy is the Michigan School Reform Law that contains the mandatory teacher evaluation policy. A role of the principal.

Value-added measures (VAM): written assessments completed by students and tied to teachers to measure teacher effectiveness. A value-added assessment uses a statistical process that allows school districts to measure changes in student academic scores over time and attaches these scores to a teacher: labeling the teacher either effective or ineffective

(Doran & Fleischman, 2005). It is a tool that measures student growth over time based on assessment data (Office of Psychometrics, Accountability, Research and Evaluation, PowerPoint slide 5, 2012).

The Michigan School Reform Law (2009): a law containing a teacher evaluation policy requiring the annual evaluation of teachers with evaluation of job performance tied to student growth data using a VAM as one component of performance assessment.

Michigan Legislature: a bicameral body consisting of the Senate, the upper house, and the House of Representatives, the lower house, who, in this study, is considered the "owner" of the organization that is driving the implementation of the evaluation policy (Atkinson and McCrindell, 1997).

Michigan Council of Educator Effectiveness (MCEE), previously known as The Governor's Council (2011): an agency charged with recommending evaluation tools and a process for mandatory teacher evaluations and/or approving existing evaluation tools used in local Michigan school districts (MCEE Update Report, 2013). The Council comprises five voting members including Deborah Ball (Dean of the University of Michigan School of Education), Mark Reckase (Professor in the Measurement and Quantitative Methods Program at Michigan State University), Nicholas Sheltrown (Director of Measurement, Research and Accountability at National Heritage Academies), David Vensel (principal of Jefferson High School in Monroe) and Jennifer Hammond (principal of Grand Blanc High School). Joseph Martineau (Executive Director of the Bureau of Assessment and Accountability) is a non-voting member (MCEE, 2012).

MCEE Advisory Council: comprised of fifteen members, chaired by Dan L. DeGrow (R), created to advise the MCEE. Ongoing consultants (two members) and external reviewers (four members) also play a role in advising the MCEE.

Owner: a term used synonymously with terms of “company,” “firm” or “organization” to demonstrate leadership within the hierarchical nature of management: those of authority who have the responsibility to lead members of an organization to achieve a given task or goal.

Public school: an elementary or secondary school in the United States supported by public funds for the education of the children. A charter or public school academy is considered a “public” school.

Public school academy (PSA): a state supported public school under the state constitution, operating under a charter contract issued by a public authorizing body. PSAs are also commonly referred to as charter schools.

State evaluation/state model: a “standardized method for the evaluation of educators that includes student growth as well as other measures” (Office of Psychometrics, Accountability, Research and Evaluation, PowerPoint slide 5, 2011).

State tool: the evaluation format a district uses or is piloted and recommended by the MCEE.

Stakeholders: a single individual, a group of individuals or a subset of an identifiable group of individuals (Jones, 1995; Scott & Lane, 2000). Freeman (1984) defined the term “stakeholder” noting, “a stakeholder in an organization is any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization’s objectives” (p. 46).

Stakeholder theory: originally proposed as a theory for business and management that attempts to define the relationship between owners and stakeholders by observing the management practices implemented for the pursuit of articulated organizational goals. The work of Atkinson and McCrindell (1997), Brugha and Varvasovszky (2000), Donaldson and Preston (1995), Freeman (1984), Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar and De Colle (2010), Johnson-Cramer (2008), Day, Harris and Hadfield (2001), Jones (1995), and Jones and Wick (1999) will be the guideposts found within the theoretical framework of this study. This is not to minimize the work of others in the field of stakeholder theory, nor is it to eliminate their work from this study. Rather it is to assist in focusing the study when examining the relationship between the implementation of public policy and policy stakeholders/implementers (principals) by these identified theorists.

Delimitations and Limitations

This study examined the perceptions of K-12 public school and public school academy (charter) principals in the state of Michigan through the use of a quantitative questionnaire and one open ended question. The delimitations for demographic data included: gender, building level of principalship, size of student population, years as a teacher and administrator, administrative credentials, ethnicity, school location, size of teaching staff, ability to share responsibilities for completing evaluations with an assistant principal or designated staff, identification as a focus or priority school, and implementation of a state-approved evaluation model or a district model. For the construct of demographics or principals' characteristics, the researcher selected, credentialing, and years working in the role of principal (principalship) as variables in the study. In research question 3, the variables of "race" and "years of teaching experience" were also included for analysis and results were reported in Chapter 4 to assist in understanding who the respondents were for this questionnaire.

The study only considered MCEE and Michigan legislative decisions made prior to the time survey item statements were designed: March 2014. Future decisions by either body would not be a factor in determining the results of this study. Only one level of stakeholder was considered: the role of the principal in Michigan schools. The only law used in this study was the Michigan School Reform Law of 2009, with the teacher evaluation policy from this law as the focus. Although there were multiple theorists for stakeholder theory, this study narrowed the interpretation of stakeholder theory to nine theorists.

A limitation of the study was the number of principals or respondents to the questionnaire. The researcher made repeated attempts to attain additional responses, but with a 14% response rate, it was determined that the study needed to move forward with an analysis of data.

Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to identify and develop an understanding of the relationships between the perceptions of principals regarding the Michigan mandatory evaluation policy and job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and stress as they attempted to navigate the roles of building manager, instructional leader and specifically that of policy stakeholder.

The six research questions designed for this study included:

1. How knowledgeable are principals of the Michigan Teacher Evaluation Policy mandates?

2. Is there an association between principals' perceptions of the input process for teacher evaluation policy formation and implementation with job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and level of stress?
3. What is the relationship between principals' characteristics, job satisfaction, self-efficacy and level of stress with Michigan principals' knowledge of the teacher evaluation policy?
4. Are there any within or between-group differences by gender, credentials, or years in the principalship regarding implementation of the teacher evaluation policy?
5. To what extent do demographic characteristics, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, level of stress, and knowledge of the teacher evaluation policy predict principal perceptions of policy implementation?
6. What support do principals say they need in order to implement the new teacher evaluation policy?

There were multiple issues to be examined when gaining insight into the relationship between principals' perceptions of the policy driving implementation of the mandatory evaluation process and job satisfaction, self-efficacy and stress. One issue was the possibility that principals believed they had no voice in implementation of this teacher evaluation process. These six research questions were addressed through the analysis of the perceptions of Michigan principals, as policy stakeholders/implementers, using the lens of stakeholder theory.

Research Design and Methodology

Using stakeholder theory as a theoretical framework, items for the questionnaire were developed to allow for an examination of principal's perceptions of the mandated policy.

The focus of this descriptive/correlational study was to determine, through data collection, if there was a relationship between the mandatory educational policy, designed by legislators, and job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and stress in the personal and professional lives of Michigan principals. Data were gathered, through a web-based survey, to identify the potential relationships.

The motivation to complete a quantitative study was to gather a sense of what was happening in public schools throughout the state of Michigan to gain a focused view of how principals perceived their responsibility to implement a new evaluation policy. Items in the questionnaire were designed to collect demographic data and uncover perceptions held by respondents regarding policy implementation, prior experience in the evaluation process, how respondents defined their role(s) as a principal, how principals (as stakeholders) felt supported throughout the implementation process, and to gather perceptions regarding the implementation process, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and stress. As a correlational study, responses were not used to determine causes or the impact of a mandatory policy, but rather to examine relationships between variables and constructs and predict causal relationships through regression analysis.

Population

The population of this study was K-12 public and charter school principals in the state of Michigan as a consensus sampling. Constructs and variables included gender, building grade level, student population, teaching and administrative certification, years experience, ethnicity, location of the school, size of teaching staff, if the school was a focus or priority school, the evaluation model currently implemented, and if there was a designee such as an assistant principal or department chair to assist in the observations within the school. These variables were valuable when completing a statistical analysis of the data to determine potential relationships in this study.

Interest by the Michigan Department of Education Research Department in this study allowed for access to all email addresses for public schools using the Educational Entity Master (EEM) system in Michigan. The EEM is a repository containing the numbers and basic contact information for public, nonpublic schools, intermediate school districts and institutions of higher education (Center for Educational Performance and Information website); however, only public and charter school emails were accessed for the study. The opportunity to reach out to all public and charter school leaders in Michigan was made possible with the Uniform Resource Locator (URL) provided by Matt Gleason at the Michigan Department of Education.

The questionnaire was sent to all public and charter school principals in the EEM system. At the time of the questionnaire, the population was comprised of 4,126 Michigan public and charter schools: 2,158 elementary schools, 659 middle schools and 687 high schools. Determining the relative frequency distribution showed the proportion or percentage of respondents within the total population to legitimatize the number of responses collected.

Data Collection Process

The data collection, to assist in describing the potential relationships found between educational policy and Michigan principals, was completed using a cross-sectional questionnaire sent on May 12, 2014. The questionnaire was developed and published in a web-based survey format on SurveyMonkey. Items were designed to collect information on demographic variables and constructs and to gather principals' perceptions regarding their knowledge of the Michigan School Reform Law, the recommendations for implementation published by the MCEE, and their candid perceptions, as policy stakeholders, of the relationship between job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and stress and the implementation of the evaluation policy.

Participation was voluntary with respondents completing the questionnaire through SurveyMonkey in response to an email through their school's email system. Along with the questionnaire, participants received a letter containing informed consent as required by the EMU IRB and explaining the purpose of the study. The letter guaranteed anonymity for the respondents and the survey did not capture personal information as the storage of email addresses was disabled. Responses were sent to SurveyMonkey through secure, encrypted SSL/TLS connections and respondents were tracked through a unique ID.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

The review of literature has been organized to define and support the use of stakeholder theory as the conceptual framework in a study of educational policy and specifically the perceptions for principals regarding the mandatory teacher evaluation policy. First, the historical development of the 2009 Michigan School Reform Law is presented and the impact of policy development in education is addressed.

Next, the literature review delineates and supports the use of stakeholder theory as the conceptual framework in an educational setting. A third section pertains to the Michigan School Reform Law, and examines teacher evaluation and the evaluation pilots selected for use in Michigan. Finally, the literature review addresses the three themes used as constructs for the study and the three identified roles of the principal: instructional leader, building manager, and policy stakeholder and the potential positive and/or negative outcomes experienced by principals as policy stakeholders in the implementation process and how this relates to their job satisfaction, self-efficacy and stress.

Prior to the introduction of stakeholder theory as the conceptual framework or determining the impact of the mandated evaluation process on principals, it was important to understand the components of the actual policy and the legislative and governmental actions leading to the creation of this policy. Each legislative action, initiated by Governor Granholm or Governor Snyder or members of the Michigan legislature, affected stakeholders through the creation of educational policy in the form of mandates and directives.

Michigan's Birth of an Educational Policy

The issue of teacher evaluation, in Michigan, centered on two separate pieces of legislation and the Race to the Top application (Martin, 2009, December 19). Race to the

Top, in 2010, was a competitive grant using federal monies made available to states that were leading the way on school reform (Martin, 2009; MDE, 2010). Funded by the 2009 federal budget and ARRA funds ($4.35 billion), states submitted an application demonstrating reforms in education in four significant areas:

- Adopting internationally benchmarked standards and assessments to prepare students for success in college and the workplace;
- Recruiting, developing, rewarding, and retaining effective teachers and principals;
- Building data systems that measure student success and inform teachers and principals how to improve their practices;
- Turning around our lowest performing schools (U.S. Department of Education, 2009).

Michigan had the potential of receiving $400 million to $600 million if awarded the grant.

On January 5, 2010, Michigan Governor Jennifer Granholm signed into law a package of five legislative bills to reform Michigan's educational system (Ackley, Department of Education, 2010). Michigan needed to pass these reforms prior to submitting their Race to the Top application and entering the competition for federal funds. Unfortunately, the state was not selected to receive any funding; however, the bills had "profound changes" on teacher evaluations in Michigan (MEA, n.d. p. 1). Fowler (2009) reported that "activist governors who place education high on their policy agenda can have a great impact not only within their own states, but nationally as well" (p. 146).

Martin (2009) noted that the package had five main bills "most of which were hastily written and drew some opposition from the members of the Republican-led Senate and the Democrat-led House" (p. 1). Sen. Mike Prusi, D-Ispheming, reported, "the legislation went too far, too fast. Lawmakers jammed through the legislation weeks after guidelines for the Race to the Top competition was announced last month" (Martin, 2009, p.2).

This five-bill package (House Bills 4787-4788, House Bill 5596, and Senate Bills 926 and 981) included the following measures: a statewide structure to turn around the lowest-performing five percent of public schools; a process to improve instruction by providing supports to teachers and administrators whose students were not showing academic improvement over time; the expansion of quality charter schools; and providing alternate routes to teacher and administrator certification (Michigan Department of Education, 2010).

A final component of the bills required an annual evaluation of teachers and principals using data on student growth. Sections of the bill stipulated the need for:

- annual evaluations of teachers and principals;
- measuring data for student growth;
- evaluation of job performance tied with student growth data;
- using evaluations, at a minimum, to make decisions on effectiveness of teachers and administrators with opportunities for improvement provided;
- promotion, retention based on the development of teachers and administrators;
- decisions to grant tenure or full certification;
- removal of ineffective tenured and untenured teachers and school administrators after ample opportunities to improve (MDE, 2010).

Senate Bill 981 contained the Revised School Code section that impacted the evaluation system. This collection of bills was known as the Michigan School Reform Law.

Specifically HB 4787 (PA 204) and 4788 (PA 201) were sponsored by Rep. Tim Melton (D) and Rep. Bert Johnson (D) and HB 5596 (PA 202) sponsored by Rep. Phillip

Pavlov (R). Rep. Johnson was a member of the education committee. In the Senate, SB 981 (PA 205) was sponsored by Sen. Kuipers (R) and SB 926 (PA 203) was sponsored by Sen. S. Thomas (D). This package of five bills was considered a Tie Bar package with passage dependent on the approval of all five bills (2009 Michigan Public Acts Table).

Democrats and Republicans supported the reform even without the possibility for federal funding. The two lawmakers who created the bill package were Sen. Wayne Kuipers (R-Holland) and Rep. Tim Melton (D-Pontiac.) Melton, who was the Chair of the House Education Committee, and House Republican Leader Kevin Eisenheimer agreed the reform was long overdue.

State teacher unions, the Michigan Education Association (MEA) and the American Federation of Teachers Michigan, were not as pleased with this legislation. They had supported all the aspects of the Race to the Top application including alternative certification, using student data as a component of employee evaluation, and measures to turn around struggling schools. Unfortunately, unions were not happy with the section of Michigan legislation delineating the loss of collective bargaining rights for employees in struggling schools.

Fowler (2009) reported that teacher unions were the most powerful education interest group. Thomas and Hrebenar (2004) found in their study that teachers’ unions were the second-most powerful group at the state level. In a study completed by Hartney and Flavin (2011), teacher unions were found to be influential in state educational reform debates and had an impact on decisions regarding state educational policies. However, the Michigan teacher unions were unable to impact the passage of educational policy in this situation.

Once the reforms were passed and Governor Granholm signed them into law, the Race to the Top application became a priority. Superintendent of Public Instruction, Mike Flanagan, noted the successful agreement of all interest groups who participated in the development of the Race to the Top application. On May 11, 2010 all three of the required state officials, Governor Granholm, State Superintendent of Public Instruction Mike Flanagan and State Board of Education President Kathleen Straus, signed the application (MDE, 2010).

The MDE (2010) noted that numerous public and private organizations sent letters of support. Michigan Association of School Boards, Michigan Association of School Administrators, Michigan Education Association, American Federation of Teachers-Michigan, Michigan Association of Public School Academies, school principals, Detroit Regional Chamber of Commerce, Ford Motor Company, Michigan Parent Teacher Student Association, post-secondary universities and community colleges, Early Childhood Investment Corporation, and national and regional philanthropic organizations and foundations all supported the reforms and Race to the Top application (MDE, 2010).

The letters of support from all school districts, letters requested by Granholm and Flanagan, required the signatures of the superintendent, the school board president and teacher union head from each district (MDE, 2010). District union heads initially resisted signing a letter, but eventually signed with the reasoning that the reform laws were already in place and not signing the letter could potentially hurt Michigan's chances for receiving Race to the Top monies (Luke, 2010). It was also reported that any letter that did not have a local union official's signature would not be included in the application and remove the district from qualifying for a federal grant (MDE, 2010).

At the National Education Association's (NEA) 2010 annual meeting, delegates voted "no confidence" regarding Race to the Top. NEA was critical of the component of tying student test scores to teacher retention or tenure. Randi Weingarten, president of the American Federation of Teachers, noted that Race to the Top created a "contest of winners and losers" and that the focus was not on offering students a high-quality education (Manna, 2010).

A second piece of legislation was tied to teacher tenure during the start of Governor Richard Synder's (R) term of office. Governor Snyder called for tenure change in his April 2011 *Special Address on Education* (four months after entering office) and pressed lawmakers to complete work on this legislation before they left for summer recess (Luke, 2011). Revard (2011) quoted Snyder as "requesting that the state legislature reform Michigan's "antiquated" tenure law" (p. 2). Pagani (2011) noted that Snyder then called "for an end to the current approach to education that is rooted in a mostly farm-based society, to one that prepares students for the technological age of today and the jobs of tomorrow" (p. 1). Pagani (2011) continued by suggesting Governor Snyder's policy proposal was based on his experiences during his career in the private sector (p. 2).

Revard (2011), from Michigan Policy Network, reported on Governor Snyder's proposal of creating a financial relationship between school funding and school performance. A district would receive a funding bonus if the schools demonstrated an increase in reading, math and other subjects highlighted by the MDE (p. 1).

Often considered "Round II" of Michigan's educational reform, a four bill package was sponsored by Rep. Bill Rogers (R), Rep. Paul Scott (R), Margaret O'Brien (R) and Ken Yonker (R) (State of Michigan, July 2011). Governor Snyder signed the legislation and reported his pleasure that the bills supported his comprehensive plan to reinvent Michigan's educational system (michigan.gov, 2011).

Prince (2011) from the Michigan Policy Network, noted Republicans and supporters of these bills believed they were necessary to ensure student success. She reported that State Rep. Ouitmet (R) expressed the need to "make sure our most effective teachers remain in our classrooms" (p. 1). Tenure would be determined by identifying effective teaching through the teacher evaluation process.

Sen. Kahn (R), sponsoring SB 503, set out to examine the current tenure laws recently passed in July, 2011, and questioned the new tenure practices in Michigan. As noted previously, HB 4625-4628 lengthened the time to reach tenure status, impacted the initial probationary period, removed components of collective bargaining in union talks and the idea of "last in, first out" for teacher lay-off was eliminated (2009 Michigan Public Act Table). The proposed SB 503 was sent to the Senate Education Committee for review.

Pratt (2011), MEA Director of Public Affairs, noted the support of MEA on the newly proposed Senate bill as it was missing some of the inferred "attacks on teachers" (Wheaton, p. 2). Pratt (2011) reported that MEA supported the concept of removing ineffective teachers from the classroom and noted MEA President Kris Salters believed that SB 503 focused on the value of the tenure process rather than "simply disguising an outright attack on the due process and collective bargaining rights of school employees, as was done with House Bills 4625-4628" (p. 1).

With the successful passage of this bill through the Michigan House and Senate and signed into law by Governor Snyder, the issue became the implementation of the policy. The impact of a policy, specifically an educational policy, may be addressed by examining the work of Furgol and Helms (2012) and Roach, Smith and Boutin (2010).

Policy Creation and Education

Furgol and Helms (2012) completed a case study that provided strategies for educators who wished to understand policymaking and influence policy outcomes by examining the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB). They addressed the need for stakeholders to create opportunities for participation in policy making. For Michigan, professional organizations included Michigan Association of School Administrators (MASA), Michigan Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (Michigan ASCD), Michigan Elementary and Secondary Principals Association (MEMSPA), Michigan Education Association (MEA) and Michigan Council for Educator Effectiveness (MCEE). Each had been following the progress of the legislative process for implementation of the evaluation policy and contacting constituents with updated information.

Roach, Smith and Boutin (2010) studied the trends in state policy for school-based education administrators as an indicator of institutional isomorphism. They believed that state policy makers copied the work of legislators in other states to develop a sense of legitimacy. Rather than focusing on efficiency and effectiveness, policy makers created levels of professionalization and certainty by following the work of other states (p.71).

The researchers studied the state regulations for all fifty states and found high levels of conformity with little space for alternative programming. They concluded that this trend would continue due to the tight coupling of the environment surrounding educational administration. They also noted that state policy existed in laws, codes, and executive orders and could exist in flux, pending final approval for years.

This supported the path the Michigan Reform Law had followed: although passed in 2009, it was still in the early stages of implementation with evaluation tools and processes still not finalized in 2013. Roach et al. (2010) concluded in their study that state policy makers needed to become aware of institutional isomorphism and the impact of this on policy creation as well as seeking out other stakeholders to offer input on policy development.

Furgol and Helms (2012) supported this concept of policy in flux when they noted that policy evolved “propelled by the processes and environments that shape delivery” (p. 778). Policy issues were found to be addressed at each government level and solutions tended to develop an impetus of their own.

They continued with the premise that public policy was similar to making promises and implementing them. Stakeholders who were involved in the implementation were transforming public promises into concrete practices including rulemaking. This implementation was conducted through institutional technologies that “link public and private agencies as well as stakeholders across all levels of delivery in education” (p.780).

Rulemaking, an alternative form of policy implementation, provided stakeholders opportunities for leverage, rather than being leveraged, by policy mandates. When Furgol and Helms (2012) examined the NCLB Act, they found Congressional legislation allowed for the refinement or expansion of the policy due to rulemaking. This concept of rulemaking explained specific actions taken by stakeholders, like those school districts in Michigan who examined the evaluation policy and submitted a waiver if the evaluation tool selected did not meet individual district needs.

Roach et al. (2010) noted the contribution principals, as building leaders, made to the success of schools and students. Yet, policy makers also had concerns regarding the supply of qualified school leaders due to the challenges principals were facing. Multiple studies existed supporting the relationship between principals and student achievement and the challenges they faced (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; Lezotte, 1994; Waters, Marzano & McNulty, 2003).

DiMaggio and Powell (1983) introduced three types of institutional isomorphism: coercive, mimetic and normative. Coercive isomorphism was mandated change or occurred due to strong cultural pressure to conform. One example was the state programs for special education: many were very similar due to federal government oversight requiring compliance of specific laws and policies.

Mimetic isomorphism occurred when an institution had a need for certainty when faced with ambiguous goals. An example of this was the mandated evaluation policy in Michigan that was similar to the policy found in other states. Teacher evaluation, as reported by Hazi and Arrendondo Rucinski (2009), had generated policy approaches across states attempting to legally address this issue (as cited in Roach et al., 2010, p. 77).

Finally, normative isomorphism stemmed from an organization's goal to promote professionalism and legitimatize its membership. Teacher and administrative certification requirements were examples of legitimizing these education professions.

Conceptual Framework

Stakeholder Theory

Defined originally by Freeman (1984), stakeholder theory addressed the issue of value creation and trade. He believed a majority of business theories relied on separating business and ethical decision making (1994). With the many changes in business relationships dependent upon national, industry and societal contexts, early theorists were concerned with how to understand business in such a turbulent environment (Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar, De Colle, 2010).

In his seminal report, Freeman defined stakeholders as groups and individuals who have a stake in the success or failure of a business (Freeman et al., 2010, p. xv). Jones (1995) identified stakeholders as a single individual, a group of individuals or a subset of an identifiable group of individuals such as baby boomers or unionized employees. Phillips (1997) introduced stakeholder theory with the concept that the firm had obligations to individuals and groups of people, in addition to shareowners.

Stakeholder theorists, in the past, had been training managers and executives in a capitalistic business environment or taught at business schools (Freeman et al., 2010). The theory itself had three aspects according to Donaldson and Preston (1995) thereby creating a descriptive stakeholder theory, instrumental stakeholder theory or normative stakeholder theory.

Donaldson and Preston reported the descriptive model defined the corporation as a “constellation of cooperative and competitive interests possessing intrinsic value” (p. 66). This model described or possibly explained corporate characteristics and behaviors. The descriptive aspect of stakeholder theory covered past, present and future affairs of the corporation and its stakeholders. Jones (1995) agreed with this explanation noting that descriptive formulations of the theory explained how firms or their managers behaved.

Instrumental stakeholder theory created a framework for “examining the connections, if any, between the practice of stakeholder management and the achievement of various corporate performance goals” (p. 67). Donaldson and Preston (1995) noted there were traditional corporate objectives to be achieved such as profitability and growth (1995). Jones

(1995) described instrumental stakeholder theory as what happened if firms or managers behaved in specific ways.

Manuel-Navarrete and Modvar (2007) also addressed the issue of stakeholding having a dual nature: that of an instrumental-normative quality. Encouraging stakeholder participation enhanced the organization's management capabilities and promoted the concept that all who were included made it morally superior. Specifically, they claimed that stakeholder theory was seeking to "describe and examine the connections between stakeholder legitimate interests, stakeholder management practices, and the achievement of the goals of an organization" (p. 3).

Finally, stakeholder theory could be normative, according to Donaldson and Preston (1995) who supported the perception that stakeholders were "persons or groups with legitimate interests in procedural and/or substantive aspects of corporate activity" (p. 67). Specifically, they believed that the normative core offered alternatives when identifying the types of relationships that developed between stakeholders. The moral or philosophical guidelines were identified when operating and managing a corporation. Jones (1995) defined this as the moral propriety of the behavior of firms and managers.

Donaldson and Preston (1995) then proposed that stakeholder theory was managerial in nature. Stakeholder management required "simultaneous attention to the legitimate interests of all appropriate stakeholders, both in the establishment of organizational structures and general policies and in case-by-case decision making" (p. 67). The theory did not assume either equality among stakeholders or that they should be involved in all decisions.

Mitchell, Agle, Wood (1997) noted stakeholder theory had existed within a management environment for many years. They defined it as a theory of "stakeholder identification and salience" based upon three attributes: power, legitimacy and urgency (p. 853). They reported that stakeholders had power when the manager saw them as having the ability to enforce their will on the organization; legitimacy when managers saw stakeholder claims as appropriate within the standards of the organization; and having urgency when stakeholder claims were timely or critical to them. In stakeholder theory, a stakeholder might be any type of entity, person, group, organization, or institution that deserved attention from management.

Mitchell et al. (1997) noted that there were multiple definitions of "stakeholder" and provided the rationales for identification. They explained when a relationship existed between the firm and stakeholders there were two basic frames of thought. The first was that the firm was dependent upon the stakeholder for its survival; the second was that the stakeholder depended upon the firm to protect its rights and/or achieve its interest (p. 862). Rationales for stakeholder identification included:

1. Power dependence-stakeholder dominant when the firm is dependent upon the stakeholder;
2. Power dependence-firm dominant when the stakeholder is dependent upon the firm;
3. Mutual power-dependence relationship when the firm and stakeholder are mutually dependent;
4. Basis for legitimacy of relationship with the firm and stakeholder is in a contractual relationship;
5. The stakeholder has a claim on the firm;
6. The stakeholder has something at risk;
7. The stakeholder has a moral claim on the firm;

8. Stakeholder interests when legitimacy is not implied when the stakeholder has an interest in the firm (p. 860)

Mitchell et al. (1997) were able to identify this power-dependence relationship between owners and stakeholders after their study of existing literature and theorists. They were able to define a normative theory of stakeholder identification to “explain logically why managers should consider certain classes of entities as stakeholders” (p. 853). Secondly, they examined stakeholder theory as a descriptive theory thereby explaining the conditions “under which managers do consider certain classes of entities as stakeholders” (p. 853).

Multiple interpretations of stakeholder theory regarding the relationship between stakeholder and firm/company existed when Mitchell et al. (1997) completed their study. They excelled at encapsulating the multiple phenomena of stakeholder theory when they created the following chronology of premise and theorist:

- the company as dependent upon stakeholders (see Freeman and Reed, 1983);
- the stakeholder as holding a right on the company (see Evan and Freeman, 1988);
- the stakeholder having a moral right over the company (according to Carroll, 1989);
- the company and the stakeholder as engaged in contractual relations (as in Hill and Jones, 1992);
- the company as holding power over the stakeholder (see Carroll, 1993);
- the position of the stakeholder towards the company (e.g. Starik, 1994);
- the stakeholder as dependent on the company (as is the case in Langtry, 1994);
- the company and stakeholder as mutually dependent (e.g. Wicks et al., 1994);
- the stakeholder as running some kind of risk (see Clarkson, 1994);

> - the stakeholder as having an interest in the company (see Clarkson, 1995);
> - the stakeholder wielding power over the company (according to Brenner, 1995); or
> - the relationship between the company and stakeholders (as in Freeman, 1997)
>
> (p. 858)

Jawahar and McLaughlin (2001) noted that certain stakeholders were more important than others during the organization's life cycle, with stakeholders losing importance as the organization evolved to the next stage. The value of the stakeholder impacted how an organization dealt with that stakeholder when compared to others (p. 397). Jawahar and McLaughlin (2001) reported that the behaviors of organizations could be predicted by where the organization was in its life cycle.

In their study they used resource dependence theory, prospect theory and organizational life cycle models to develop a stakeholder theory (p. 397). Additionally, Jawahar and McLaughlin (2001) examined the work of Carroll (1979), Clarkson (1991), and Wartick and Cochran (1985) regarding the concept of proaction in stakeholder theory: addressing stakeholder issues, anticipating and addressing concerns, or leading an industry effort to address a concern (p. 400).

Mainardes, Alves and Raposo (2011) noted that the following theories of corporate planning, systems theory, corporate social responsibility and organizational theory all played a role in the development of stakeholder theory. In their study, they configured a company as "a set of relationships, explicit or implicit across both the internal and external environments" (p. 231).

Gray, Kouhy and Lavers (1995) believed stakeholder theory aided in determining societal norms through the identification of key stakeholders. Their longitudinal study examined the relationship between stakeholder theory, legitimacy theory and political economy theory using accounting firms in the United Kingdom in their study.

Scott and Lane (2000) reported on organizational identity and identity construction defining organizational identity as a set of beliefs between managers and stakeholders about specific or distinctive characteristics of an organization. "Goals, missions, practices, values, and action (as well as lack of action) contribute to shaping organizational identities, in that they differentiate one organization from other organizations in the eyes of managers and stakeholders" (p. 45).

Scott and Lane (2000) continued by examining stakeholder theory as a means to establish manager-stakeholder relationships. They reinforced the concept that for managers, stakeholders were very important as they had a direct influence on organizational performance or survival (p. 53). They were looking to reframe organizational identity as a shared set of beliefs between managers and stakeholders, much as Schein (1990) did when he defined culture "as a pattern of basic assumptions, invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation or internal integration" (p. 111).

In a 1999 study, Jones and Wicks examined stakeholder theory through a social science and normative ethics approach. Their theory suggested "managers can create morally sound approaches to business and make it work" (p. 206). Looking at stakeholder theory through a social science approach, they referred to the previous work of Jones and his essay from the 1994 Toronto Conference. They outlined the basic domain of stakeholder theory, defined in studies in the 1980s and 1990s, as: the corporation had relationships with many constituent groups (stakeholders); the theory was concerned with the nature of these relationships in terms of processes and outcomes for the firm and its stakeholders; the interests of all stakeholders had intrinsic value; and the theory focused on managerial decision making.

Jones (1994) originally designed one proposition that was unique to stakeholder theory: “managers behave as if stakeholders mattered because of the intrinsic justice of their [the stakeholders’] claims on the firm” (p. 100). Jones and Wicks, in their 1999 study, proposed that managers do not behave as if stakeholders had morally valid claims on the firm (p. 208). The goal for Jones and Wicks was to unify the two approaches, found in the 1994 and 1999 studies, to create a theory they labeled “convergent stakeholder theory.”

Johnson-Cramer (2008) defined stakeholder theory by first clarifying what a stakeholder was when he noted that every company “exists in a network of relationships with social actors that affect and are affected by the company’s efforts to achieve its objectives. These actors are the company’s stakeholders, implying they hold a stake in its conduct” (p. 3). Stakeholder theory was then determined to be the study of relationships between stakeholders, their origins, and their implications for how companies behave.

Johnson-Cramer (2008) reported upon three major problems regarding the treatment of stakeholders: the identification, distribution and procedure. With the large number of actors found within a company, identification involved the determination of which actors had enough moral standing to even be considered stakeholders.

Preston and Sapienza (1990) defined stakeholder management as the “proposition that business corporations can and should serve the interests of multiple stakeholders” (as cited in

Freeman et al., 2010, p. 98). They believed this was important for the success of the organization. This definition reinforced the beliefs of Donaldson and Preston (1995) who felt that stakeholder theory was a moral theory.

Phillips (2003) argued that the company owed obligations proportional to the relative contribution the stakeholder was making toward the success of the organization. As with all stakeholder theorists, the theme of relationships within or outside the organization was supported by his research. Mainardes et al. (2011) noted that the stakeholder model illustrated the relationships between the different groups of actors surrounding a company.

Returning to the work of Freeman (1984), research in the concept of instrumental stakeholder theory supported arguments that companies who managed their stakeholder relations effectively would survive longer and perform better than those companies that did not manage stakeholders well. Johnson-Cramer (2008) reported that later research, in the early 1990s, explored the premise of stakeholders as moral agents: an ethics based theory.

Organizational ethics and stakeholder theory merged at this time with the identification of a "normative core from which to deduce the moral obligations of the company in dealing with its stakeholders" (Johnson-Cramer, 2008, p. 7). The main question dealt with the concept of who should receive the benefits of the corporation: the owners/managers or the stakeholders. The objective of the corporation, according to Donaldson and Preston (1995) and cited in Johnson-Cramer's (2008) study, was to maximize stakeholder wealth. This was considered the normative core, thus resulting in the support for a normative or ethics-based stakeholder theory.

Phillips (2003) stated that a company should consider all parties that participate in the cooperative scheme surrounding the company: the company had an obligation to attend to the needs of stakeholders as long as it received benefits from them. Stakeholders possessed a moral standing based on claims of fairness or reciprocity.

Phillips, Freeman, and Wicks (2003) extended the concept of receiving benefits when they reported that attention to "the interests and well-being of those who can assist or hinder the achievement of the organization's objectives is the central admonition of the theory" (p. 481). They supported the belief that concerns with fairness reflected the normative core of the theory.

Managing for stakeholders included communication between managers and stakeholders regarding the distribution of benefits. Phillips et al. (2003) determined that stakeholder theory was also concerned with those having input into the making of decisions: procedure was just as important as distribution. They reported regardless of how input was received, "it is important for the sake of ethics, psychological well-being, and organizational success that stakeholders be accorded some say in determining not only how much of the organization's outputs they receive, but how those outputs are created" (p. 490).

Payne and Calton (2004) studied the impact of multi-stakeholder dialogues within stakeholder networks. These dialogues involved parties significantly "affected by major issues or concerns, such as environmental sustainability" (p. 71). They reported that many organizations and institutions had promoted the use of multi-stakeholder dialogues to build relationships of caring and business social responsiveness. They noted that attitudes and communication styles of stakeholders, vocal and non-vocal behaviors, should be studied to discover participant perceptions of conflict/cooperation and relationship building.

Stakeholder Theory and Public Policy

Phillips (2003) in his study reported the problem of procedure and the proper role of stakeholders in the creation of strategies and policies that affect them. According to Johnson-Cramer (2008), companies, specifically large corporations, wield a great deal of power, similar to that of governmental power, over customers, employees and local communities (p. 11). The issue was if a company was obligated to work with stakeholders and should the company invite stakeholder input in policy decisions.

Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar and De Colle (2010) also examined the relationship of stakeholder theory to public policy and administration. They reported a lack of attention toward the normative dimensions of stakeholder theory (p. 181).

Altman and Petkus (1994) applied social marketing principles to the public policy process. This allowed for facilitating the efforts of governmental policy-makers and non-governmental stakeholders to identify their policy desires and move toward the acceptance of specific environmental policies. The social marketing practice improved the likelihood of successful policy implementation.

Stakeholder Analysis

Brugha and Varvasovszky (2000) suggested using stakeholder analysis as a tool or set of tools for “generating knowledge about actors-individuals and organizations-so as to understand their behavior, intentions, inter-relations and interests” (p. 338). They believed it was one method for conducting a policy analysis, predicting policy development, and implementing a policy. Stakeholder analysis should be completed to produce new knowledge regarding the actors involved in the policy-making processes. This analysis could take place at local, regional, national or international levels.

Brugha and Varvasovszky (2000) believed that it was important to complete a stakeholder analysis when issues became significantly important by focusing on groups within the policy-making process and how the process was attempting to predict or shape the future (p. 178). They noted this type of analysis would be successful when considering constituent groups, power and commitment to meet objectives.

Atkinson and McCrindell (1997) wrote in their study, "The interests of all stakeholders should be considered in setting and reviewing targets [targets being defined as the areas of performance to be assessed and the level of performance to be achieved]" (p. 20). They noted the setting of primary and secondary objectives should be left to the stakeholders in the organization.

They advised a need to gain knowledge of the key stakeholders and their expectations. Therefore, the next step in setting or retaining a target would require the completion of a stakeholder analysis to determine stakeholders' interests in the process.

Stakeholder Theory and Educational Organizations

In a study completed by Malen (1994), she noted that schools were "mini political systems, nested in multi-level governmental structures, charged with salient public service responsibilities and dependent on diverse constituencies" (p. 148). Continuing, she reported that principals were really powerless middle managers, who dealt with legislative mandates, district regulations, contracts, teacher and parent expectations as well as reflecting their personal values and beliefs. It was the role of the principal to buffer the school from the external environment and to filter demands.

Burkman (2010) completed a study addressing the role of civic and political responsibility in educational leadership. She believed that constituents in the business environment were similar to those in the educational environment: customers were parents and students; shareholders were parents, community and educators; and leadership included the superintendent, central office staff and principals. She reported that although it was difficult to generalize leadership as it was defined in corporate research, corporate leadership studies did provide information regarding specific leadership styles or societal norms that reflected the educational system.

Stakeholder Identity Within Educational Organizations

The concept of stakeholders within an educational system does not seem far-fetched: the term has universal connotations. Multiple studies have defined participants or organizational members as stakeholders within an educational system, including the work of Stonge (1997), Cousins and Withmore (1998), King and Ehlert (2008) and Harrison, Rouse and Villiers (2012). Stakeholders named in these studies have included teachers, parents, students, community members, the school district, departments of education or, in the case of this study, principals.

Stronge (1997) reported on a study of evaluation practices using 100 large school districts involving internal and external stakeholders. Stakeholder groups included business leaders, state department of education staff, central office staff, school site administrators, teachers, teacher organization representatives, parents and students (p. 2). The identified groups were necessary to gain political support for a new evaluation system.

Cousins and Whitmore (1998), in their study of schools, defined stakeholders as those with a vested interest in program evaluation and identified program sponsors, managers, developers and implementers as stakeholders. They supported the premise that school-based program evaluations, labeled participatory evaluations, focused on integrating the evaluation process into the culture of the school with stakeholders involved in all phases of the program evaluation.

They noted that these school-based evaluations were conducted internally and completed by school staff or internal stakeholders. The organization would be considered the school system and a relationship existed between those "managing" the system and the stakeholders completing the evaluations.

King and Ehlert (2008) also studied the participatory evaluation process used by Cousins and Whitmore. Using a large school district in Minnesota, three different studies were initiated. The data collection team from this special education study identified 130 stakeholder categories for representation in their study. Administrators, teachers, parents, and community representatives were several of the categories found within the initial list of stakeholder categories. In this study, the organization would be considered the school district.

Chapleo and Simms (2010) noted that stakeholder identification and management in private sectors could be found in the literature, but there was less research completed in the public and non-profit areas. In their study of a United Kingdom university, the researchers completed a stakeholder analysis to identify stakeholders and sub-sets of stakeholders in the university sector.

Educational Organizations, Stakeholders and Stakeholder Theory

Harrison et al. (2012) completed a study on performance measurement and accountability in the public sector. They chose to use school performance measurement since education systems had "a large number of stakeholders and service providers (i.e. schools) and is often subject to intense criticism for perceived failures in performance" (p.

244). They reported, supporting previous research completed by Cousins and Whitmore (1998) and King and Ehlert (2008), that a large range of stakeholders could be involved in the program evaluation process. They were one of the leading researchers to create a connection between stakeholder theory and educational systems.

Harrison et al. (2012) advanced the framework of stakeholder theory within their study. Their research used stakeholder theory to examine school performance, defined as student achievement influenced by teaching and other school or student resources. They observed the outputs of the school organization and identified key stakeholders.

Additionally, once stakeholder groups were identified their value to the organization was determined. Stakeholder theory was applied to schools defined as organizations, then the identification of a primary stakeholder was identified after examining stakeholder value and objectives.

Harrison et al. (2012) supported the concept of societal norms (Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Gray et al., 1995), when they noted that the power of stakeholders existed in their ability, as a group, to influence others thereby increasing the group's standing within society. The organization determined the relative value of certain norms, within society, when examining the power of the stakeholders advocating these norms. Additionally, they proposed that an increase in the power of stakeholders led to greater legitimacy for the organization.

Harrison et al. (2012) noted that educational system holds a large group of stakeholders who influence the creation of strategic objectives. They listed some of the educational stakeholders as students, parents, the general public, potential employers of students, taxpayers, teachers, school managers, school boards of trustees, the Department of

Education and the government. They believed that schools could only thrive if stakeholders observed societal norms.

Furthermore, if a conflict existed between stakeholders, the most powerful stakeholder's needs would be satisfied, even at a cost to weaker stakeholders. Not only did the powerful stakeholders reflect the norms in schools, Harrison et al. (2012) supported the concept that these stakeholders also were the primary actors in implementing necessary policy and management changes to improve performance in the organization (school).

Primary and Secondary Stakeholders

With the conceptualization of primary actors and powerful stakeholders, it was possible to see stakeholders through a hierarchical context. Stakeholders could be considered primary if they maintained a high level of power and legitimacy within the organization or worked with the organization. Secondary stakeholders could also be within or outside the organization but would have lower power, status or influence.

Manuel-Navarrete and Modvar (2007), for their study, identified primary stakeholders as those necessary for the firm's operation and survival. Secondary stakeholders were influenced by the firm's operations, although not directly engaged with the firm. Yet they could impact certain operations and activities of the firm.

In their 1997 study, Mitchell et al. attempted to define the concept of "stakeholder" and identified multiple definitions of the term. Stakeholders could be identified as primary or secondary stakeholders, supporting the premise of this study, as well as owners and non-owners of a firm, actors or those acted upon, resource providers or dependents of the firm, and risk-takers or influencers to name a few.

Application of Stakeholder Roles and Relationships: From Business to Education

While there were multiple individuals and groups identified as stakeholders, it was also possible to correlate the roles of individuals and groups in business and the roles of those in education. Terms such as organization and owners could now be identified as universities and the legislature.

A study completed by Christakis (2009) examined the stakeholder relationship between state governors and their state's public universities. In this study, the state university was the organization and the governor the dominant stakeholder as this person had the ability to influence the organization. This supported the propositions made by Scott and Lane (2000) regarding stakeholder influence. In addition to having the ability to lead policy change, the governor also had a great deal of power when setting and influencing the state budget. This study demonstrated the reciprocity factor when identifying organizations and stakeholders.

The factor of most significance in the Chapleo and Simms (2010), study was the degree a stakeholder group affected university policy and strategy. In this scenario, the owner-stakeholder roles were reversed: government was considered the owner, and university leadership filled the role of stakeholder management. The study determined that government policies were considered to have a great impact on stakeholder management. "The high influence of government policies is clearly relatively pronounced in stakeholder management in this sector" (Chapleo and Simms, p. 20).

Wicks et al. (1994) focused their study on a feminist reinterpretation of stakeholder theory and examined the role of ethics in an organization. They noted that a corporation was made up of a network of relationships "involving employees, customers, suppliers, communities, business and other groups who interact with and give meaning to the corporation" (p. 483). Stakeholders were located within the domain of the organization; inferring one role of the organization was to incorporate stakeholder's needs and wants into the organization.

Purnell and Freeman (2012) examined stakeholder theory and the beliefs and values used for a normative basis in the relationship between the firm and its stakeholders. They suggested that ethical considerations were less about casting a value judgment and more about creating a process for meaningful conversation throughout an institution and its stakeholders. They support the work of Donaldson and Preston (1994) and Freeman (1994) in which a manager would use stakeholder theory for decision-making.

In a longitudinal study completed by Janssens and Seynaeve (2000), a segregated school, in the process of desegregation, was examined in Flanders, Belgium. Many of the schools were undergoing desegregation due to a 1993 Non-Discrimination Charter announced by Flemish educational authorities. The researchers used stakeholder theory, collaboration theory and the theory of social identity and intergroup relations. Selecting the work of Wicks, Gilbert, and Freeman (1994) for a relational approach to stakeholder theory, Janssens and Seynaeve (2000) assessed the segregated school early in their study.

They used stakeholder theory when examining the relationship among different schools undergoing desegregation and identifying the relationships individual schools needed to develop to allow for desegregation. Janssens and Seynaeve (2000) investigated both internal and external stakeholder perspectives that supported their choice to apply relational stakeholder theory to their study.

The concept of stakeholder relationships led to the identification of the ethics of justice and ethics of care as two different normative cores underlying stakeholder theory. Janssens and Seynaeve (2000) relied on the two different ethics as an underlying basis when they examined school environment using the traditional and relational approaches of stakeholder theory.

Unlike the powerful stakeholders (Department of Education) noted in the Harrison et al. (2012) study, Janssens and Seynaeve (2000) determined that the soon-to-be desegregated school was in a low-power position in their educational system. The more powerful "white" schools were able to remain sufficiently "white" in the face of desegregation.

The segregated school lacked a voice, and when examined using the framework of stakeholder theory, it was found that not all stakeholders were identified at the start of the study. Stakeholders were attached to different problem domains with each domain having a potential network of stakeholders. When the segregated school (considered a network) shifted boundaries interacting with other stakeholder networks, they began to gain voice and created new relationships. Power and voice, leading to legitimacy, were impacted by the shifting of problem domains.

Tooley and Hooks (2010) looked at the effectiveness or value of school annual reports in New Zealand schools. They used stakeholder theory as a theoretical framework to move accountability beyond the "relationship between owners (the state) and managers and determined that the manager (school principal/school board of trustees) is not merely the steward of the state but also of employees, students, parents and society as a whole" (p. 3).

They supported the work of Freeman (1984) as stakeholders were those who could affect or were affected by the achievement of the schools' objectives. Once again the study centered on public policy, with the mandated annual report, and the stakeholders were those who impacted or who could impact the achievement of the school's objectives that dealt with public policy and relationships.

School Leadership and Stakeholder Theory

Watson (2013) borrowed the definition of paradox articulated by Stollzfus, Stohl and Seibold (2011) when she explained paradox was "contradictory yet interrelated elements that exist simultaneously and persist over time" (p. 352). She then introduced the concept of a "paradox turn" with organizational research completed by Smith and Lewis (2011) exploring how organizations dealt with competing demands at the same time. She noted that originally this concept was a powerful creative strategy for business leaders.

Next, Watson defined schools as learning organizations (in the educational business of schools) or organizations that brought about learning. This concept of education as a "business of learning" allowed her to transfer the idea of tensions and paradoxes from business to schools. The role of the head teacher [principal] moved from an autonomous leader to that of a "local branch manager within a bureaucratic local authority structure" (p. 257).

If a leader was working on "school improvement" he/she would have to determine whether to move toward rationalization by reducing conflict (uncertainty) or allow conflict to stimulate the organization. One example of a "paradox turn" in schools would be the need for accountability, while weakening a leader's power through distributed leadership.

Watson applied stakeholder theory to school leadership when she noted that the school leaders and managers must address the three problems embedded in stakeholder theory including: understanding how value was created/traded, connecting ethics and capitalism, and helping managers address the first two problems (Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar, De Colle, 2010).

School leadership needed to address these issues “since what is at stake is both a normative dimension (recognizing the legitimate interests of different individuals/groups) and a managerial (performative) element” (p. 260). School leaders, when applying stakeholder theory, should consider the legitimate interests of all stakeholders, define the idea of “creation of value” in a school’s pluralistic environment, and have an awareness of how policy treats all constituencies (Watson, p. 266).

Paradox, according to Watson (2013), existed in four core areas: organizing, performing, belonging, and learning. Schools, as pluralistic systems, needed to consider the interests of all stakeholders, defined as those within the school but also in the local community, governance and society.

Performing paradoxes were defined as the result of many stakeholders having competing strategies and goals. Belonging paradoxes were created by the tensions within the organization and the individuality of those within the organization. When performing and belonging paradoxes intersected, Luscher, Lewis and Ingram (2006) proposed that “as roles fluctuate with changing structure and expectations, contradictory demands disrupt self-conceptions” (p. 493). With the changes incurred with the mandatory evaluation policy, the expectations of a principal’s responsibilities changed leading to an adjustment in roles (instructional leader, building manager, policy stakeholder) and possibly his/her self-conception (which would impact self-efficacy).

Finally, Watson (2013) revisited the concepts of paradox turn and stakeholder theory as an ethics of practice when she examined school improvement and rational decision-making. She determined that reaching the goal of shared vision, one mark of a successful school leader, might actually diminish the conflict needed for change. Stakeholder theory, when applied to schools, supported the need for the two concepts: that of rationality leading to a decrease of pluralism and conflict leading to possible creative solutions (p. 266).

Concerns With Using Stakeholder Theory as a Framework

Although stakeholder theory had its roots in business and management, the concept of "stakeholder" also existed outside of the business world and was often used to identify individual stakeholders affiliated within public and/or private sectors. One of the issues with using stakeholder theory as a framework in any study was the ubiquitous nature of the term "stakeholder" and the relationship between the stakeholder and others within or outside the organization. A stakeholder might be an employee or member within the organization, or perhaps a member of the community that was impacted by the organization.

Phillips et al. (2003) reported that attention to stakeholder theory had been almost exclusively used within the area of business in studies of large, multinational corporations. Very little attention had been given to applying stakeholder theory to small or family owned businesses or privately owned organizations, non-profits and governmental organizations (p. 495). For stakeholder theory to be applicable to organizational ethics and strategic management, the scope of study needed to be enlarged to examine a variety of organizations.

Fassin (2008) noted the framework of the stakeholder model "illustrates visually the relationships among the various groups of actors in and around the firm" (p. 114). He noted there were ambiguities regarding stakeholder theory, the stakeholder approach, stakeholder analysis, and stakeholder management in literature.

Mainardes et al. (2011) reported that the term “stakeholder” had been used haphazardly over the last twenty years. The term gained popularity with businesses, governments, non-governmental organizations and even the media (p. 228). Regardless of the research, the theme which permeated stakeholder theory literature was that the company should take into consideration the needs and influences of people or groups who may impact or be impacted by the company’s policies and operations.

When the growth of stakeholder theory, during the 1990s, was examined and illustrated chronologically by Mitchell et al. (1997), it was easy to note the multiple relationships offered between the company and stakeholder. One weakness was the lack of a defined understanding for the term “stakeholder” running parallel with the ambiguity found in the theory itself. More research must to be completed on developing the concepts of normative, descriptive and instrumental approaches to stakeholder theory as well as the development of a consistent theoretical body of work (Mainardes et al., 2011).

Antonacopoulou and Meric (2005) defined stakeholder theory as an ideological product and noted that it was lacking the scientific thoroughness in the propositions supported by stakeholder theorists. They reported, “we do caution about its scientific rigor and some of the ideological assumptions about control shaping the nature of the relationship and interaction between stakeholders” (p. 31). Yet, Mainardes et al. (2011) noted that stakeholder theory was a means for combining ethical questions with complex operational environments within a general vision.

Manuel-Navarrete and Modvar (2007) noted that the academic validity of the theory was questioned noting that stakeholding was too vague: the term could mean anything the researcher desired. Additionally, the theory had been considered weak as it only touched upon equity, power and resistance.

Relevance to this Study

Stakeholder theory was used to describe management environment for many years. Theorists and researchers applied the tenants of stakeholder theory to numerous studies, regardless of the ambiguous definitions of the theory, its relevance or its application to various organizations.

The theory was also applied to the study of organizations outside the realm of manufacturing or a business environment. For this study of principals' perceptions on a mandated educational policy, stakeholder theory was applicable due to, and in spite of, its ambiguous nature. Few researchers addressed the application of stakeholder theory as a framework for examining an educational system, yet it was possible and appropriate.

The importance of relationships between the owners and stakeholders was articulated throughout the study of stakeholder theory. Stakeholder theory attempted to describe and examine the relationship between owners and stakeholders while observing the management practices implemented when in pursuit of the goals articulated by the organization.

By examining the hierarchical nature of the educational system in Michigan, it was clear that the legislature had the ability (with the support of the governor) to create laws pertaining to school policy or procedures. Furthermore, it was the role of the Department of Education to successfully support the implementation of school policies throughout the state. Yet, it was the stakeholders in local school districts that held the ultimate responsibility for the implementation of a policy.

In their study, Atkinson and McCrindell (1997) identified the government as the primary stakeholder in the public sector and replaced the role of "owner" found in the private sector. They also identified the Department of Education a primary stakeholder in the process.

This was determined since the Department of Education held the power for allocation of funds and had a "sole focus on the education system because it is mandated by legislation to undertake these functions. It therefore has both urgency and legitimacy" (p. 250).

The issues of power, legitimacy and urgency were reinforced through a study first completed by Mitchell et al. (1997). Later, Harrison et al. (2012) proposed that mandated school objectives reflected the different priorities of the current government. They stressed that the Department of Education had power over schools with the ability to take action to correct any deficiencies.

After reviewing the studies that pertained to stakeholder theory and educational organizations completed by Atkinson and McCrindell (1997), Cousins and Whitmore (1998), King and Ehlert (2008), and Harrison, Rouse and Villiers (2012), it was feasible to use stakeholder theory as a conceptual framework for this study regarding principals' perceptions of a mandated educational policy in Michigan.

For this study, the legislature was identified as the "owner" as they had the fiduciary strength to impact all stakeholders. The primary stakeholders were be the Michigan Department of Education, the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, and the State Board of Education. Secondary stakeholders were identified leaders at the district level including central office personnel and principals.

The goal of the “owners” was to increase student achievement using a mandated evaluation process implemented by primary and secondary stakeholders to monitor teacher effectiveness. How the stakeholders reacted, professionally and personally, to the dictates of “owners” driving the mandatory policy implementation might have impacted the successful completion of goal attainment. Fowler (2009) expresses sufficient stakeholder support was required in the implementation process of educational policy and the support of the principal was integral for its success.

Harrison et al. (2012) noted, “The primary objective of a government agency, such as a school, will be mandated by the priorities of the current government” (p. 250). Louis, Thomas, Gordon, and Febey (2008) found that a “state’s political culture is a significant mediating influence on its educational policymaking and leadership practices at the state, district and local level” (as cited in Furgol and Helms, 2012, p. 781). For Michigan, the strength of the Republican Party in leadership positions provided the impetus necessary to drive political change and policy development.

Acknowledging the political climate of Michigan throughout the 2009-2011 legislative sessions led to an understanding of “why” the evaluation mandate was designed. More importantly, it clarified the challenges facing the legislature as far as the selection of an evaluation tool and evaluation implementation.

The Department of Education or professional organizations representing the principals (the primary or secondary stakeholders found within the educational system) did not design this evaluation policy. Rather, the legislature (also identified as the “owners”) directed the objective of measuring teacher effectiveness. A powerful group of stakeholders (MCEE), selected by the “owners,” were asked to make recommendations to the “owners” for implementation of the policy. The "owners" would then make the final determination regarding the evaluation tool and implementation process. For the principals, their role became that of a policy stakeholder and policy implementer as they followed the directives of the legislature.

Harrison et al. noted that one problem discovered when examining the education system was that competing stakeholder objectives would conflict within the system. What parents (as secondary stakeholders) would wish for their child, including maximizing learning outcomes, would be different than taxpayers' (as secondary stakeholders) objectives of cost and efficiency. Additionally, this could be extended to demonstrate a possible conflict between the government ("owner") and secondary stakeholders such as principals and teachers.

Summary

The reporting of the previous studies demonstrated the ability to examine schools through the lens of stakeholder theory. The focus was to determine if there was a relationship between the implementation of an educational policy, specifically teacher evaluation, and the perceptions of the secondary stakeholders regarding job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and stress when implementing this policy within the schools.

The "owner" of the organization in a business setting was the legislature in the educational setting. The stakeholders in the business setting were typically the employees and those who worked within and/or with the organization. The stakeholders in this educational study were divided into primary and secondary roles, with the principal a member of a secondary stakeholder group. The relationships between the owners and stakeholders influenced the potential for meeting organizational goals, in this case the implementation of an evaluation system that measured teacher effectiveness to improve student achievement.

The normative core of stakeholder theory, defined by Donaldson and Preston (1995) and Johnson-Cramer (2008), provided the context through which the potential of goal attainment, relationship building and the norms and beliefs of an organization or schools were examined. The perceptions of the principals, as secondary stakeholders, led to discovering the relationship of a mandatory policy to principal job satisfaction, self-efficacy and stress. Furthermore, this study led to a forecasting of the potential for goal achievement by examining principals as they implemented the new evaluation policy.

Stakeholder theory was the conceptual framework for this study and a questionnaire (similar to a stakeholder analysis) was given to principals in Michigan. It was possible to identify the Michigan Legislature, MDE, MCEE, Executive Branch, central office personnel, and specifically principals, as primary and secondary stakeholders for this study (Freeman, 1984; Freeman et al., 2010; Jones, 1994; Jones & Wick, 1999). Results provided insight into the current implementation process and the relationship between the Michigan mandated evaluation policy and principal performance as policy stakeholders.

Application of the Conceptual Framework

Choosing stakeholder theory as a theoretical framework in an educational context was possible by focusing upon the normative core of the theory and the concept of relationship development (Donaldson & Preston, 1995). The definition of stakeholders as “persons or groups with legitimate interests in the procedural and/or substantive aspect of corporate activity” (p. 67) matched that of principals as stakeholders who had a legitimate interest in the work completed by the legislature regarding educational policy.

Mitchell at al. (1997) explained that a relationship between the firm and stakeholders existed either by the dependency of the firm upon stakeholders for its survival or that stakeholders depended upon the firm to protect its rights and/or achieve its interests (p. 862). Wicks et al. (1994) believed the company and stakeholder were mutually dependent. They noted a corporation was made up of a network of relationships with stakeholders within the domain of the organization.

Scott and Lane (2000) proposed using stakeholder theory as a means to establish manager-stakeholder relationships. For managers, stakeholders were very important as they impacted the firm's performance or survival (p. 53). Jones and Wicks (1999) defined stakeholder theory as the corporation having a relationship with their stakeholders: the theory was concerned with this relationship in terms of processes and outcomes for the firm. Furthermore, the stakeholders and the interests of stakeholders were of intrinsic value.

Phillips et al. (2003) reported the need for communication between managers and stakeholders. They noted that for the sake of ethics, stakeholders should have some input in how much of the organizations outputs they received but also input into how these outputs were created.

Johnson-Cramer (2008) explained that stakeholder theory and organizational ethics merged and then identified the normative core as "the moral obligations of the company in dealing with its stakeholders" (p. 7). Johnson-Cramer then noted the power of a large corporation was similar to that of governmental power.

Several research studies allowed this researcher to borrow a theory known for its application in the world of business and apply it to the field of education. Johnson-Cramer transferred the theory from the private to public sector using the construct of power.

Harrison et al. (2012) applied stakeholder theory to school performance with a focus on student achievement influenced by teaching and other school resources. A study completed by Christakis (2009) examined the stakeholder relationship between state governors and their public universities.

However, Atkinson and McCrindell (1997) powerfully reinforced the potential for using stakeholder theory in educational research when they identified the government as the primary stakeholder in the public sector mirroring the role of "owner" found in the private sector. Atkinson and McCrindell (1997) also identified the Department of Education as a primary stakeholder in the process.

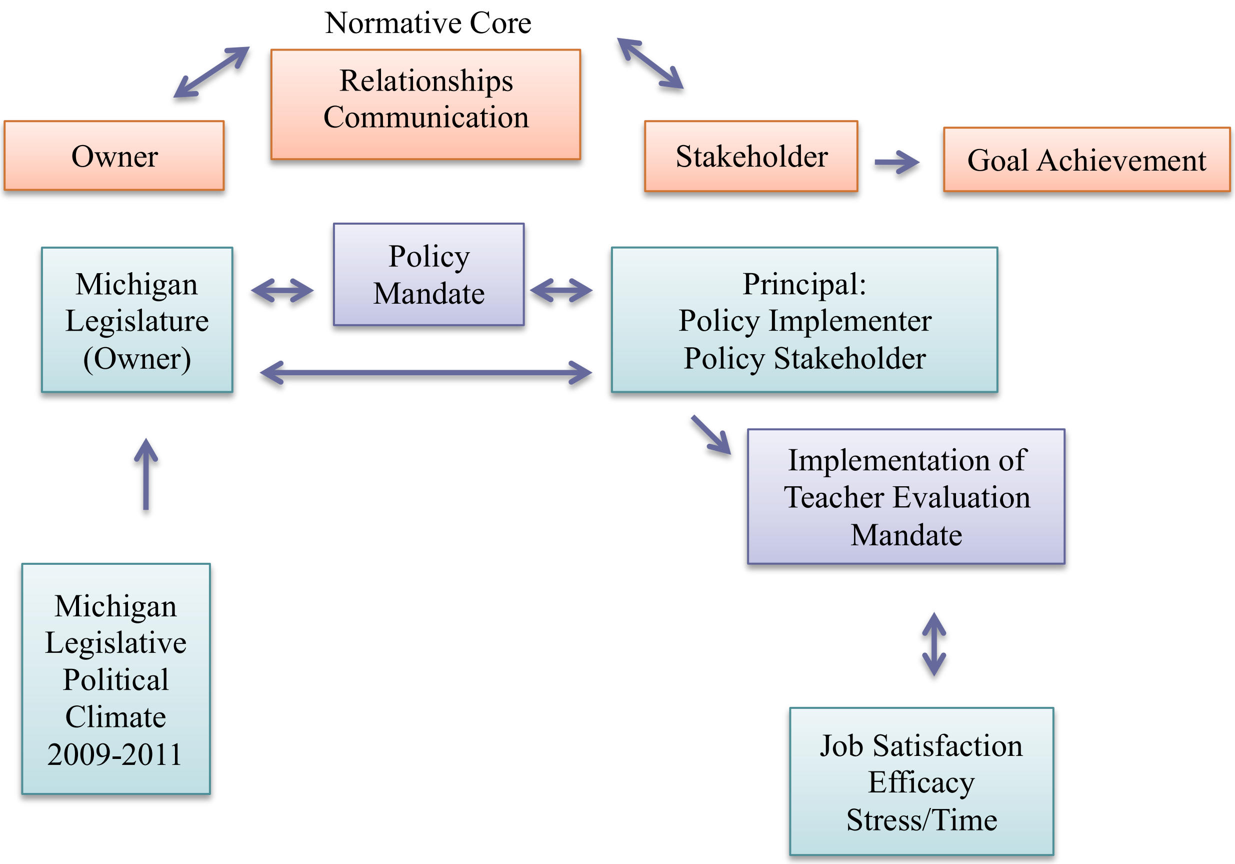
Stakeholder theory became a legitimate theory for examining the potential for a reciprocal relationship between the legislature and the principal. To simplify a very complex political action, the legislature created a policy to increase student achievement through an evaluation process rating teacher effectiveness. Principals then evaluated the teachers; if the evaluations accurately reflected teacher performance, student achievement scores should increase. But was there a relationship between how principals perceived their role in the mandated implementation of new evaluation policy and that of their personal and professional lives? What were their perceptions regarding the actions taken by the legislature?

Freeman, in his earlier work (1984), introduced the concept that "a stakeholder in an organization is any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives" (p. 46). As policy stakeholders, the principals were responsible for implementing the Michigan School Reform Law. Principals also had the power to affect the attainment of the legislatures' objectives if they subverted the intent of the law.

Fowler (2009) reported the need for a policy to have sufficient support among stakeholders to be successfully implemented. She noted that policy implementation was political and that it "can be derailed by unwilling stakeholders as quickly as it can be killed in a hostile [legislative] committee" (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978: Fullan, 2001 as cited by Fowler p. 288). This study examined, through the perceptions of principals responding through a questionnaire, the relationship between policy implementation and job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and stress.

Figure 1

Stakeholder Theory Conceptual Framework


Normative Core
Relationships
Communication
Owner
Stakeholder
Goal Achievement
Michigan Legislature (Owner)
Policy Mandate
Principal:
Policy Implementer
Policy Stakeholder
Implementation of Teacher Evaluation Mandate
Michigan Legislative Political Climate 2009-2011
Job Satisfaction
Efficacy
Stress/Time

Michigan School Reform Law

Using the constructs of stakeholder theory, the Michigan legislature was defined as the "organization," while stakeholders or policy actors (Fowler, 2009) impacted by this legislation included public school districts, families, teacher unions, professional organizations, the MDE, Michigan Legislature and Governor. One subset of stakeholders would be the principals in Michigan schools (Jones, 1995; Scott & Lane, 2000). Therefore, the evaluation policy involved multiple stakeholders (Freeman, 1984; Freeman et al. 2010) and was created by legislative actions in the House, Senate and executive offices requiring principals (stakeholders) to implement the teacher evaluation process.

With the passage of the Michigan School Reform Law, districts were required to conduct annual educator evaluations focusing on student growth as a factor. Furthermore, with the passage of new tenure laws in 2011, tenure was be awarded after five years of service rather than four years, staffing would no longer be based on seniority, teachers were required to earn effective ratings to retain tenure, and parents would be notified if their child was assigned an ineffective teacher (Thrun, 2010; Wheaton, 2011).

Once the evaluation and tenure policies were in place, the issue of implementation was addressed. This became the responsibility of the MDE and the MCEE (Michigan Office of the Governor, 2011).

With yearly evaluations now required, the caveat was that after three years of unsatisfactory evaluations a teacher would be dismissed (Thrun, 2010). Teacher effectiveness labels would be tied to the retention and promotion of educators with an eventual performance-based compensation awarded to highly effective educators. Principals, as evaluators, would incur additional responsibility for completing accurate yearly evaluations that could impact the careers and financial rewards of educators in their schools.

Michigan districts were originally encouraged to examine the *Framework for Educator Evaluations* (2009) as a model for evaluations (MDE, 2010). This framework was the result of a collaborative effort between the American Federation of Teachers-Michigan, Michigan Education Association, Michigan Association of Secondary School Principals and Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association. These professional organizations were stakeholders racing to assist their membership in this transition.

The MDE was also required to create a system to link student data to the teacher of record when determining educator performance (MDE, 2010). Fowler (2009) noted that the state department of education (SDE) was one of the most important actors in the state education policy process (p. 149). She defined individuals and groups who were actively involved in policy discourse as policy actors (p. 140).

MDE was to provide school districts state assessments in reading, mathematics, writing, science and social studies, although the validity and timing of the Michigan Educational Assessment Program (MEAP), for use as an assessment tool, was a concern noted by several stakeholders (MDE, 2012; MEA, n.d.; Revard, 2011; Wheaton, 2011). The MDE also created a "toolbox" of evaluation models and best practice methods for districts (MDE, 2010, December). An inventory of current practices was completed and shared with stakeholders (MDE, 2010).

The federally funded State Fiscal Stabilization Fund (SFSF) was an offshoot of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) of 2009 and was established to provide a one-time appropriation to stabilize state and local budgets minimizing reductions in education (MDE, 2011). To receive the funds, Michigan committed to making improvements in teacher effectiveness leading to the new educator evaluation requirements.

The Governor, through the Department of Education, needed to apply for these funds and public schools were to follow a stringent reporting system. This funding deadline was originally set for September 30, 2011, but was extended to January 31, 2012, due to the number of states unable to comply with the SFSF requirements (MDE, 2011).

Governor Jennifer Granholm and Chief State School Officer Michael Flanagan sent in Michigan's initial application on May 22, 2009. The total award amount was $1,302,368,992 and the project was completed by December 2011 (State of Michigan Grants-Award Summary).

A timeline allowed districts to use a locally developed evaluation system factoring student growth measures through the 2012/13 school year (Framework for Michigan Educator Evaluations). By the 2013/14 school year, the MCEE was to have completed the design of an evaluation tool for districts to implement. In response, as of January 2012 over 344 public and charter school districts asked the Council for an exemption from the soon to be developed evaluation tool (Big Rapids Daily News, 2011 December; MEA, 2012 January).

Undoubtedly the purpose of the legislation was to increase student achievement by homogenizing the evaluation process across Michigan schools. Governor Snyder (Michigan Office of the Governor, 2011, September 22) noted, "The future of Michigan depends on the positive growth of our students in the classroom. With the help of these talented individuals [MCEE], I am confident we will create a method that gives teachers and administrators the tools to help guide students to success" (p. 1).

One suggested evaluation tool was similar to the framework developed by Charlotte Danielson who created a research-validated instrument for teacher observation based upon four domains (2011). Interpolated into a checklist format, this tool or one similar to Danielson's instrument was currently used in many Michigan districts. Danielson used four levels of performance criteria, similar to the suggested labels to be assigned to Michigan evaluations: Exceeds Goals, Meets Goals, Progressing Toward Goals, and Does Not Meet Goals. However, a district could also choose to use the three SFSF labels of highly effective, effective or ineffective.

A concern expressed by stakeholder Mike Flanagan (State Superintendent of Public Instruction) was that the language in the new legislation removed a teachers' right to due process (Trainor, 2012). Michigan Education Association (MEA) asked Thrun Law Firm P.C. to publish a document, in 2010, covering the legal issues of PA 205 (teacher evaluation and compensation). Educators feared the dismissal of senior teachers as a cost-saving measure and worried about evaluator bias or favoritism (Trainer, 2012).

The knowledge base of the evaluator impacted the performance label selection and for the first time, Michigan teachers were fearful for their employment. As Wheaton (2011) noted, "Michigan's teacher tenure reform could ultimately have a dramatic impact on the lives of teachers, students and parents" (p. 1). Pratt, an MEA spokesperson, was interviewed by Wheaton (2011) and noted, " I fear we're going to see people lose their jobs and they're going to have to go to federal court for expensive court proceedings to save their jobs" (p. 2).

Teacher Evaluation

Stronge (1997) believed a "premium must be placed on high quality teacher evaluations systems" with the focus on teacher quality in legislation, public policy, and practice in every state and many nations throughout the world (p. 1). He reported that the two cited purposes of personnel evaluation were accountability and professional growth. The accountability purpose was viewed as a summative evaluation and the performance improvement /professional growth purpose was more formative in nature.

Stronge (1997) also supported the need for the training of evaluators to develop a sound evaluation system. Factors in the success of the evaluation process included the existence of a school environment built upon mutual trust. The quality of the relationship between the evaluator and teacher was also an important factor in the success of the evaluation process. The evaluation systems that were technically sound had greater success in achieving desirable outcomes for teacher effectiveness.

The Role of the Principal in Teacher Evaluation

The ultimate role of the principal, as the instructional leader in the evaluation process, was to work with teachers to improve instruction (Hallenger, 2005). The evaluation was formative or summative depending upon the time of year or the purpose of the evaluation (Peterson, 2004; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001).

For many Michigan school districts when principals were observing a probationary teacher, two formal evaluations per year would occur. The first observation was formative, allowing the principal the opportunity to provide constructive and meaningful feedback with the teacher. The year-end evaluation would be summative and reflect the work of the teacher throughout the year (MEA, New Requirements for Teacher Evaluations, 2009).

Tenured teachers would be observed over a multiple-year timeline to meet the requirements of a collective bargaining agreement. Often this would require an observation and evaluation every other year or every three years. If there were concerns regarding teacher performance, a yearly evaluation schedule would be implemented to observe and evaluate that teacher (MEA, 2009).

Evaluative Skill of the Principal

In multiple studies, the validity of the evaluation was questioned due to the evaluative skill, or lack thereof, of the principal. Often the role of the principal was a primary concern for teachers in the evaluation process with principals “overburdened, often inadequately trained, and constrained in their evaluation function by collegial relations with their staff” (Wise et al., 1985, p.77). Zimmerman & Deckert-Pelton (2010) reported that when teachers perceived that a principal was lacking in teaching experience, their belief in his/her ability to evaluate accurately was decreased.

Peterson (2004) supported the concept that principal reports of teacher classroom performance were “inaccurate because of inadequate reliability and validity” (p. 61). He noted that studies of teacher evaluations found unrepresentative sampling, biased reporting, disruptions caused by classroom visits and limitations on the principal due to incomplete reporting systems such as checklists or narrow anecdotal category systems (p. 61).

Scriven (1981) created a list of six factors that led to evaluation inaccuracy. The factors included bias, unreliability of samples, changes in the regular teaching practice, adult raters who don’t understand how children think, style preferences of the evaluator and time.

According to Mitchell (2009) nearly 100% of teachers in Colorado’s largest school districts received satisfactory ratings from 2006-2009. Fewer than 40 percent of the teachers felt their evaluations were accurate or meaningful (p. 1).

Wheaton (2011) reported that Amber Arellano, executive director of Education Trust-Midwest in Ann Arbor, was supportive of the changes in the mandatory Michigan evaluation process but noted the need to train people to evaluate teachers. Arellano continued, “Principals alone or administrators alone aren’t going to be able to do all of this” (p. 3). Mack (2011) interviewed Charles Glaes, superintendent of Vicksburg Community Schools, who expressed his concern that it was impossible to “do this reform without trained administrators to do the work” (p. 5).

Zimmerman (2003) suggested that principals were not powerless when completing teacher evaluations or when examining teacher perceptions of the observation process. For example, specific professional development dealing with teacher weaknesses was one method for improved teacher performance.

Knowledge of Curriculum Content

Wolf (1973) found that veteran teachers perceived principal ratings were dependent more “on the idiosyncrasies of the rater than on their own behavior in the classroom. As a result, teachers see nothing to be gained from evaluation” (p. 160). Although principals had the knowledge to be school leaders, it was impossible for them to specialize in all subject matter and pedagogy.

One belief was that a principal was unable to successfully evaluate a teacher if he/she was not trained in that subject area (Kimball, 2002; Peterson, 2004). For example, a principal might not understand the pedagogy required in a music classroom. Zimmerman (2003) reported that teachers’ perceptions of the process and the evaluator were critical elements of the professional evaluation process.

The Need for High Quality Feedback

Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) completed a synthesized research project on the relationship between effectiveness of a school leader and student achievement. Using sixty-nine previously completed studies involving 2,802 schools, the authors used a quantitative, meta-analysis approach to compute the correlation between the leadership behavior of the principal and the average academic achievement of students (p. 29). The second step of their research was to conduct a factor analysis. A survey, created from the meta-analysis results, was administered to more that 650 building principals (p. 162).

As a result of the research completed by Marzano et al., 21 responsibilities/principles of a school leader were identified and correlated to student achievement (p. 41). A plan applicable for novice or experienced leaders was included in the results to enhance student achievement in schools.

One of the responsibilities identified in this study was Monitoring/Evaluating. The creation of a system to provide feedback was the focus of this fourteenth principle. The succinct motivation for this principle was if students were not learning, adjustments needed to be made in curriculum, instruction and assessment. The authors believed these adjustments could be made through the evaluative process.

Donaldson (2010) reported “there is a ‘culture of nice’ that was pervasive throughout schools, suppressing critical feedback and encouraging principals to rate all teachers above average” (p. 55). Peterson (2004) found it was difficult for some principals to use the evaluation tool for teacher dismissal, even with students suffering when assigned to an incompetent teacher.

Schleicher (2011) suggested that teacher evaluation and feedback would help stakeholders make informed decisions for improving schools. Stakeholders were impacted throughout the evaluation process, as the primary responsibility for teacher evaluation was that of the stakeholder (principal) in the school building.

Policy Stakeholder/Implementer

With the newly mandated policy, principal's roles were increased from building manager and instructional leader to include policy implementer. Fowler (2009) believed that "principals play an unusually important role in [policy] implementation; ideally, they should strongly support any new policy they must implement" (p. 288). A policy implementer might also be considered a policy stakeholder, as he/she was a stakeholder in the teacher evaluation process: a stakeholder who was implementing a policy. A relationship existed between the legislature (as owner) and the stakeholder (principal) responsible for implementing the policy.

As a policy stakeholder, the principal began expanding his/her responsibilities as a building manager and instructional leader. Michigan principals were required to implement this mandated policy, as this was not only the law, but also a responsibility articulated in the new administrator evaluation policy found within the Michigan School Reform Law 2009.

Fullan (1991) noted in his research that perceptions of the various stakeholder groups impacted the implementation of any educational innovation. As evaluations were designed and observations completed, teachers and principals were impacted by the implementation process. In a study completed by Natriello (1984), the importance of principal support for the evaluation policy was necessary since "the principal influences his/her teachers' attitude towards the policy" (as cited in Tuytens & Devos, 2010, p. 523).

Fowler (2009) found that even with the government creating a new policy, it didn't necessarily mean that it would be followed: "The implementers many not want to follow it, or they may not be able to" (p. 273). She noted that implementers frequently didn't understand what they were to do to implement the policy and lacked the skills or knowledge necessary for implementation (p. 275).

Furthermore, Fowler (2009) noted that policy stakeholders interpreted a new policy in terms of past experiences leading to a possible adaptation of the policy. Implementers would interpret the policy drawing on prior knowledge (schemas) unless “those leading the implementation effort work very hard to help them [principals] learn new schemas” (p. 280).

The Evaluation Tool

Ellett and Teddlie (2003) argued that in the late 1990s teacher evaluations were focused on the teacher and evaluating the teacher’s performance not on the connection between teaching and learning. They observed that academic and political pressures for research studies on effective teaching methods for student achievement were initiated at this time. This resulted in “the development of a plethora of classroom-based observation checklist systems, the majority of which were grounded in the existing and pervasive philosophy of behaviorism in psychology and education” (p. 105).

Not only was the selection of an evaluation tool important but also the frequency of the evaluation process: either formative or summative. Kaagan and Markle (1993) claimed that the most effective schools used “constant evaluation” as a norm (as cited in Marzano et al., 2005).

Natriello’s study confirmed the concept that frequency of evaluation increased teacher satisfaction (1984). Perceptions associated with a principals’ evaluation of teachers and the expectations teachers had for students created a positive correlation to student achievement (Ellett & Teddlie, 2003).

Rating systems integrated into an evaluation tool were often considered ambiguous or subjective. Ovando (2001) found roadblocks to the evaluation process occurred when teachers were evaluated with the terms “distinguished,” “proficient,” “emerging” and “unsatisfactory,” The definitions for these terms were potentially subjective and might not show the true ability of the teacher. This led to negative perceptions of the evaluation process.

Teachers were concerned, when using a subjective evaluation, with rating inflation due to a friendly relationship with the evaluator (O’Pry, 2011; Ovando, 2001). The 2010 North Carolina evaluation system used the rating scale from “developing” to “distinguished,” which was similar to the Danielson model and perpetuated the ambiguity found with other subjective evaluations (Williams et al., 2010).

Section 1249 of the law required the use of four rating categories: highly effective, effective, minimally effective, and ineffective. This was different than the MCEE recommendation of professional, provisional, ineffective. As of September 1, 2013 the rating system was not determined, but Michigan Association of Secondary School Principals shared a report, created by Thrun Law Firm, on their website reporting that the four categories from Section 1249 should be used (MASSP, 11/04/2013).

The creation of promising evaluation tools has slowly moved the evaluation process forward and earned back respect lost by teachers and administrators who were burdened by ineffective evaluations in the past (Peterson, 2004). O’Pry (2011) supported Darling-Hammond’s research which demonstrated teacher quality did impact student achievement more than any other school-based variable.

Using Multiple Measures

Although the MCEE recommended the use of multiple measures to determine teacher effectiveness, as of January, 2014, a clearly articulated list of measures had not been determined by the Michigan legislature. Final determination of measures would be listed in the legislation yet to be passed.

Stonge (1997) encouraged the use of multiple data sources to measure teacher performance. Direct observation was usually a primary data source, but other sources might include: feedback from students, parents and peers; the use of portfolios; student performance data; and self evaluation as sources that provided a realistic view of teacher performance and effectiveness.

According to Danielson and McGreal (2000), evidence should exist to document all criteria of the evaluation and principals needed to encourage teachers to self-assess and reflect on performance. Teachers should also be allowed to choose examples of required evidence.

Teachers had positive perceptions of the evaluative process, completed by their principal, when multiple measures were used (Kyriakides & Demetriou, 2007). Specifically, multiple measures should be used to assess student performance and monitor teacher effectiveness and this was included in the Michigan School Reform Law (MDE, 2010).

Peterson (2004) suggested teachers select the data sources to be used in their evaluation. In doing so, the teacher removed the perception of unfairness by the principal in the data selection process. Peterson also suggested principals inform teachers of the need for submitting student achievement data when possible. The evaluation process provided an avenue for the principal to address the sociological issues of evaluation and design a positive, systematic, adult-sanctioned acknowledgement and reward opportunity (p. 73).

When principals incorporated multiple measures in an evaluation, they had defensible data collected on student achievement. The process of examining data, although still subjective, would now be measurable (David, 2010; Peterson, 2004). Taut, Santelices, Araya, & Manzi (2010) studied Chilean teachers and also advocated for the use of multiple methods to guide the work of the evaluators.

One issue was the cost of multiple measure evaluations. Although many experts agreed that one measure didn't provide a clear picture of teacher strengths and weaknesses, the use of multiple evaluations (including professional development aligned with evaluative feedback, the use of mentors and/or peer-review programs) was costly (Peterson, 2004).

Studies reported that even with multiple data sources, teachers "will not support systems with inadequate procedures and components" (O'Pry, 2011; Peterson, 2004; Toch, 2008). With the evaluative process, teachers believed the process was "fair" if used by a knowledgeable, fair appraiser (Ovando, 2001).

According to Herman, Heritage and Goldschmidt (2011), multiple measures were needed to judge teacher effectiveness. Measures had to be credible and useful to teachers and "if validity of measures is not substantiated by evidence, then educators will question their credibility as a component of teacher evaluation" (p. 5).

Wise et al., (1985) determined from their study of the evaluation process, in four different school districts, that an evaluation called for multiple samples of the teacher's behavior either by the same expert or by several experts. The duel requirements of expertness and reliability demanded a teacher evaluation process based on either peer review, master teacher review, or review by subject matter supervisors. (p. 108)

Multiple measures would include standardized test results (value-added models) as one method of data collection for student achievement. Another method would be the practice of principal walk-throughs: identified for its potential as a data source (Ovando, 2001: Peterson, 2004). Additional data sources could include student and parent surveys, peer review of materials, documentation of professional activities, and school improvement participation (Peterson, 2004).

Evaluation Models Pilot

As noted previously, the Michigan Council for Educator Effectiveness (MCEE) determined that prior to the selection of a state evaluation tool, there would be a pilot using four different evaluation tools/models. Thirteen districts were selected for the pilot; each received the training and support from the model's vender necessary for successful implementation of the evaluation process.

The Danielson Model

One of the evaluation models selected for the pilot study in Michigan was the Danielson Model. Charlotte Danielson (2002) has had a tremendous impact on the evaluation tools used by other educators. In her 2002 book, *Enhancing Student Achievement*, Danielson revisited the purpose for evaluations: quality assurance and professional learning. She noted that teaching evaluations were a "function of district policy, and a result of negotiated agreements between the school and district" (Danielson, 2002, p. 64). She reported the design of any evaluation system needed to include a process to allow teachers to self-reflect and improve their teaching skills. Danielson also believed that differentiated evaluation systems allowed for the novice and master teacher to be fairly evaluated.

In an earlier book, *Enhancing Professional Practice: A Framework for Teaching,* Danielson (1996) broke teaching into four major categories called domains. The domains included planning and preparation, classroom environment, instruction, and professional responsibilities. She listed twenty-two themes ranging from demonstrating subject knowledge to student motivation and then presented seventy-seven skills required to be effective in the classroom including student grouping and feedback. Finally, she created a rubric rating every skill category with ratings of “unsatisfactory,” “basic,” “proficient,” and “distinguished.”

Peterson (2004) reported that regardless of a thorough checklist of behaviors, competencies and duties, a “checklist in the hands of an incompetent evaluator is of little use” (p.61). Wood and Pohland (1979) completed a study identifying sixty-five different teacher-rating scales found in evaluations. Peterson (2004) reported that the majority of the items (72%) in the Wood-Pohland study were not addressing the role of teacher performance for student achievement.

Many educators have adopted Danielson’s format and have continued to use her rubric (in a checklist format) for teacher observations and evaluations. In a survey completed by the MDE in 2011, 50% of the reporting Michigan districts were using the Danielson model (MDE, 2013).

Michigan was not the only state looking at the Danielson model as an evaluation tool. Coggshall (2010) noted thirty-three states were re-writing their evaluation systems and Mack (2011) supported this data in her article. For example, New Jersey was in the process of starting a pilot on a statewide teacher evaluation system. The Danielson model was the format of this new evaluation system (Driscoll, 2011). North Carolina was also developing a new statewide teacher evaluation with the assistance of Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning (McREL) which was a nonprofit education research and development organization. This evaluation also had a checklist of standards (similar to Danielson's model) to be demonstrated by the teacher (Williams et al., 2010).

Additional Evaluation Pilots

As noted previously, four evaluation models were selected by the MCEE for a pilot. Marzano's teacher evaluation model was similar to Danielson's model as it also had four domains, but was based upon research completed by Marzano that correlated instructional strategies and student achievement (Learning Sciences Marzano Center, 2013). His model supported the belief that there was a "direct causal link between elements of the model and student results" (p. 1). This model reflected significant inter-rater reliability that demonstrated the high agreement of others on the quality of the tool.

ASCD (2013), formerly the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, featured Robert Marzano, author and consultant, on their website. They reported he had long been considered an expert in classroom instruction and leadership and had published over 30 books, 150 articles and chapters in books and 100 sets of curriculum materials

The Marzano Teacher Evaluation Model was selected as one of the Michigan pilot evaluation tools and was used in less than 100 of the 792 districts responding to the MDE 2011 survey (MDE, 2013). The implementation process for this model was supported using trainers from the Marzano Center. Within the four domains were sixty elements; however, Domain 1-Classroom Strategies and Behaviors was the most valuable of the four domains according to the Marzano Center (2013).

The third tool selected by the MCEE for piloting was The Thoughtful Classroom. The Thoughtful Classroom website reported it was aligned to key themes found in the Common Core that allowed for ease when addressing teacher evaluation and teaching standards (www.thoughtfulcalssroom.com). This tool had ten dimensions that covered "effective teaching, effective instruction and effective professional practice" (p.1). No Michigan school district reported using this tool in the MDE 2011 survey (MDE, 2013). This tool was produced by Silver Strong and Associates and Thoughtful Education Press (p. 1).

The final evaluation tool in the pilot was 5 Dimensions of Teaching and Learning: developed by the Center for Educational Leadership located in the University of Washington College of Education. This program, as noted on their website, worked with both teachers and principals to improve teaching and learning.

A two-staged training program existed for understanding the instructional framework and reviewing the rubric to understand this inquiry-based evaluation process. There were 5 Dimensions and 13 Sub-Dimensions within this research-based tool. At the time of the MDE 2011 survey, an insignificant number of districts were using this tool (MDE, 2013).

According to the MCEE Update, school administrators from each pilot district participated in a four-day training session with vendor-sent trainers to review the tool, study the various domains/dimensions, practice observation techniques, and generate accurate assessments of the observation. Three of the vendors provided additional training in technology-based data management allowing principals to place observation data on a computer, iPad or other wireless device (MCEE Update, 2013).

Michigan was in the process of selecting a statewide evaluation tool, but the evaluation tool recommendations were not completed and implementation procedures were not determined as of June, 2013. The MDE (2012) was hopeful the MCEE would recommend several evaluation tools: the law stated the use of one unified tool, but the cost of implementation was potentially prohibitive.

In their final report released July 2013, the MCEE did, in fact, recommend the use of one specific tool, but acknowledged the potential to use other models (including those in the pilot) or even a district evaluation tool if a waiver was completed. The MCEE report noted:

> - One of these tools will be selected to be the state tool, based on a competitive RFP process. The state will provide sufficient base funding to support the Local Education Agencies (LEAs) use of the state-selected tool with full fidelity. The state will provide the technical support and training for the state-selected tool.
> - LEAs may choose to use one of the other three piloted observation tools instead, but must pay for any expenses above the base funding supplied by the state for the state-selected tool. (MCEE Final Report, July 2013)

Use of Standardized Test Scores: Value-added Models

Once the evaluation tool(s) was determined, the next stage for implementation of the Michigan School Reform Law was to determine which measurement tool to use for recording student growth. Nationally, many politicians/stakeholders in educational policy called for the use of standardized test scores, also known as value-added models (VAM), as a means for rating teacher performance (Darling-Hammond; 2012; Hill, Kapitula, and Umland 2011; MDE, 2012).

Although the component of student growth would be addressed using standardized test scores, this was also not a realistic expectation as many states only implemented standardized tests at selected grade levels (Danielson, 2002; Zimmerman, 2003). The vast majority (89%) of educators believed standardized test scores should not be considered when measuring student growth due to the limited measures of student learning and number of factors not within a teachers' control including home conditions and the unpredictability of student interactions (Wise et al., 1985).

Hill, Kapitula, and Umland (2011) observed in their study that value-added models "which estimate teacher and school effectiveness based on student gains, have become popular in research, evaluation and pay-for-performance plans" (p. 795). They reported that policy makers had adopted [using] value-added models to improve student achievement (p. 796).

Papay (2011) also reported that educational policymakers viewed value-added models as a method to reform teacher evaluation and would offer a pay-for-performance system (p. 167). He believed VAMs assumed that teacher effectiveness could be estimated reliably and validly through student achievement tests (p. 168).

Concerns with Value-added Models

When educational policies have been designed and implemented, multiple concerns needed to be addressed. According to Haddad (1995) "misjudging the ease of implementation is probably the most frequent error in policy planning" (p. 36). Toch (2008) recommended that test scores should play a "supporting rather than a leading role" in teacher evaluations (p. 36).

Darling-Hammond's study (2012) noted that value-added models of teacher effectiveness were highly unstable and teachers were advantaged or disadvantaged based on the students they taught. Gallagher, Rabinowitz and Yeagley (2011) believed high stakes testing required the use of trustworthy data and that technically sound data was not available for all teachers.

Papay (2011) determined in his study that "teacher effectiveness estimates vary substantially even when derived from the same sample of students on different tests" (p. 188). Although, on average, teachers with students performing well on one assessment would perform well on an alternate test, even the timing of the test had an impact on results. Policymakers and practitioners who wished to use value-added models were encouraged to pay attention to the actual test and to use multiple assessments representing a wider range of classroom content to prevent a narrowing of curriculum (p. 189).

Hanushek and Rifkin (2010) had concerns regarding accuracy, fairness, and the potential adverse effects of teacher incentives that were based on a limited set of student learning outcomes. They warned it might raise "worries about the use of value-added estimates in education personnel and policy decisions" (p. 8). Many of the issues their study addressed were related to measurement and estimation found within the VAM or standardized test, which led to concerns with cheating, adopting teaching methods that taught narrowly to tests and/or ignoring non-tested subjects.

In the PDK/Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools (2013) it was reported that Americans believed that policy makers were moving ahead with educational initiatives but not communicating well with the American people. Furthermore, seventy-seven percent of Americans surveyed reported that the emphasis on testing had either hurt or made little difference in education (p. 4).

Americans, fifty-eight percent of those surveyed, also rejected the concept of teacher evaluations based on student achievement on standardized tests (p. 12). This was an eleven percent increase from the 2012 PDK/Gallup Poll.

Other researchers approved of the use of VAMs. Ritter and Shuls (2012) supported the concept that value-added measures may be imperfect, but these measures were the best and most efficient method for use with teacher evaluations (p. 35). They continued, by noting, that most stakeholders agreed "effective instruction is of paramount importance" for teacher evaluation inferring that student learning would increase with effective instruction (p. 35).

A study completed by David (2010) found that implementing value-added models might remove some of the subjective nature found in traditional evaluations. Regardless of the assessment tool selected or the evaluation model chosen for implementation, the potential for the Michigan School Reform Law to impact the principals (as stakeholders) existed.

Standardized Testing and Stakeholder Theory

Harrison, Rouse and De Villiers (2012) noted that current reporting of school performance was designed to satisfy the needs of select stakeholders for schools. The common objective was the increase in student academic achievement. Additionally, educational agencies were responsible for input consumption (students) and budgetary constraints delegated by the government. In their study, they reported the need for the "maximization of school outputs for a given level of school inputs" (p. 250).

If student achievement was a proposed output, the use of examination data or standardized testing results collected by many educational systems represented a direct measure of school effectiveness. Harrison et al. (2012) also reported that these outputs were of importance to the Department of Education and policy makers, and were required for the continued employment of teachers.

Most achievement/standardized tests had high levels of reliability and comparability, but Harrison et al. (2012) cautioned against using only this measure. Curriculum-based evaluations were also necessary as they assessed what individual schools were teaching. In spite of criticism toward using only one standardized assessment measure as an output, due to additional influences on student performance such as student attitudes or demographics, these outputs were important to some stakeholder groups.

Using assessment measures allowed the primary stakeholder, identified in the Harrison et al. (2012) study as the Department of Education, to rank high and low performing schools in terms of the production of academic outputs and efficient use of resources. The primary or most powerful stakeholder was then able to design interventions to improve resource or output results. It was important to remember that the owner of this organization was considered to be the government (legislature and governor).

Michigan and Standardized Testing

Applying the data from the Hanushek and Rifkin (2010) study, the challenge facing Michigan policy makers (the Michigan legislature and executive office, the MDE and the MECC) was the narrow selection of skills evaluated on any Michigan standardized test. This potentially forced schools to teach with an emphasis on lower-level skills to address the deficiencies of lower performing students in the district. A potential concern was the need districts felt to “teach to the test” and not the adopted curriculum in order to have higher student performance scores.

As a requirement of the Michigan School Reform Law, the standardized test initially used to measure student growth for Michigan students was the Michigan Educational Assessment Program (MEAP) (MDE, 2010). The MCEE (2013) reported the MDE plan to transition from the (MEAP) and Michigan Merit Exam (MME) to assessments produced by Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium by the 2014-2015 school year (p. 3).

The plan, as of March 2013, was to replace MEAP with computer-based tests, providing a pre and posttest comparison of scores, in English (K-12), math (K-12), science (3-12), and social studies (3-12) for the 2014-15 school year (MCEE 2013 Update; Michigan Education Association, 2012).

The MCEE (2013) also noted they had recruited four national VAM vendors to demonstrate examples of products to support the Michigan evaluation system (p. 2). Vendors included American Institutes for Research, Pearson, SAS, and Value-Added Research Center (Wisconsin Center for Education Research). A sub-group of MCEE was created to focus on the task of recommending a VAM vender.

Educational Policy and Potential Conflict

Codd (1995) defined educational policy making as encapsulating the issues of power and control toward the preservation or gain of schools and society. Kyriakides and Demetriou (2007) examined the dichotomy existing with power by it having decision-making capabilities and the capacity of groups to prevent issues that may threaten their interests (conflict) (p. 45). The connections between power and conflict did appear when introducing teacher evaluation reform.

Kyriakides and Campbell (2003) reported that the “development of a new teacher evaluation system offers a pivotal opportunity to reproduce, resist, or transform existing power relations in a significant manner” (as cited by Kyriakides and Demetriou, 2007, p. 45). Therefore, the success of the educational reform regarding teacher evaluation would be dependent upon the process used for the design and implementation of the policy.

Kyriakides and Demetriou (2007) studied the implementation of a proposed teacher evaluation and the need to gain acceptance from the main stakeholders when they completed their research on the Cypriot teachers’ and inspectors’ views of a specific system of teacher evaluation. The stakeholders’ reactions to the implementation of a new system of evaluation were also examined in relationship to stakeholders’ personal interests and concerns (Kyriakides & Demetriou, 2007).

Fowler (2009) articulated a concern regarding the need for a policy to have sufficient support among stakeholders to be successfully implemented. She noted that policy implementation was political and that it “can be derailed by unwilling stakeholders as quickly as it can be killed in a hostile [legislative] committee” (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978: Fullan, 2001 as cited by Fowler p. 288).

The mobilization of stakeholder groups noted by Johnson-Cramer (2008) occurred when stakeholder interests were threatened. Rowley and Moldoveaun (2003) argued that stakeholder interests were important for mobilization, but so was the collective identity of stakeholder group members. Organizations needed to be aware of the networks that surrounded them if they wished to avoid stakeholder mobilization such as protests, boycotts or mobilization against the organization. Additionally, Berman and McLaughlin (1978) found that possible by-products of top-down implementations at the school level were indifference or resistance.

Themes

Themes frequently reoccurred when examining research on teacher evaluation and the role of the principal as a stakeholder in the process. Themes included disempowerment and job satisfaction, stress, a necessary shift for the principal from a managerial role to include the roles of instructional leader and policy stakeholder, and issues with self-efficacy regarding the implementation of the educational policy.

Job Satisfaction, Disempowerment and Self-Efficacy

Job satisfaction, as a construct, covered a broad range of emotions and attitudes when determining a generalized definition. There were variables that produced negative and positive emotionality; defined as the observable behavioral and physiological component of emotion. Research showed that feelings of disempowerment (which might impact job satisfaction), appropriate use of time and stress might impact the performance of the principal. Furthermore, self-efficacy played a role in the degree of response for each variable of job satisfaction and stress.

Job satisfaction was vital for those in the business and educational fields. Satisfied workers tended to perform at higher levels than those who were not satisfied (Chambers, 1999, as cited by Eckman, 2004). If the lens of stakeholder theory focused on goal attainment, the possibility of a correlation between job satisfaction and meeting organizational goals through successful implementation of the teacher evaluation policy might exist. Job satisfaction for Michigan principals might increase due to the successful implementation of the new evaluation policy.

Beatty (2000), focused on the emotions of educational leadership and reported that leaders who felt the pressure to succeed, but had to function without support, found the leadership role emotionally difficult. She continued, “These leaders reported feeling ‘resentment and frustration’ when being controlled and limited ‘from above’. They suffered for lack of their own empowerment” (p. 342).

Glanz (2007) noted that practitioners felt disempowered due to a heavy workload and preferred to work with individuals or small groups of teachers within the school. Parasuraman and Allutto (1981) found that work overload was associated with lower job satisfaction. With the Michigan Reform Law 2009 requiring the evaluation of all teachers, the potential for principals to experience work overload increased.

Molden, Lucas, Gardner, Knowles (2009) examined the impact of social exclusion when the perception was that the individual was being rejected and/or ignored. They found that districts and the state, in the mandate of policy, ignored principals’ needs.

Pierce and Gardner (2004) defined self-esteem as a self-evaluation of one’s competencies: it was a personal reflection of how people saw themselves as individuals. They related it to the concept that one believes himself/herself competent, significant and worthy.

Organization-based self-esteem (OBSE), as defined by Pierce and Gardner, was the degree to which an individual believed him/herself to be capable, significant, and worthy as an organizational member (p. 593). OBSE was related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment and motivation.

Pierce and Gardner reviewed multiple studies and found there was a strong correlation between OBSE and motivation. Evidence they reviewed supported the claim that "work environment structures that provide opportunities for the exercise of self-direction and self-control may promote organization-based self-esteem. Signals to employees that they "make a difference around here" and that this difference was valued by the organization was positively related to this self-concept (p. 613).

In a study completed by Judge and Bono (2001) of 536 published studies on job satisfaction and job performance, they determined that individuals with high self-efficacy were more effective when handling difficulties and continued working in spite of the potential for failure. Furthermore, they determined that self-esteem and self-efficacy were significant predictors of job satisfaction and job performance.

Gist & Mitchell (1992) reported principals with high self-efficacy were more likely to attain valued outcomes and therefore achieved satisfaction with their job. They defined self-efficacy as the concept that those who believed they would perform well on a task did better than those who believed they may fail. Self-efficacy perceptions were also influenced by personality, motivation and the performance of a specific task. They also noted that self-efficacy was a construct derived from social cognitive theories (p. 184).

Graham and Messner (1998) examined Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory to determine if motivation, interpersonal relationships, school policy or gender had an impact on job satisfaction. Herzberg believed there were elements within the job and job environment that could lead to satisfaction or lack of satisfaction (p. 196). Hertzberg (1959, 1966) identified five satisfiers: achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and opportunity for advancement. Dissatisfiers included: company policy, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions (as cited by Graham & Messner, 1998, p. 196).

Continuing with the study completed by Graham and Messner (1998), they determined that American Midwestern principals were generally satisfied with their current job. Variables such as size of school and gender did impact the findings in regard to salary, fringe benefits and advancement opportunities (p. 201).

Eckman (2004) examined role conflict and job satisfaction with high school principals and determined that there were differences between male and female principals in their personal and professional attributes and role conflict. Role commitment and job satisfaction were similar for both genders. Eckman noted that women in higher levels of educational administration, such as a principalship, were similar to women managers and executives in the corporate world (p. 366). Both were working in male dominated worlds based on male leadership models. Job satisfaction was moderate for both genders, but did increase with the number of years in the position.

Bolding and Van Patten (1982) examined the dynamics of a healthy organization. The relationship between administrators and staff was a reflection of an organizational culture that respected personal privacy, tolerated dissent, adhered to high standards of equity in distribution rewards and provided due process as a tool for achieving justice and fairness (p. 4). This was similar to the ethic of justice noted in the work of Janssens and Seynaeve (2000) who used stakeholder theory when examining the relationship among different schools undergoing desegregation.

One tenet of stakeholder theory was the relationship between the stakeholder and owner: in the case of this study, the principal (as a secondary stakeholder) and legislature (as the owner). The issue of job environment could be related to the terms “management environment" used by Mitchell et al. (1997), and "business environment" noted by Altman and Petkus (1994) in their study.

Dewa, Dermer, Chau, Lowrey, Mawson and Bell (2009) examined the factors associated with the mental health of principals and found a relationship between job satisfaction and mental health status. They noted that the Ontario Principals' Council projected a shortage of principals by 2010 as a result of the dissatisfaction felt due to increasing provincial mandated curriculum changes and time to meet the mandates (p. 446).

Professionals who entered the leadership field did so for potential job satisfaction rather than monetary benefits. Therefore, working conditions were a form of job compensation. Hitt et al. (2012) recommended studying those who left the field of education to identify attributes regarding job satisfaction for the future recruitment and retention of talented educators in leadership positions.

Stress

As noted previously, Fowler (2009) noted that even if an educational policy was created, it was possible, due to lack of skill or knowledge, that the implementer would not follow the policy. This unintended action could lead to burn out due to the hard work and pressure of implementation (p. 277).

Kamery (2004) noted the symptoms of job stress included irritability, decreased productivity and difficulty focusing on job assignments. Combs, Edmonson, and Jackson (2009) defined burnout as an extreme level of job stress.

Queen and Queen (2005) differentiated between stress and burnout, noting that burnout was a state of chronic stress. With burnout came physical, mental and emotional exhaustion due to an inability to handle the daily stresses of leadership over a period of time.

Burnout also reduced personal efficacy due to the inability to complete job related tasks at the same level of high performance.

Fowler (2009) noted burnout as a result of hard work. Louw and Viviers (2010) agreed, noting that organizational stress models, such as the Job-Demands Resources model and the Comprehensive Burnout and Engagement model (COBE), suggested that burnout (a stress outcome) may occur due to job demands and a lack of resources.

Robertson and Mathews (1988) defined stress as a physiological phenomenon with psychological aspects: “the state of the total organism under difficult or extenuating circumstances” (p. 80). The negative effects could include increased heart rate and/or blood pressure, sweating, numbness, inability to concentrate, sensitivity to criticism, excessive or lack of eating, anxiety, aggression, apathy, depression, and fatigue (p. 80).

They interviewed 175 principals and found that the most frequent source of stress was an unreasonable workload. Many were contemplating retirement or functioned at levels far below their abilities due to prolonged stress. Nearly thirteen percent of the principals interviewed used negative coping strategies such as eating or drinking alcohol.

Day et al. (2001) noted the emotional difficulties experienced by principals when engaged in dismissal procedures due to teacher incompetence. It was considered a “clear and painful boundary” that needed to be drawn when personal and professional relationships were impacted by teacher dismissal. Teacher dismissal impacted the principal’s values and beliefs, as well as the ideological and educational commitments made to those in the school community (p. 31).

Robertson and Matthews (1988) reported that having to make decisions that affected the lives of others ranked sixth as a stressor out of the top ten stressors determined from their study. The seventh stressor listed was complying with state and federal rules and policies.

Roach et al. (2010) noted in their study that existing principals were aging and retiring, citing stress as a major reason for leaving the principalship. They found the role of the principal was more complex with the need to serve as an instructional leader, address concerns of accountability and satisfy a range of stakeholders. Unclear or ambiguous state policies, lacking a focus on learning, or resource allocation also increased the level of stress for the principal.

Hitt, Tucker and Young (2012) examined the phases of the "professional pipeline" for educational leadership (p. 1). Their goal was to increase leadership capacity for current principals in addition to those looking to enter the field. Their fourth recommendation was to promote better working conditions for educational leaders as this was one reason teachers chose not to enter the field.

Malen (1994) reported that the politics of principal-teacher interactions were a major source of stress for principals. Schools were considered an institution for political socialization, a political contest, and a place for political negotiation. The struggle for clearly articulated realms of power increased the level of stress for all involved.

A study completed by Sogunro (2012) found stress developed with changes in socioeconomic and political landscapes. More than ninety-six percent of the principals surveyed reported experiencing work-related stress that impacted their physical and mental health, work habits and productivity (p. 664). A lack of resources, needs of the worker and job capabilities all increased stress. Halbesleben (2010) reported stress occurred when principals did not have the sufficient resources to meet the demand (as cited in Sogunro, 2012, p. 667).

Sogunro (2012) also noted that challenging policy demands and overwhelming mandates from local state and federal governments were the fourth highest stressors for principals. He noted that as society became more concerned with student achievement, a principal's stress increased. Greater sources of stress included unpleasant relationships and people conflicts, time constraints and related issues, and crises in the school (p. 676).

The Sogunro (2012) study also addressed policy demands and mandates. Approximately ninety percent of principals surveyed claimed they were feeling pressured with the number of mandates and policies issued. Each mandate required paper work that compounded the reporting work of the principal.

In a study completed by Boyland (2011), it was determined the issue of job stress for the public school principal has multiplied in the last years as the "increasingly long hours, growing lists of responsibilities, funding difficulties and rising accountability standards are creating what some are characterizing as a culture of stress for school principals" (p. 1). Looking at the findings of her study, she suggested the need to provide supportive practices to preempt the increase in job stress and time demands.

Burkman (2010) noted in her study that some level of stress is a part of life; and we need stress to perform (p. 666). Without stress, individuals may be too relaxed, complacent or ineffective. Miller (1979) reported on situational stress and that "there are factors over which a person has no control, such as governmental requirements, organizational policies inadequate salaries and decreased job status" (p. 68).

Cooper (1988) surveyed over two hundred principals classifying stressors in four different categories: role-based stress, task-based stress, conflict-mediating stress, and boundary-spanning stress. The primary stressor for these principals was in the task-based category, which was the stress arising from the performance of duties. Examples of stress events included excessive time for meetings, high personal expectations, completing reports and paperwork, phone interruptions, and attending activities outside of the school day. Cooper (1988) suggested that principals needed to learn to delegate tasks to others, set deadlines, set realistic goals and manage time appropriately.

Time and the Evaluation Process

Wheaton (2011) noted that school officials observed principals "struggling to meet the previous requirement of evaluating teachers every three years. The new law [Michigan School Reform Law] requires yearly job performance reviews" (p. 3).

Wise et al. (1985) examined the concept that utility (the balance between cost and benefits) of an evaluation process was difficult to assess. Although money could be earmarked for evaluation, it was impossible to measure the cost of time needed to complete the process of evaluation. If the teacher, administrator, and public perceptions of the evaluation process were similar and focused on the goal of improving teaching quality, then all would also have similar perceptions of utility if the processes for meeting the evaluation goals were successful.

A conclusion of the Wise et al. study (1985) was to note the issue of time in the evaluation process. "Principals have a wide span of control and little time for evaluation" (p. 110). Kimball (2002) discovered in his study that increased workloads for the principal contributed to “the cutting of corners on evidence gathering, writing reports and providing feedback” (p. 261).

Peterson (2004) supported the concern of lacking time to meet the requirements when noting, “administrators rarely have the time and personnel to conduct evaluations the way they prefer” (p. 71). He noted that for the new teacher, an evaluation assured the teacher of feedback for positive performance.

Krajewski (1978) found that principals placed teacher evaluation as a high priority task, but actually it was a statistically insignificant reflection of time spent. Time was more likely spent on student/activity supervision, discipline or meetings (Drake and Roe, 1986; Krajewski, 1978).

Mack (2011) noted in her blog the concern of time with the implementation of the evaluation policy. She suggested that “principals need to make it [evaluations] their top priority and off-load some of their current responsibilities if necessary” (p. 4).

Another avenue for addressing the impact regarding the need for time and the amount of responsibility a principal must carry (Kimball, 2002) was to look at the distribution of leadership within the school. Spillane, Diamond, & Jita (2000) suggested three ways leadership could be divided or stretched over the practice of leaders.

Collaborated distribution referred to leadership practice where leaders worked together to execute a particular leadership function (reciprocal interdependency); collective distribution involved the practice of two or more leaders working separately but interdependently in pursuit of a shared goal; and coordinated distribution implied that different leadership tasks must be performed in a particular sequence for the execution of some leadership functions (Spillane, 2004; Spillane et al., 2000). All three divisions of leadership had implications for examining how leadership might be distributed to ease the pressure of finding time when implementing a quality evaluation process.

Day et al. (2001) noted there was a tension that existed between the amount of time and energy delegated to managing a school and ensuring that staff was always competent and actively supported to encourage professional growth. The increased demands upon schools led many heads [principals] to commit more of their personal time to complete school related business. This study reported that the personal costs were “universally high and, long term, potentially damaging” (p. 30).

Sogunro (2012) reported that in 2008, thirty-five percent of the 415,400 education administrators employed in the United States worked more than forty hours a week. The responsibility of supervising after-school and weekend school activities added additional hours to their traditional workweek.

Sogunro (2012) noted one resource that was in high demand for principals was time. Many respondents believed most problems would disappear if there were more hours in the day. Time management and delegation of tasks was suggested to remove the stress principal’s experienced. Time constraints were the second highest stressor in Sogunro’s (2012) study.

Fowler (2009) noted that all policy changes made a great demand on time. First, the new policy required time to learn the new behaviors required for the change. Second, implementers needed to anticipate the need for additional time and delegate less meaningful tasks to others.

This study explored the relationships between job satisfaction, self-efficacy, stress, time and policy implementation for Michigan principals. Responses from the survey identified information describing the principals who responded to the survey, the knowledge these principals had regarding the evaluation policy, if they perceived themselves as policy implementers, building managers, and instructional leaders and if there was a relationship between the principals' perceptions regarding the implementation and the variables listed above.

Roles of the Principalship

For this study the principal was identified as executing three roles in the building: that of instructional leader, building manager, and policy implementer. One role previously identified as "secondary stakeholder" or "policy stakeholder" was a role found within the context of stakeholder theory, while the three roles of instructional leader, building manager, and policy implementer were in the context of roles carried out by the principal in the school. All three roles existed simultaneously or individually depending upon the internal and external environment of the building. Day et al. (2001) proposed that leadership and management were mutually reinforcing within the context of leadership that was diffused rather than hierarchical (p. 33).

A theme that appeared in previous research was that principals were now forced to find a balance in their managerial and instructional leadership roles. Leithwood and Riehl (2003) identified research-based conclusions for successful school leadership. Leadership roles included influencing student learning through quality curriculum and teacher instruction, while responding to accountability-oriented policies. Wise et al. (1985) identified the issue of role conflict for the principal. Wishing to maintain a collegial relationship, principals faced some difficulty switching to the role of evaluator (p. 75).

Parasuraman and Allutto (1981) identified role conflict and role ambiguity as principal sources of organizational stress (as cited in Bolding & Van Patten, 1982, p. 6). Work overload could contribute to role conflict and role ambiguity as individuals had to choose to complete some tasks at the sacrifice of other tasks.

Tooley and Hooks (2010), in their study, provided a strong example of the synergy of roles necessary for the completion of the annual report. Completion of the annual report required the principal, in the role of building manager, to report all relevant data necessary for the operation of the building (attendance, discipline, resource management) and student/building activities; the principal, as an instructional leader, was required to report on student academic progress, teacher professional development, and curriculum/instructional strategies implementation; and the principal as policy implementer was required to follow the regulations and rules delineated in the annual report policy issued by the government.

The labeling of principals' roles in a leadership position was prevalent throughout educational leadership research and studies. Experts used terms such as bureaucratic leadership, visionary leadership, entrepreneurial leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, servant leadership, and situational leadership (Day et al., 2001; Fullan, 1992; Marzano , Waters, & McNulty, 2005; Sergiovanni, 1998). Furthermore, each type of leader executed multiple roles while principal in a school building.

In 2012, a Michigan Department of Education committee looked at the policies and practices that dealt with educator leadership preparation. Rather than retaining the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLCC) standards, they adopted the Educational Leadership Constituents Council (ELCC) standards. There were seven standards and a total of thirty elements found within the seven standards. These standards covered administrator evaluations, performance assessments, curriculum and instruction, and teacher leadership.

The three roles identified in this study were found integrated into the ELCC standards. The standards were written with a narrative paragraph introducing each standard followed by a chart delineating the Content Knowledge and Performance categories.

Standard 2.0 pertained to school culture and instructional programming aligned with the role of instructional leader. Section 2.2 referred to the candidate knowledge of curriculum development and instructional delivery theories, multiple methods of evaluation and measures of teacher performance. Section 2.3 specifically referred to candidate knowledge of instructional leadership practices and standards for high-quality teacher, principal and district practice.

Standard 3.0 pertained to the management of the school organization, specifically its operation and resources, and aligned with the role of building manager. Section 3.1 referenced candidate knowledge of school management of organizational, operational, and legal resources; and marketing and public relations. Section 3.2 required candidates to understand the methods and procedures for managing and aligning school resources to building priorities. Section 3.3 required the candidate to have knowledge of crisis management, creating a safe learning environment, and discipline policies and plans.

Standard 5.0 aligned with the role of policy stakeholder as it pertains to school accountability for student success. In Section 5.1, candidates were required to have knowledge of federal, state, and local legal and policy guidelines that would define accountability, equity and social justice. Standard 6.0 also aligned with the role of policy stakeholder in Section 6.1 where candidates demonstrated knowledge of polices, laws and regulations enacted by state, local and federal authorities that affect schools. Section 6.2 required candidates to understand the larger political, social, economic, legal and cultural decisions that impacted student learning.

The ELCC standards previously noted were not the only standards for school-based leaders. Many states adopted the ISLLC standards and Roach et al. (2010) found that many states endorsed these standards in their state codes. The second most influential code referred to the role of principal as an instructional leader.

Day et al. (2001) concisely defined the roles of principal when they reported:

> They [principals] underscore the continuing dynamic between their core personal values, management functions and leadership demands. They capture their past, present and future pressures, challenges and concerns and aspirations with which they are daily faced and which reflect the multi-faceted demands of the role. Heads [principals] are constantly juggling competing demands upon their time, energy and resources. (p. 28).

Day et al. (2001) also defined the difference between the role of instructional leader and management. Leadership was the process of building and maintaining a vision, interpersonal relationships and a strong school culture. Management was the coordination and monitoring of organizational activities; the functions, procedures and systems by which you realized the vision (p. 29).

Wise et al. (1985) noted the struggle principals had with juggling "the roles of school leader, supervisor and builder of esprit de corps" (p. 110). Baxter (2008) reported that many university-based principal preparation programs were focused on school leaders as "data-driven business managers rather than as public servants and community leaders" (as cited by

Burkman, 2010, p. 3). This was unfortunate, according to Burkman (2010), as many universities played a role in public policy and needed to prepare future leaders to do the same.

Instructional Leader

One of the tenets of stakeholder theory was the issue of the normative core when building relationships between stakeholders and how stakeholders were treated. The instructional leader, who builds a culture of learners within the school building, nurtured the normative core. (However, without the managerial skills of a principal, the learning environment was chaotic, apathetic or negative: all three were not conducive to the nurturing of a normative core.)

Successful leadership, according to Day et al. (2001), was defined by individual and collective value systems and not by bureaucratic managerial concerns. Leaders, in this study, had moved beyond the confines of narrow managerial views to see their role as a holistic approach guided by personal values and preferences.

Day et al. reported on effective leadership and found there were levels of tension and dilemma discovered through their interviews. Dilemmas were not accidental but instead the choosing between courses of action which were often mutually exclusive. Tensions were specific sets of pressures experienced by leaders and might not require leaders to select a course of action. When trying to analyze leadership in the form of dilemmas, they found that this was impossible to accomplish as dilemmas didn’t represent the principal’s role entirely. However, they did find dilemmas proved a “structure for considering how the experience of being a leader arises from the complex interaction of personal ideologies, relationships with staff and students and the demands of the school situation” (p. 25).

Sergiovanni (1998) identified “moral” leadership as part of his pedagogical leadership to develop human capital. He believed that “the source of authority for leadership is found neither in bureaucratic rules and procedures nor in the personalities and style of leaders but in shared values, ideas and commitments” (p. 43).

This work supported a school culture based on shared values that could be nurtured when the principal was an instructional leader and all stakeholders in the building were focused on student achievement. This moralistic approach for leadership also supported the work completed by Wicks et al. (1994) and Janssens and Seynaeve (2000) on ethics as normative cores found in stakeholder theory.

When Hitt et al. (2012) completed their study, they surmised there was a need to see educational leaders as those who worked primarily through the work of others: the school environment and the teachers impacted student achievement. Successful schools had principals who influenced and supported teaching and learning and facilitated the development of the individual and the organization (p. 5). Their recommendation was for principals to earn advanced degrees to strengthen an “educational leader’s ability to practice instructional leadership” (p. 5). Principals needed an understanding of curriculum, instruction and assessment to lead instructional programs and increase student achievement.

Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) designed, as noted previously, a list of principal responsibilities and their correlation to student achievement. Involvement in curriculum, instruction and assessment and knowledge of curriculum, instruction and assessment were important responsibilities listed in their study and reflected the responsibilities of an instructional leader.

Marx (2008) noted the role of the instructional leader was transforming from a top-down supervisory approach to a more collaborative approach focused on teachers' professional growth. In this scenario, the leader would improve the quality of instruction within the school to increase student achievement (thereby meeting the goals of the legislative mandate). This reinforced the research completed by Atkinson et al. (1997) on stakeholders assessing and achieving targets established by the organization.

Cousins and Whitmore (1998) also noted the relationship between owners and stakeholders when addressing the completion of evaluations. It was the role of the instructional leader to complete the evaluation monitoring and/or evaluating teacher effectiveness. Harrison et al. (2012) completed their study using stakeholder theory when examining student achievement influenced by teachers. To reiterate, the role of the instructional leader was to monitor and evaluate teacher effectiveness to measure student achievement.

Building Managerial Role

Grissom and Loeb (2011) completed a study on principal effectiveness and the importance of managerial skills. The study recognized the importance of instructional leadership, defined as "anything and everything" a principal did to promote student achievement and the ability of teachers to teach. After a factor analysis, they found organization management skills were a predictor of student achievement growth.

Organizational management skills included maintaining campus facilities, managing a budget and safe school environment. These tasks were to be completed, but not at the expense of instruction. Grissom and Loeb (2011) determined that effective instructional leadership involved an understanding of the instructional needs of the school, in addition to targeting resources, hiring effective teachers and keeping the school running smoothly (p. 1119). They added that principal efficacy toward these functions might be more important than identified through previous research.

Day et al. (2001) in a study completed in the UK, noted that for effective reform, the view of leadership had become more managerial in nature. Ball (1987) reported that leadership now embodied old managerialism (direct control) and new managerialism (people-centered management) (as cited by Day et al. 2001). It was noted that this role of "managing" allowed for less time to influence the quality of teaching and learning within the school.

Hitt et al. (2012) noted that the ISLLC standards supported the ability of the principal to manage the organization in addition to nurturing a culture of learning. This ISLLC standard aligned with ELCC Standard 3.0.

Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) designed a list of principal responsibilities as they correlated to student achievement. The responsibility of "Order" was listed as the extent to which the principal established a set of standard operating procedures and routines. This management function impacted the structure of the school and could be as simplistic as designing a schedule for lunchroom supervision or access to the copy machine (p. 58).

A second responsibility was resources that dealt with the allocation of materials, space, time, and equipment. Marzano et al. (2005) also included professional development opportunities and the creation of professional growth plans. Again, this was listed as a function of the managerial role.

Malen (1994) labeled the principal a middle manager that controlled the agenda content, meeting format, and information flow between the school and external stakeholders.

She reported that principals had control of the resources (information, time, money) to reinforce the level of power attached to the role of principal. For example, principals selectively enforced discipline policies (p. 153).

Burkman (2010) noted the role of the principal was transitioning again from school manager to the school catalyst for success (p. 3). The principal was becoming a liaison between the school and all community resources. This was forcing principals to become socially, politically and civically engaged with the climate of the community.

Examining the role of manager through stakeholder theory, it was the management practice the principal engaged in that maintained a level of efficiency, safety and security within the building. Manuel-Navarrete and Modvar (2007) reported that primary stakeholders were necessary for the firm to operate and survive. Without the principal in the role of manager, even as a secondary stakeholder, the viability for the organization to survive was questionable.

The principal, as manager, created the schedules and provided the resources to allow the teacher the opportunity to be effective in his/her classroom. The attainment of goals and the building of relationships between stakeholders required the principal to undertake the role of manager.

Policy Stakeholder/Implementer

Day et al. (2001) noted that the dilemma for many principals in their study was the responsibility they held for the implementation of an externally imposed policy. A policy might challenge personal core values or moral purposes and/or the relationships found between morals, ethics, and stakeholder theory. This supported the research completed by Wicks et al. (1994), Sergiovanni (1998) and Janssens and Seynaeve (2000). For the leaders

Day et al. (2001) studied, the policy imperatives were managed with integrity with principals integrating the policy into the school vision, values and practices.

Burkman (2010) noted in her study that the principal needed to stay up to date with local, state and federal law and policy development. This interaction between power and politics added to a principal's stress.

Chapleo and Simms (2010) examined the impact of public policy implementation on a stakeholder group. They determined that the importance and number of policies impacted the activity of the stakeholder management. For example, principals were highly active when implementing public policy.

Fowler (2009) defined the final stages of implementation, known as institutionalization, as the seamless integration of the policy into the practices of the school (p. 299). She reported that institutionalization was similar to all other stages of policy implementation as it required both thought and planning.

The challenges for the implementation of the policy increased if other actors (stakeholders such as the principal) opposed the policy. If the principal had serious concerns with the necessary changes, one reason was that someone outside the school organization imposed the policy changes (p. 300). Reasons for resistance included perceptions that the policy was contrary to his/her self-interests or that it conflicted with personal values. Three potential options existed if there was disagreement: the implementer left the organization; the implementer spoke out about the problems; or the implementer became disloyal and failed to conform to the policy.

Summary

The constructs of job satisfaction, self-efficacy, stress and time, and the multiple roles of the principalship needed to be articulated prior to understanding the potential relationships between these constructs and the implementation of a mandated evaluation policy. Fowler (2009) believed that a successful implementation of policy would occur if school leaders began with a good knowledge base, combined with thought and planning (p. 305). The question remained if the principals perceived they were provided opportunities to build a knowledge base in the implementation of this educational policy.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

Using stakeholder theory as a theoretical framework, items for the questionnaire were developed to allow for an examination of principal's perceptions of the mandated evaluation policy. The focus of this descriptive/correlational study was to determine if there was a relationship between the mandatory educational policy, designed by legislators, and job satisfaction, self-efficacy, time and stress in the personal and professional lives of Michigan principals. Data were gathered using principal's responses to a web-based questionnaire and potential relationships were analyzed and identified.

The motivation to complete a quantitative study was to better understand what was happening in schools throughout the state of Michigan related to principals' perceptions of the implementation process for a new evaluation policy. A survey instrument was developed and piloted by the researcher. Items in the survey were designed to collect demographic data of respondents and asked their perceptions regarding policy implementation, prior experience in the evaluation process, how respondents defined their role(s) as a principal, how principals (as stakeholders) felt supported throughout the implementation process, and perceptions pertaining to the implementation process and constructs of job satisfaction, self-efficacy, time and stress. As a correlational study, responses were not to determine causes or the impact of a mandatory policy, but rather to examine relationships between variables and the potential to predict causal relationships through regression analysis.

Sample/Population

The population of this study was identified as Michigan K-12 principals in public and charter schools and a consensus sampling was identified through voluntary participation in the questionnaire. Constructs and variables included gender, building grade level, student population, teaching and administrative certification, years of experience, ethnicity, location of the school, size of teaching staff, if the school was a focus or priority school, the evaluation model currently implemented and if there was a designee such as an assistant principal or department chair to assist in the observations within the school. These constructs and variables were valuable to the researcher when completing a statistical analysis of the data to determine potential relationships in this study.

Interest in this study by the Michigan Department of Education Research Department led to the opportunity to access all email addresses for schools using the Educational Entity Master (EEM) system in Michigan; however, only public and charter school emails were accessed for the study. The EEM is a repository containing the numbers and basic contact information for public, nonpublic schools, intermediate school districts and institutions of higher education (Center for Educational Performance and Information website). The opportunity to reach out to all public and charter school leaders in Michigan was made possible with the Uniform Resource Locator (URL) provided by Matt Gleason at the Michigan Department of Education.

The questionnaire was sent to all public and charter school principals in the EEM system. At the time of the questionnaire, the population involved 3,403 Michigan public schools including public schools academies: 1,520 elementary schools, 410 middle schools, 706 high schools, 21 ungraded schools, and 746 multi-grade schools. A total of 3,799 email addresses were provided by the EEM.

However, after removing duplicates and correcting the list for misspellings, only 3,009 email addresses were actually used in the study. Determining the relative frequency distribution showed the percentage of respondents within the total population to legitimatize the number of responses collected.

Data Collection Process

The data collection was completed using a cross-sectional questionnaire sent on May 12, 2014. The questionnaire was developed and published in a web-based survey format on SurveyMonkey (see Appendix A for a copy of the questionnaire). Questions were designed to collect demographic variables and gather principals' perceptions regarding their knowledge of the Michigan School Reform Law, the recommendations for implementation published by the MCEE, and their candid perceptions, as policy stakeholders, on the relationship between job satisfaction, self-efficacy, time and stress and the implementation of the evaluation policy.

Participation was voluntary with respondents completing the questionnaire using SurveyMonkey (see Appendix A for a copy of the questionnaire). The data were collected through SurveyMonkey and downloaded to the statistical software SPSS. Participants received a letter explaining the motivation for completing the questionnaire electronically and it was attached to the survey. The letter guaranteed anonymity for the respondents and the survey was designed to "not capture personal information" by disabling the storage of email addresses.

Responses were sent to SurveyMonkey through secure, encrypted SSL/TLS connections and respondents could be tracked through a unique ID. SurveyMonkey's information systems infrastructure (servers, networking equipment, etc.) was collocated at third party SSAE 16/SOC 2 audited data centers.

The goal of this anonymous questionnaire was to allow for open and candid responses from the respondents. Access to data was restricted using a password system to support privacy of responses. Backups occurred hourly, internally, and daily to a centralized backup system for storage in multiple geographically disparate sites.

Secondary data such as published documents, reports and policy statements were included in the literature review to present a concise reporting of the implementation process for the Michigan School Reform Law (Brugha &Varvasovszky, 2000). The Michigan Department of Education (MDE), Michigan Association of Secondary School Principals (MASSP), and the MDE Office of Psychometrics, Accountability, Research and Evaluation published this data collection.

Once the questionnaire was released, a follow-up reminder was sent seven days later to remind principals of their opportunity to complete the questionnaire. It was important that the final response was large enough to prevent a sampling error by not having enough representation of principals' perceptions. A final reminder was sent to principals on June 9, 2014 after the Michigan school year was completed. For a vast majority of the schools, students were no longer in the building. This resulted in approximately one hundred additional responses.

The questionnaire was designed to coincide with the research questions. The next step was completion of the paperwork and submission of a copy of the questionnaire to the Eastern Michigan University Human Subjects Review Committee (UHSRC) to request Human Subjects Approval. On April 10, 2014, the researcher was notified by UHSRC that the research protocol was deemed exempt and permission to continue the research was granted (see Appendix B for UHSRC forms).

Pilot Study

Members of the dissertation committee in the Leadership and Counseling Department at Eastern Michigan University reviewed the questionnaire prior to the pilot. Statements were revised as needed with changes made to four questions and six questions eliminated from the working draft of the questionnaire. This resulted in a total of thirty-eight questions presented on the pilot survey.

The pilot study was completed between April 21-23, 2014 guaranteeing the validity and reliability of the questions. The pilot group of seven principals, acting as a representative sample of Michigan principals (addressing gender, race, years experience as a teacher and principal, credentials, and current employment), understood participation in the pilot prevented them from completing the questionnaire sent out later through SurveyMonkey. Principals in the pilot were given the electronic questionnaire as well as a written copy to allow them to provide written feedback. They completed the questionnaire online to replicate the experiences of future principals who would complete the final approved questionnaire. The goal of the pilot questionnaire was to check for clarity of each statement, improve construct validity and reliability, and/or remove bias. Nardi (2003) noted that an important element for obtaining reliable and valid information, when designing a survey, was to construct well-written and manageable questionnaires. This process should eliminate biased poorly designed surveys or questionnaires.

Only one question was dropped from the questionnaire and it was found in the section on the mandatory law and MCEE recommendations. Several of the pilot respondents felt it was too ambiguous/unclear as it depended upon district policy and the state mandate. Therefore, the researcher was agreeable to the removal of the question.

With the validity and reliability of the questionnaire assured, the study continued to move forward. An analysis for construct validity was completed after the data was collected.

Measurement/Instrument

A web-based questionnaire, SurveyMonkey, was used for data collection. Constructs were operationalized using a five point Likert scale with attributes of: 1. Strongly Agree; 2. Agree; 3. Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4. Disagree; and 5. Strongly Disagree for each item. The last question was an open-ended question asking principals, as key policy stakeholders, what support they needed to implement the new teacher evaluation policy.

Likert scale variables have been considered ordinal variables with an intensity of one to five. Like many researchers, this researcher treated the intensity scales as interval/ratio measures when looking at subscales.

The questionnaire was divided into subscales for measurement of job satisfaction, self-efficacy, time and stress constructs, and knowledge of the law. Additional subscales addressed perceptions of the roles of instructional leader, building manager, and policy stakeholder and if principals believed they had a voice in policy formation and/or implementation of this law. Subscales were designed to create inter-item reliability. It was important for measures to accurately address the research questions.

Construct validity was addressed, at the completion of the questionnaire, with numerous items reflecting the identified constructs identified in the study. Responses by principals showed similar means and few outliers and the creation of frequency tables for constructs and variables supported the validity of the questionnaire (see Appendix D and Appendix K).

In a study completed by Gist and Mitch (1992), they addressed the construct validity of self-efficacy and determined it was possible for respondents to put aside subjectivity while completing a survey. Their rationale for supporting this type of methodology was based on respondent judgment and assumed understanding for the definition of a construct. Once respondents participated in the questionnaire, the creation of frequency tables for constructs and variables supported the validity of the questionnaire (see Appendix D and Appendix K).

When the questionnaire time frame was completed, transferring data into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was the next step. A codebook was created to record how number values were assigned to each response and clearly articulated the complete name for each variable. For the responses to the open-ended question, a thematic analysis occurred to discover patterns and themes within the responses.

Data Analysis

A descriptive statistical analysis of the variables occurred when the data were collected. Likert responses were coded numerically to allow for statistical analysis. Basic demographic information underwent a univariate analysis and frequency tables were created to allow for a clear "picture" or profile of the respondents. This allowed the researcher to determine if there were enough respondents in each subscale.

Data collection of the demographics of respondents allowed for a graphic representation of data through the use of bar graphs and histograms. (See Appendix K) Examining the distribution of the variables led to a determination if the scores fit a normal or bell curve or if the distribution created a negative or positive skew.

A measure of central tendency provided the opportunity to analyze where responses were clustered. Mean, median and mode were determined for variables as measures of central tendency and a standard deviation was determined for interval/ratio data. This standard deviation allowed the researcher to determine if all interval/ratio variables were, in fact, variables with numbers dispersed from zero. Range, variance and standard deviation showed the spread between variables. Tables showing the descriptive univariate statistics for demographic variables were created using SPSS. (See Appendix D)

Data collection and analysis for each questions included:

- Research question #1 required determining the central tendency as a descriptive analysis of how knowledgeable principals were of the mandated policy.
- Research question #2 required using cross tabulation to summarize categorical data and then contingency tables were created. (Pearson *r*)
- Research question #3 required a correlational analysis of data to examine if a relationship existed between certain variables, and if a relationship did exist, to determine the strength and direction of the relationship. (*t* Test and ANOVA)
- Research question #4 required the examination of between-group differences to compare the means of two or more independent groups. (ANOVA)
- Research question #5 required the use of multiple regression to examine relationships between dependent and independent variables and to look for any causal relationships suggesting prediction. (Multiple Regression)
- Research question #6, as an open-ended question, required a content analysis creating a list of responses. By reading through the responses, it was possible to determine meaningful categories and relevant thematic coding assignments were created.

Completing an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and regression analysis allowed the researcher to examine relationships between variables and to measure, not only the strength of the relationship, but to discover if there was a causal effect between selected variables. During regression analysis, the goal was to note the effect of causal variables on the variable they influence. Sykes (1992) reported that multiple regression was “valuable in quantifying the impact of various simultaneous influences upon a single dependent variable (p. 8).

Summary

Using univariate and bivariate analysis of data, the focus was to explore potential relationships between variables, to discover the strength and direction of relationships and/or to uncover any causal relationships to increase the depth of this study. The final question in the questionnaire, as an open-ended question, allowed the researcher to examine themes determined through the examination of responses and note if these themes reflected potential insight for this study’s research questions or if additional themes were introduced requiring future study.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to identify and develop an understanding of the relationships between the perceptions of principals regarding the Michigan mandatory evaluation policy and job satisfaction, self-efficacy, time and stress as they attempted to navigate the roles of building manager, instructional leader and specifically that of policy stakeholder.

The six research questions designed for this study included:

1. How knowledgeable are principals of the Michigan Teacher Evaluation Policy mandates?
2. Is there an association between principals' perceptions of the input process for teacher evaluation policy formation and implementation with job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and level of stress?
3. What is the relationship between principal characteristics, job satisfaction, self-efficacy and level of stress with Michigan principal's knowledge of the teacher evaluation policy?
4. Are there any within or between group differences by gender, credentials, or years in the principalship regarding implementation of the teacher evaluation policy?
5. To what extent do demographic characteristics, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, level of stress, and knowledge of the teacher evaluation policy predict principal perceptions of policy implementation?
6. What support do principals say they need in order to implement the new teacher evaluation policy?

A web-based questionnaire, SurveyMonkey, was used for data collection to assist in describing the potential relationships found between educational policy and Michigan principals, was completed using a cross-sectional questionnaire sent on May 12, 2014. Constructs were operationalized using a five point Likert scale with attributes of: (1) Strongly Disagree; (2) Disagree; (3) Neither Agree nor Disagree; (4) Agree; and (5) Strongly Agree for each item. The last question was an open-ended question asking principals, as key policy stakeholders, what support they needed to implement the new teacher evaluation policy.

Questions were designed to collect demographic variables and gather principals' perceptions regarding their knowledge of the Michigan School Reform Law, the recommendations for implementation published by the MCEE, and principals' candid perceptions, as policy stakeholders, on the relationship between job satisfaction, self-efficacy, time and stress and the implementation of the evaluation policy.

Participants

A total of 426 principals (14% response rate) responded to the survey using a total of 3009 email addresses. After examining the data through SPSS, 19 respondents were eliminated as they did not complete the second section of the survey for a total of 407 participants (13.5% response rate).

A univariate analysis was completed to examine the variability of the responses. Within the respondents, 191 respondents were male, 214 respondents were female and two respondents were transgender. Statistically, the transgendered respondents' perceptions were included throughout the study. However, the number was very small and to avoid the skewing of gender data, the variable of " transgendered" was removed from statistical analysis when a research question was viewed through a gender lens. The gender demographic variable was appropriately balanced.

The distribution of the race/ethnicity variable was heavily weighted with White respondents: 376 (92.4%) of respondents reported as White; 28 (6.9%) respondents as Black; 2 (.5%) respondents as American Indian; and 1 (.2%) respondent as Hispanic (see Appendix B for complete demographic results).

A concern with the imbalance of ethnicity in early responses resulted in a second email with the researcher verifying email addresses for all principals to ensure that certain emails were not blocked by a district or public school academy. If addresses were blocked, the researcher contacted the charter school academy or school district to garner permission to contact the principals. A third and fourth reminder were sent to all potential respondents.

When the researcher examined the 2014 Michigan Department of Education, Publications and Reports: Staff Summary, the final race/ethnicity distribution percentages of the questionnaire were somewhat representative of the total distribution percentages of administrators listed by the MDE. This was a summary report of Michigan administrators found on the Center for Educational Performance and Information (CEPI) site from Fall 2007 to Fall 2013 and percentages for administrators reported 84% White; 14% Black; 1% Hispanic/Latino; and .4% Asian. An additional 2.2% was reported under Mixed Racial, American Indian/Alaskan Native, and Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander.

This data source might not accurately represent the population being studied for two reasons. First, it was a composite of data taken over multiple years, not a yearly snapshot of principal race/ethnicity. It was challenging to find any current data within the Michigan Department of Education website. The data set discovered did offer some insight into the race/ethnicity of principals in Michigan by reflecting a substantially higher percentage of White verses Black principals over a seven year period.

Second, the term used by the MDE was "administrator" for this data set, which could be defined by any leadership role in the schools. This was highly possible as the initial email list serve provided by the MDE contained "administrators" such as curriculum directors and assistant superintendents. This was an issue for the researcher requiring a careful review of the original email list and removal of any address that did not specify "principal."

An issue of nonresponse bias was considered; however, the distribution percentages from the Michigan Department of Education supported a lack of bias. This is not to imply that the demographic statistics on gender and race/ethnicity were fair and equitable. Response bias was avoided by changing the direction of the wording to prevent respondents from replying using a level of social desirability (Nardi, 2003).

When examining teaching credentialing, 43% respondents reported having an elementary (K-8) certificate, 39% had a secondary (8-12) certificate, 7% had a non-core or elective certificate, and 10% reported having a special education certificate. Six responses were missing.

The respondents of the questionnaire reflected experience in their role of educator. Over 359 (88%) of the respondents reported having more than six years of teaching experience with 108 (27%) of these respondents having over twenty years of teaching experience.

When examining administrative credentials, 151 respondents (37%) had a master's, specialist or doctorate in a leadership program. Another 227 respondents (56%) reported having administrative certification. Six percent of the respondents reported they were currently enrolled in an administrative program or earned certification through an alternate route.

When examining responses for the number of years as a principal, 247 (61%) respondents had at least six years of experience as a principal. Specifically, data reflected that 159 principals (39%) reported having 1-5 years of experience; 112 principals (28%) reported 6-10 years of experience; 68 principals (17%) reported 11-15 years of experience; 38 principals (9%) had 16-20 years of experience; and 29 principals (7%) had over 20 years of experience as a principal.

A majority of 249 respondents (71%) worked in buildings supporting a grade configuration containing Pre-K-8 grades. Secondary principals, grades 9-12, numbered 83 (24%) and 19 respondents (5%) worked in K-12 buildings. Fifty-six respondents did not designate building level of principalship.

When respondents were asked the location of their schools, 61 (15%) noted their school was in an urban setting; 175 (43%) respondents reported their schools were in a suburban setting and 166 (41%) of the respondents reported their schools were in a rural setting. Five respondents did not report the setting of their school.

School population and size of teaching staff were also demographic items in the questionnaire. A vast majority of the principals (196 or 49%) reported their school had a population size between 251-500 students. Fifty-four (14%) respondents reported their schools had less than 250 students; 88 (22%) respondents had a student population between 501-750 students; 32 ((8%) respondents had a student population between 751-1000 students; and 31 (7%) respondents reported a population over 1001 students. Seven principals did not respond to this item and were reported as missing.

The size of a building’s teaching staff reflected percentages proportional to that of student population (when comparing staffing and student numbers). The majority of principals (212 or 52%) reported a teaching staff size between 15-30 teachers; 53 (13%) respondents had a staff of 14 or less teachers; 110 (27%) respondents had 31-60 teachers; 19 (5%) had a teaching staff between 61-90 teachers; and 10 (2%) respondents had a teaching staff over 91 teachers.

When asked about having an assistant principal to share the responsibilities for observing and evaluating teachers, 282 principals (70%) responded they did not have an assistant principal with 124 respondents having an assistant principal. Of the 166 assistant principals working in the identified schools, 100 of the assistant principals were responsible for the completion of evaluations or (60%) of the assistant principals. Twelve principals responded they had a designated building leader, such as a department head or curriculum coordinator, to assist them in the evaluation process.

Seventy-seven (19%) of the principals responding were identified as working at focus schools. Therefore, 327 (80%) principals reported they were not working at a focus school.

The final demographic item addressed the use of specific teacher evaluation tools currently used to evaluate teachers in Michigan schools. Respondents were asked if they were using one of the four pilot evaluation tools identified by the state. The majority of schools (48%) were currently using the Danielson Framework for Teaching Model; the rest of the schools were using one of multiple choices including Marzano’s Teacher Evaluation Model (7%), the Thoughtful Classroom (8%), 5 Dimensions of Teaching and Learning (7%), a district model with a waiver from the state (12%), or a district model waiting for a waiver (11%).

Respondents were also asked, in Item 33, to reflect upon the time they spent as principals fulfilling the three roles of instructional leader, building manager and policy implementer at their respective schools (see Appendix E). Table 3 reflects the data from respondents' perceptions of time allotted to each role.

Table 3

Roles of the Principal Time Allotment

	1-2 Hours	3-4 Hours	5-6 Hours	7-8 Hours	More Than 8 Hours
Instructional Leader	60%	26%	8%	2%	4%
Building Manager	12%	36%	30%	12%	10%
Policy Implementer	56%	31%	9%	2%	2%

The majority of respondents (86%) spent between 1-4 hours per day in the role of instructional leader; 66% of principals spent between 3-6 hours per day in the role of building manager; and 87% of principals spent between 1-4 hours per day in the role of policy implementer. Of the three roles presented, the first and second highest percentage of respondents (60% and 56% respectively) spent 1-2 hour(s) per day in the roles of instructional leader and policy implementer.

Item 34, in the questionnaire, asked respondents to rank the order of importance principals felt in fulfilling each of the three roles (instructional leader, building manager, and policy implementer). The greatest number of respondents ranked the role of instructional leader (90%) as the most important role with 63% ranking building manager as important and 56% ranking policy implementer as less important than the other roles. (See Appendix H)

Table 4

Rating of Role Importance

	1: Most Important	2: Important	3: Less Important
Instructional Leader	90%	9%	1%
Building Manager	13%	63%	24%
Policy Implementer	4%	40%	56%

The average respondent was a white principal with elementary or secondary teaching certification and holding administrative certification. A majority of the respondents had over six years of experience as a principal with the highest number of respondents working in Pre K-8 buildings in a suburban or rural setting. Building size reflected a student population between 251-500 students with a teaching staff between 15-30 teachers. A majority of the respondents used the Danielson's model for teacher evaluation. Eighty-seven percent of the respondents reported they spent between 1-4 hours per day as policy implementers and respondents strongly perceived the role of instructional leader the most important role for a principal and the role of policy implementer the least important.

Research Question 1

The questionnaire was designed to determine the knowledge of Michigan principals regarding the Michigan School Reform Law and the recommendations for implementation published by the MCEE. Respondents were asked to respond from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree" on a five point Likert scale for each of the ten items pertaining to the law or recommendations. Items on the survey were specifically written to assess the principals' knowledge: items 1, 4, 6, 9, and 10 pertained to the Michigan Reform Law and items 2, 3, 5, 7, and 8 pertained to the MCEE recommendations. (See Appendix A for a list of the ten items pertaining to knowledge of the law.)

The researcher used SPSS software and computed descriptive statistics to address the first research question on principals' knowledge of the law and MCEE recommendations. The first ten items (variables) were recoded into correct and incorrect responses by examining each question and recoding it to reflect the correct answer for each question. Each scaled variable then reflected a "0" (incorrect) or "1" (correct). A one-sum of the subscale questions (1-10) was then completed to determine the mean. The average score of the first ten questions reflecting principals' knowledge was 6.15.

Table 5

Average Score Reflecting Principals' Knowledge

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Sum of Subscale Questions	375	2	10	6.1547	1.44139
Valid N (listwise)	375				

A descriptive analysis was then completed to examine the mean for each of the ten items. By examining Table 6, a majority of the respondents answered question 1 (*M*=.92), question 7 (*M*=.90) and question 9 (*M*=.85) correctly.

Table 6

Analysis of Principals' Knowledge of the Law and Recommendations

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean
Question 1 recoded to correct	387	0	1	354	0.9147
Question 3 recoded to correct	390	0	1	97	0.2487
Question 5 recoded correct	390	0	1	154	0.3949
Question 6 recoded correct	390	0	1	234	0.6
Question 7 recoded correct	389	0	1	348	0.8946
Question 8 recoded correct	389	0	1	212	0.545
Question 9 recoded correct	388	0	1	330	0.8505
Question 2 recoded correct	390	0	1	134	0.3436
Question 4 recoded correct	385	0	1	261	0.6779
Question 10 recoded correct	386	0	1	260	0.6736
Valid N (listwise)	375				

It was a positive outcome as these three items reflected the requisite knowledge a principal needed for the teacher evaluation process. (See Appendix C for additional data for item questions)

Results of the First Ten Items

As noted previously, when examining the questions individually, questions 1, 4, 6, 9, and 10 pertained to the Michigan School Reform Law and questions 2, 3, 5, 7, and 8 pertained to the recommendations made by the MCEE. (See Appendix C for items, and a descriptive analysis of responses and anticipated responses per item.) Creating a frequency table for each question, the valid percent per item are in Table 7. Again, items number 1, 7, and 9 have the highest percentage correct.

Table 7

Percentage of Correct Responses: Knowledge Items 1-10

Item Number	% With Correct Response	Law or MCEE
1	92 % correct	Law
2	34 % correct	MCEE
3	25 % correct	MCEE
4	68 % correct	Law
5	40 % correct	MCEE
6	60 % correct	Law
7	90 % correct	MCEE
8	55 % correct	MCEE
9	85 % correct	Law
10	67 % correct	Law

Summary

The mean score for questions pertaining to the law was .74 with the mean score for questions pertaining to the MCEE recommendations .49. Respondents scored higher on questions pertaining directly to the law with a difference of .25 in the mean scores between the law and recommendations.

Therefore, the results of items 1-10 could be summarized noting that a greater number of respondents were familiar with the statements pertaining to the law (*M*=74) than the recommendations by the MCEE (*M*=49).

Research Question 2

Items 31-34, found in the questionnaire, asked principals to respond to questions pertaining to their voice in the formation and implementation of educational policy, the time spent in their roles of instructional leader, building manager, and policy implementer, and the importance they placed on each role. Items 31 and 32 reflected the perceptions of principals as stakeholders having a voice in the formation or implementation of the 2009 Michigan School Reform Law.

Table 8

Voice in Policy Formation at State, District and Building Levels

Question 31: *As a member of a key stakeholder group with the charge of completing teacher evaluations, I had a voice during the educational policy formation at:*

	N					
	Valid	Missing	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Deviation
The Building Level	388	38	3.4149	4.0000	4.00	1.32
The District Level	387	39	3.3152	4.0000	4.00	1.33
The State Level	387	39	1.5349	1.0000	1.00	3.41

Examining Table 8, the researcher determined that principals believed they had a voice in educational policy formation at the building (M=3.4) and district level (M=3.3). However, principals did not believe they had a voice in policy formation at the state level M=1.5). The variability level between points at the building and district level were similar showing scores of *s* = 1.32 for building level and *s* = 1.33 for district level respectively. The standard deviation for voice in formation of the educational policy at the state level was s = 3.41 and showed a greater variability of scores than found at the other two organizational levels.

Item 32, from the survey, requested principals to reflect upon their agreement or disagreement of having a voice in the implementation of the teacher evaluation policy found in the 2009 law. As with Table 8, principals in Table 9 reported they had a voice in the implementation of educational policy at the building (M=3.6) and district level (M=3.4). Variability between scores showed *s* = 1.27 for the building level and *s* = 1.3 at the district level. Principals also reported having a slight voice in policy implementation at the state level (M=1.5, s = .70). Table 9 reflected variability so small for responses at the state level that a vast majority of principals reported having little voice in the implementation of the evaluation policy.

Table 9

Voice in Policy Implementation at State, District and Building Levels

Question 32: As a member of a key stakeholder group with the charge of completing teacher evaluations, I had a voice during the educational policy implementation at:

	N					Std.
	Valid	Missing	Mean	Median	Mode	Deviation
The Building Level	386	40	3.5622	4	4	1.267
The District Level	384	42	3.4036	4	4	1.291
The State Level	382	44	1.5314	1	1	0.705

The researcher then completed a Pearson *r* to determine if there was a correlation between the constructs of job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and stress/time with voice in policy formation or implementation at the building, district or state level.

The first step was to recode the variables found within Items 31 and 32. “Strongly Disagree,” “Disagree” and “Neither Agree or Disagree” were recoded into “0” and “Agree” and “Strongly Agree” were coded into “1” to allow the researcher to collapse the subscales into one subscale representing voice in formation and implementation.

The researcher also had a concern that the results were going to be skewed due to the imbalance of the mean for principal’s voice in the formation or implementation of policy at the state level when compared to the building and district levels. She collapsed all six variables from Questions 31 and 32 into one subscale. The collapsed subscale was labeled “Sum of Voice in Formation and Implementation.” Table 10 reflects the data when a Pearson *r* correlation was completed.

Table 10

Correlations Between Job Satisfaction, Self-Efficacy and Stress/Time and Sum of Voice

		Job Satisfaction	Self-Efficacy	Stress/Time	Sum of Voice in Formation and Implementation at All Levels
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	1	.250**	.134**	0.1
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	0.008	0.054
	N	391	391	391	373
Self-Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.250**	1	.214**	.206**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	391	391	391	373
Stress/Time	Pearson Correlation	.134**	.214**	1	-0.016
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.008	.000		0.755
	N	391	391	391	373
Sum of Voice in Formation and Implementation	Pearson Correlation	0.1	.206**	-0.016	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.054	.000	0.755	
	N	373	373	373	373

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The results of a correlational analysis for job satisfaction and sum of voice was $r = .1$ and presented no or negligible positive relationship between the two variables. Specifically, the relationship between the two variables led the researcher to determine changes in one variable (respondents' job satisfaction) were not correlated with changes to the second variable (respondents' sum of voice in formation and implementation at all organizational levels). A p value of less than .01 was required for a statistically significant correlation to exist.

Self-efficacy increased slightly to .206 and reflected a slightly stronger relationship between self-efficacy and the sum of voice in formation and implementation at all organizational levels. An analysis led to determining there was a weak positive relationship between respondents' self-efficacy and sum of voice in formation and implementation at all organizational levels: $r = .206$, $p < .001$. Using a p value of less than .01, the significance value was .000 and led the researcher to determine that the finding was statistically significant and was highly unlikely to happen by chance.

When the researcher examined the variable stress/time with sum of voice in formation and implementation at all organizational levels, the correlation was -.016 and reflected a nonexistent or negligible relationship between variables. Stress/time and sum of voice in the formation and implementation process was not statistically significant with a value of $p = .755$.

The researcher then divided the variables of voice into "formation" and "implementation" to examine respondents' job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and stress/time with voice at the building, district and state level. Knowing that the data collected regarding perceptions of voice at the state level was at M=1.00, she conducted a second test to discover how skewed the data were when the researcher compared state level with building and with district levels.

Table 11 represents the correlation of the variables of job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and stress/time at each organizational level. Examining job satisfaction, the correlation for policy formation at each organizational level was building (r =.122, $p < .05$), district (r =.129, $p < .05$) and state (r = -.067, p =.188). Overall, the relationship between respondents' voice in policy formation and job satisfaction was negligible. Using $p < .05$, there was a weak statistically significant correlation between job satisfaction and voice at the building and district levels. The correlation between the state level and job satisfaction was not statistically significant. This was due to the skew in data at the state level. (See Table 8)

Viewing Table 11, when examining self-efficacy, the correlation for policy formation at each level was building (r =.144, $p < .01$), district (r =.168, $p < .01$) and state (r = -.052, p =.312). Overall, the relationship between respondents' voice in policy formation and self-efficacy was negligible, but was slightly higher than the relationship between voice and job satisfaction. Using $p < .01$, there was a statistically significant correlation between self-efficacy and voice at the building and district levels. The state level was statistically not significant p = .312.

Table 11

Correlation of Policy Formation and Job Satisfaction Self-Efficacy and Stress/Time

		Job Satisfaction	Self-Efficacy	Stress/ Time	Voice in Formation Building Level	Voice in Formation District Level	Voice in Formation State Level
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	1	.250**	.134**	.122*	.129*	-0.067
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.00	0.008	0.017	0.011	0.188
	N	391	391	391	387	386	386
Self-Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.250**	1	.214**	.144**	.168**	-0.052
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.00		.00	0.004	0.001	0.312
	N	391	391	391	387	386	386
Stress/Time	Pearson Correlation	.134**	.214**	1	-0.01	-0.026	0.018
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.008	0		0.838	0.604	0.725
	N	391	391	391	387	386	386
Voice in Formation Building Level	Pearson Correlation	.122*	.144**	-0.01	1	.800**	0.032
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.017	0.004	0.838		0	0.535
	N	387	387	387	387	386	386
Voice in Formation District Level	Pearson Correlation	.129*	.168**	-0.026	.800**	1	0.031
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.011	0.001	0.604	0		0.539
	N	386	386	386	386	386	385
Voice in Formation State Level	Pearson Correlation	-0.067	-0.052	0.018	0.032	0.031	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.188	0.312	0.725	0.535	0.539	
	N	386	386	386	386	385	386

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Stress/time, when correlated with each organizational level, resulted in building (*r* = -.010, *p* =.838), district (*r* = -.026, *p* =.604) and state (*r* = .018, *p* =.725). There was no or negligible relationship between stress/time and organizational levels and the results were not statistically significant.

The same process was repeated looking at policy implementation and the variables of job satisfaction, self-efficacy and stress/time and the different organizational levels. (See Table 12). The correlation between respondents' job satisfaction and the various organizational levels and stress/time and the various organizational levels was non-existent or negligible. Job satisfaction and stress/time at the various levels were also not statistically significant, with respondents' job satisfaction and voice in implementation at the state level $p < .05$.

Self-efficacy showed a weak positive relationship at the building ($r = .2$, $p < .01$) and district ($r = .217$, $p < .01$) levels for voice in policy implementation, while the state level was non-existent or negligible ($r = .079$, $p = .123$). Specifically, there was a statistically significant correlation between self-efficacy at the building level and self-efficacy at the district level ($p < .01$). State levels were also skewed in Table 12.

Additional charts, delineating the individual variables and organizational levels may be found in Appendix E. Each chart reinforced the data found by the researcher and presented in Tables 9 10,11, and 12.

The correlation between respondents' job satisfaction and stress/time and the various organizational levels was non-existent or negligible. Self-efficacy showed a weak positive relationship at the building ($r = .2$, $p < .01$) and district ($r = .217$, $p < .01$) levels, while the state level was non-existent or negligible ($r = .079$, $p =.123$).

Table 12

Correlation of Policy Implementation and Constructs at Individual Organizational Levels

		Job Satisfaction	Self-Efficacy	Stress/ Time	Voice in Implementation Building Level	Voice in Implementation District Level	Voice in Implementation State Level
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	1	.250**	.134**	.091	.082	-.100
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.008	.073	.111	.050
	N	391	391	391	385	383	381
Self-Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.250**	1	.214**	.203**	.217**	.079
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.123
	N	391	391	391	385	383	381
Stress/Time	Pearson Correlation	.134**	.214**	1	.013	-.029	.041
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.000		.794	.569	.422
	N	391	391	391	385	383	381
Voice in Implementation Building Level	Pearson Correlation	.091	.203**	.013	1	.803**	.063
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.073	.000	.794		.000	.219
	N	385	385	385	385	382	380
Voice in Implementation District Level	Pearson Correlation	.082	.217**	-.029	.803**	1	.069
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.111	.000	.569	.000		.178
	N	383	383	383	382	383	378
Voice in Implementation State Level	Pearson Correlation	-.100	.079	.041	.063	.069	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.050	.123	.422	.219	.178	
	N	381	381	381	380	378	381

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The researcher then combined building, district and state data for formation and implementation of policy variables. A Pearson *r* was then conducted examining respondents' voice in formation and implementation of educational policy to discover if there was an association between principals' perceptions of the input process and job satisfaction, self-efficacy and stress/time.

Table 13

Correlations of Constructs with Voice in Formation and Implementation at all Levels

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Job Satisfaction	3.36	.548	391
Self-Efficacy	3.50	.559	391
Stress/Time	3.11	.361	391
Formation at All Levels	8.2753	2.77	386
Implementation at All Levels	8.5013	2.68	382

Correlations

		Job Satisfaction	Self-Efficacy	Stress/ Time	Voice in Formation at All Levels	Voice in Implementation at All Levels
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	1	.250**	.134**	.129*	.097
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.008	.011	.060
	N	391	391	391	385	377
Self-Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.250**	1	.214**	.214**	.248**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	391	391	391	385	377
Stress/Time	Pearson Correlation	.134**	.214**	1	-.026	-.011
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.000		.613	.829
	N	391	391	391	385	377
Voice in Formation at All Levels	Pearson Correlation	.129*	.214**	-.026	1	.856**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.000	.613		.000
	N	385	385	385	385	373
Voice in Implementation	Pearson Correlation	.097	.248**	-.011	.856**	1

at All Levels	Sig. (2-tailed)	.060	.000	.829	.000	
	N	377	377	377	373	377

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Job satisfaction showed a weak positive correlation with voice in the formation of policy at all levels, r = .129, $p < .05$. Self-efficacy showed a stronger, but still considered weak, correlation with voice in formation at all levels, r = .214, $p < .001$ and voice in implementation at all levels, r = .248, $p < .001$.

The researcher then combined building and district data for formation and implementation of policy variables excluding state level perceptions of principals. A Pearson *r* was then conducted examining respondents' voice in formation and implementation of educational policy, without the impact of including the state level of the organization, to discover if there was an association between principals' perceptions of the input process and job satisfaction, self-efficacy and stress/time without the potential of a skewed result due to the low mean found at the state level. (See Table 14)

Table 14

Correlation of Constructs with Voice in Formation and Implementation at Two Levels

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Job Satisfaction	3.36	.548	391
Self-Efficacy	3.50	.559	391
Stress/Time	3.11	.361	391
Voice in Formation at the Building and District Level	6.7409	2.55541	386
Voice in Implementation at the Building and District Level	6.9738	2.48552	382

Correlations

		Job Satisfaction	Self-Efficacy	Stress/Time	Voice in Formation at the Building and District Level	Voice in Implementation at the Building and District Level
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	1	$.250^{**}$	$.134^{**}$	$.132^{**}$	$.110^{*}$
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	0.008	0.01	0.032
	N	391	391	391	386	382
Self-Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	$.250^{**}$	1	$.214^{**}$	$.195^{**}$	$.228^{**}$
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.0000	.000
	N	391	391	391	386	382
Stress/Time	Pearson Correlation	$.134^{**}$	$.214^{**}$	1	-0.033	-0.028
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.008	.000		0.515	0.587
	N	391	391	391	386	382
Voice in Formation at the Building and District Level	Pearson Correlation	$.132^{**}$	$.195^{**}$	-0.033	1	$.846^{**}$
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.01	.000	0.515		.000
	N	386	386	386	386	378
Voice in Implementation at the Building and District Level	Pearson Correlation	$.110^{*}$	$.228^{**}$	-0.028	$.846^{**}$	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.032	.000	0.587	.000	
	N	382	382	382	378	382

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The relationship between respondents' job satisfaction and voice in formation and job satisfaction and voice in implementation at the building and district level was stronger than previously determined using all three levels: voice in formation at the building and district levels ($r = .132$, $p < .01$); voice in implementation at the building and district levels ($r = .110$, $p < .05$). The relationship between respondents' self-efficacy and voice in formation at the building and district level and voice in implementation at the building and district level decreased in comparison to voice at all levels that was previously determined: voice in formation ($r = .195, p < .001$); voice in implementation ($r = .228, p < .001$). The relationship between respondents' stress/time and voice in formation at the building and district level decreased with the move from three levels to two levels with negligible results and with negative correlations found in both results: voice in formation ($r = -.033, p = .515$); voice in implementation ($r = -.028, p = .587$).

After conducting this test, the researcher also noted the strong association between respondents' job satisfaction and self-efficacy ($r = .250, p < .001$); respondents' job satisfaction and stress/time ($r = .134, p < .01$); and respondents' self-efficacy and stress/time ($r = .214, p < .001$). A strong correlation existed between respondents' voice in formation at the building and district level and voice in implementation at the building and district level ($r = .846, p < .001$).

Summary

Table 15 summarized results of the tests conducted and reports a lack of association between principals' perceptions of the input process (voice) for the formation and implementation of the teacher evaluation policy and stress/time.

There was a positive weak relationship between (1) job satisfaction and voice in formation at all three organizational levels; (2) job satisfaction and voice in formation at the building and district levels; and (3) job satisfaction and voice in implementation at the building and district levels. This weak relationship is still significant when attempting to understand the importance of voice at three organizational levels and job satisfaction.

There was a positive weak relationship between (1) self-efficacy and voice in formation and implementation of educational policy; (2) self-efficacy and voice in formation at all levels; (3) self-efficacy and voice in implementation at all three organizational levels; (4) self-efficacy and voice in formation and the building and district levels; and (5) self-efficacy and voice in the implementation at building and district levels.

Positive correlations were also found between job satisfaction and self-efficacy, self-efficacy and stress/time, job satisfaction and stress/time and a strong positive correlation was found between voice in formation at the building and district level and voice in implementation at the building and district level. Determining these correlations were not part of the current study; however, the correlations are shown as part of the tables produced in the output section of SPSS.

Table 15

Summary of Correlations between Constructs and Voice at Organizational Levels

Variable		Sum of Voice in Formation and Implementation at All Levels	Voice in Formation at All Levels	Voice in Implementation at All Levels	Voice in Formation at Building and District Levels	Voice in Implementation at Building and District Levels
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.100	.129	.097	.132	.110
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054	.011	.060	.010	.032
Self-Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.206	.214	.248	.195	.228
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Stress/Time	Pearson Correlation	-.016	-.026	-.011	-.033	-.028
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.755	.613	.829	.515	.587

Research Question 3

A linear regression analysis was conducted to discover if there was a relationship between principal characteristics, job satisfaction, self-efficacy and level of stress and the knowledge principals demonstrated regarding the Michigan School Reform Law. First, the researcher examined each dependent variable (the constructs of job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and stress/time) with the independent variable of “knowledge” to look for relationships. (It was important to remember that the researcher combined time and stress into one variable after completing an analytical coding of the open-ended question found at the end of the questionnaire and determined a strong relationship between the two variables.)

There was no relationship found between respondents’ job satisfaction and stress/time with knowledge of the Michigan School Reform Law. A weak relationship existed between self-efficacy and knowledge of the law. A regression analysis was completed for each dependent variable and statistically it was determined that knowledge was not a predictor for job satisfaction and stress/time and there was no significant relationship between the variables. Knowledge as a predictor for self-efficacy had a very weak relationship.

When examining job satisfaction and knowledge of the law, it was determined that respondents’ knowledge was not a predictor of job satisfaction ($b = .024$, $p = .224$). As shown in Table 16, the significance value was .224 which is larger than a p value of .05 ($t(373) = 1.2$, $p < .05$). Furthermore, $r^2 = .004$ which is highly insignificant reporting that .4 percent of the variance of job satisfaction was accounted for by a principal’s knowledge.

Table 16

Correlation between Job Satisfaction and Knowledge of the Law

Correlations

		Job Satisfaction	Knowledge
Pearson Correlation	Job Satisfaction	1.000	.063
	Knowledge	.063	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Job Satisfaction		.112
	Knowledge	.112	
N	Job Satisfaction	375	375
	Knowledge	375	375

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.063[a]	.004	.001	.547

a. Predictors: (Constant), Knowledge

ANOVA[a]

	Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.443	1	.443	1.481	.224[b]
	Residual	111.618	373	.299		
	Total	112.062	374			

a. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

b. Predictors: (Constant), Knowledge

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	3.208	.124		25.865	.000
	Knowledge	.024	.020	.063	1.217	.224

a. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Results were different when examining a relationship between respondents' knowledge and self-efficacy, as reflected in Table 17, F(1,373) = 9.3, $p < .01$ which showed a weak relationship between variables. In this analysis, the ANOVA reflected a significance level of $p < .01$, which showed the amount of variation in self-efficacy was explained by knowledge. It also explained there was very little chance the correlation between variables was due to a sampling error. The independent variable (knowledge) in the regression model accounted for 2.4% of the total variation in self-efficacy. The amount of variation of the dependent variable (self-efficacy) was $R^2 = .024$ with $r = .156$: a very weak relationship existed between self-efficacy and knowledge of the law.

Table 17

Correlation between Self-Efficacy and Knowledge of the Law

Correlations

		Self-Efficacy	Knowledge
Pearson Correlation	Self-Efficacy	1.000	.156
	Knowledge	.156	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Self-Efficacy		.001
	Knowledge	.001	
N	Self-Efficacy	375	375
	Knowledge	375	375

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.156[a]	.024	.022	.559

a. Predictors: (Constant), Knowledge

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.900	1	2.900	9.279	.002[b]
	Residual	116.577	373	.313		
	Total	119.477	374			

a. Dependent Variable: Self-Efficacy

b. Predictors: (Constant), Knowledge

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	3.128	.127		24.678	.000
	Knowledge	.061	.020	.156	3.046	.002

a. Dependent Variable: Self-Efficacy

A final analysis of variables was to examine a potential relationship between knowledge the principal had of the law and stress/time. After examination of the regression model as shown in Table 18, it was determined there was no relationship between stress/time and principals' knowledge of the law F(1, 373) = .053, *p* = .818, r^2 = .000.

Table 18

Correlation between Stress/Time and Knowledge of the Law

Correlations

		Stress/Time	Knowledge
Pearson Correlation	Stress/Time	1.000	-.012
	Knowledge	-.012	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Stress/Time		.409
	Knowledge	.409	
N	Stress/Time	375	375
	Knowledge	375	375

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.012[a]	.000	-.003	.362

a. Predictors: (Constant), Knowledge

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.007	1	.007	.053	.818[b]
	Residual	48.931	373	.131		
	Total	48.938	374			

a. Dependent Variable: Stress/Time

b. Predictors: (Constant), Knowledge

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	3.137	.082		38.195	.000
	Knowledge	-.003	.013	-.012	-.230	.818

a. Dependent Variable: Stress/Time

Research Question 3 continued with an examination of potential relationships between a principal's characteristics and his/her knowledge of the law. A One-Way ANOVA was conducted, with the researcher examining specific demographics reported by the principals. The researcher limited the variables to the following: gender, race, years of teaching experience, administrative credentials, and years in the role of principal were all examined. (See Appendix D)

Table 19 delineated the demographics selected for analysis when determining if there was a relationship between knowledge of the law.

Table 19

Relationship Between Demographic and Principals' Knowledge

Demographic	Levels	Mean	N	One-Way ANOVA Significance *p* < .05
Gender	Male	6	175	0.128
	Female	6.3	199	
Race	Black	5.8	25	0.453
	American Indian	5	2	
	Hispanic	6	1	
	White	6.2	347	
Years Experience as Teacher	1-5 Years	6.3	42	0.433
	6-10 Years	5.9	84	
	11-15 Years	6.3	84	
	16-20 Years	6.2	58	
	Over 20 Years	6.2	103	
Administrative Credentials	Masters/Specialist/Doctorate Leadership Program	6.1	140	0.52
	Administrative Certification	6.2	209	
	Currently Enrolled in a Program	5.7	15	
	Alternate Route Participant	6	8	
Years Experience as Principal	1-5 Years	6.3	148	0.034
	6-10 Years	6.2	107	
	11-15 Years	6.1	60	
	16-20 Years	5.4	34	
	Over 20 Years	6.2	25	

One dependent variable that demonstrated any significant relationship with knowledge was respondents' "Years as a Principal." The significant difference between groups (F = 2.6, $p < .05$) was notable, but when examining the Post Hoc Tukey, the levels of value "16-20 Years" and "Over 20 Years" were potentially skewed with a lower number of respondents.

The researcher then recoded the grouping of years into two variables: "1-10 Years" (N=255) and "Over 11 Years" (N=129). By collapsing the smaller numbers together, the researcher attempted to get a better picture of a relationship between years as a principal and knowledge of the law. However, the significance level was now $p = .060$. When the researcher collapsed the years as "1-15" (N=315) and "Over 15 Years" (N=57) and conducted a One-Way ANOVA there was a level of significance with $p < .05$. (The researcher accepted the difference in numbers as 57 participants was still a high enough number to use when conducing the ANOVA.) The researcher believed there was a significant relationship, as shown in Table 20, between knowledge of the law and years in the role of principal when years were in the five different subscales and when years were combined into subscales of "1-15" and "16 and Over."

Table 20

Knowledge of the Law and Years in the Role of Principal Regrouped

a. Knowledge with Years in Five Levels:

ANOVA

Knowledge

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	21.506	4	5.377	2.626	.034
Within Groups	755.499	369	2.047		
Total	777.005	373			

b. Knowledge with Years Grouped “1-10 Years” and “Over 11 Years”:

ANOVA

Knowledge

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7.371	1	7.371	3.563	.060
Within Groups	769.635	372	2.069		
Total	777.005	373			

c. Knowledge with Years Groups “1-15 Years” and “Over 16 Years”:

ANOVA

Knowledge

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	9.873	1	9.873	4.788	.029
Within Groups	767.132	372	2.062		
Total	777.005	373			

The researcher also recoded the administrative credential variables collapsing respondents currently enrolled in a program and respondents choosing alternate route participant into one group. This new group was labeled "Non-Traditional Certification" with M=5.8261, N=23. A regression analysis was conducted using the new group instead of the previous two groups. The researcher determined there was no significant relationship between knowledge and administrative credentialing F(2, 369)= 1.046, *p* = .352. A Tukey post-hoc test also revealed a lack of significance between groups and knowledge when examining Table 21.

Table 21

Relationship between Knowledge of the Law and Administrative Credentials

Descriptives

Knowledge

					95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Masters/Specialist/ Doctorate	140	6.0929	1.49770	.12658	5.8426	6.3431	3.00	9.00
Administrative Certification	209	6.2344	1.42693	.09870	6.0399	6.4290	2.00	10.00
Non-traditional Certification	23	5.8261	1.19286	.24873	5.3103	6.3419	4.00	8.00
Total	372	6.1559	1.44154	.07474	6.0089	6.3029	2.00	10.00

ANOVA

Knowledge

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.348	2	2.174	1.046	.352
Within Groups	766.609	369	2.078		
Total	770.957	371			

*Multiple Comparison*s

Dependent Variable: Knowledge
Tukey HSD

(I) Correct Credentials into 3 level		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	Administrative Certification	-.14159	.15742	.641	-.5120	.2288
	Non-traditional Certification	.26677	.32429	.689	-.4964	1.0299
Administrative Certification	Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	.14159	.15742	.641	-.2288	.5120
	Non-traditional Certification	.40836	.31665	.402	-.3368	1.1535
Non-traditional Certification	Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	-.26677	.32429	.689	-1.03	.4964
	Administrative Certification	-.40836	.31665	.402	-1.15	.3368

Knowledge

Tukey HSD

Correct Credentials into 3 level	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05 1
Non-traditional Certification	23	5.8261
Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	140	6.0929
Administrative Certification	209	6.2344
Sig.		.305

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 54.146.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Summary

To summarize, a one-way analysis of variance and a regression analysis was conducted on respondents' perceptions, depending upon the variables/groups tested, and it was determined that there was not a significant relationship between knowledge of the Michigan School Reform Law of 2009 and job satisfaction, stress/time, gender, race, credentialing, and years of teaching. There was a weak positive relationship between respondents' self-efficacy and knowledge ($p < .05$). Respondents' knowledge and years as a principal also had a positive weak relationship ($p < .05$). For this study, weak positive relationships are important as they show that a relationship does exist between certain variables.

Research Question 4

The researcher was interested in determining, when looking at respondents' data, if there were within or between group differences by gender, credentials, or years as a principal and having a voice in the implementation of the teacher evaluation policy. The researcher completed an independent *t*-test to determine if voice in the implementation of the educational policy (dependent variable) differed by gender (independent variable). The independent *t*-test, as shown in Table 18, failed to reveal a statistically significant difference between males (M = 8.7, *s* = 2.58) and females (M = 8.37, *s* = 2.77), t(373) = 1.2, p = .24, α = .05 and having a voice in the implementation of the educational policy.

Table 22

Differences in Voice for Implementation by Gender at Three Organizational Levels

Group Statistics

Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Voice in Implementation at All Levels	Male	176	8.6932	2.57841	.19435
	Female	199	8.3668	2.76360	.19591

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Voice in Implementation at All Levels	Equal variances assumed	2.287	.131	1.178	373	.240	.32635	.27714	-.21860	.87129
	Equal variances not assumed			1.183	371.923	.238	.32635	.27596	-.21629	.86898

Due to the previously determined findings regarding the potential skew found at the state level due to the mean at the state level (as noted in Research Question 2) versus the mean at the building and district level, the researcher then repeated the independent *t*-test using only respondents' voice in the implementation data found at the building and district levels. Table 23 reflects the results of the second independent *t*-test. Once again the independent t-test failed to reveal a statistically significance in difference between males, females and voice in the implementation of the educational policy; males (M = 7.25, *s* = 2.42) and females (M = 6.76, *s* = 2.52), t(378) = 1.9, p = .057, α = .05. However, the significance (2-tailed) was much closer to $p < .05$ in the second test. This would suggest that the test is still not statistically significant, but removing the state level data did impact the level of significance between the two tests.

Table 23

Differences in Voice for Implementation by Gender at Two Organizational Levels

Group Statistics

Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Voice in Implementation at Building and District Levels	Male	177	7.2486	2.41805	.18175
	Female	203	6.7635	2.52184	.17700

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Voice in Implementation at Building and District Levels	Equal variances assumed	2.005	.158	1.906	378	.057	.48504	.25443	-.01523	.98531
	Equal variances not assumed			1.912	374.583	.057	.48504	.25370	-.01381	.98389

A Mann-Whitney *U* test was then conducted to discover if the medians of having a voice in the implementation of the policy variable differed significantly between genders. This determined if there were within or between group differences between gender and implementation of the educational policy. The results were not significant, as shown in Table 20, with z = -1.127, *p* = .260 with men having an average rank of 194.62 and women having an average rank of 182.15. This test supported the independent *t*-tests previously conducted and represented in Tables 22 and 23.

Table 24

Differences in Medians with Voice for Implementation by Gender: Mann-Whitney U

Ranks

Gender		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Implementation	Male	176	194.62	34253.00
	Female	199	182.15	36247.00
	Total	375		

Test Statistics^a

	Knowledge
Mann-Whitney U	16347.000
Wilcoxon W	36247.000
Z	-1.127
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.260

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if there were within or between group differences between principal's credentials (independent variable) and voice in the implementation of the educational policy (dependent variable). The ANOVA was not significant (F(2, 371) = .533, *p* = .587) and led the researcher to determine there was no relationship between voice in implementation of the educational policy at all levels and administrative credentials at *p* = < .05 as shown in Table 25. As the test was not significant, a post hoc Tukey HSD was not required but has been included in the testing data.

Table 25

Voice in Implementation at All Levels and Credentials

Descriptives

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Masters/Specialist/ Doctorate	140	8.3071	2.76123	0.23337	7.8457	8.7686	3	13
Administrative Certification	210	8.6095	2.59184	0.17885	8.2569	8.9621	3	14
Non-traditional Certification	24	8.5417	3.17571	0.64824	7.2007	9.8827	3	12
Total	374	8.492	2.6922	0.13921	8.2182	8.7657	3	14

ANOVA

Voice in Implementation at All Levels and Credentials

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7.744	2	3.872	.533	.587
Within Groups	2695.732	371	7.266		
Total	2703.476	373			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Voice in Implementation at All Levels and Credentials

Tukey HSD

(I) Correct Credentials into 3 level		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	Administrative Certification	-.30238	.29411	.560	-.9945	.3897
	Non-traditional Certification	-.23452	.59553	.918	-1.6359	1.1669
Administrative Certification	Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	.30238	.29411	.560	-.3897	.9945
	Non-traditional Certification	.06786	.58082	.993	-1.2989	1.4346
Non-traditional Certification	Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	.23452	.59553	.918	-1.1669	1.6359
	Administrative Certification	-.06786	.58082	.993	-1.4346	1.2989

Implementation at All Levels and Credentials

Tukey HSD

Correct Credentials into 3 level	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	140	8.3071
Non-traditional Certification	24	8.5417
Administrative Certification	210	8.6095
Sig.		.824

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 56.000.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Removing the state level, the researcher then repeated the ANOVA using just building and district levels when testing for a potential relationship between respondents' voice in implementation at the building and district levels and credentials. This test was also not statistically significant F(2,376) = .486, *p* = .616 and led the researcher to determine there was no relationship between voice in implementation of an educational policy at all levels and administrative credentials at *p* = < .05 as shown in Table 26. As the test was not significant, a post hoc tukey HSD was not required but was included in the testing data.

Table 26

Voice in Implementation at the Building and District Levels

Descriptives

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	142	6.8028	2.55781	0.21465	6.3785	7.2272	2	10
Administrative Certification	213	7.061	2.3853	0.16344	6.7389	7.3832	2	10
Non-traditional Certification	24	7.0833	3.00603	0.6136	5.814	8.3527	2	10
Total	379	6.9657	2.48942	0.12787	6.7143	7.2171	2	10

ANOVA

Voice in Implementation at the Building and District Levels

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6.035	2	3.018	.486	.616
Within Groups	2336.519	376	6.214		
Total	2342.554	378			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Voice in Implementation at the Building and District Levels

Tukey HSD

(I) Credentials		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Masters/Specialist/ Doctorate	Administrative Certification	-.25822	.27007	.605	-.8937	.3773
	Non-traditional Certification	-.28052	.55017	.867	-1.5751	1.0140
Administrative Certification	Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	.25822	.27007	.605	-.3773	.8937
	Non-traditional Certification	-.02230	.53675	.999	-1.2853	1.2407
Non-traditional Certification	Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	.28052	.55017	.867	-1.0140	1.5751
	Administrative Certification	.02230	.53675	.999	-1.2407	1.2853

Voice in Implementation at the Building and District Levels

Tukey HSD

Credentials	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	142	6.8028
Administrative Certification	213	7.0610
Non-traditional Certification	24	7.0833
Sig.		.822

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 56.176.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

The researcher then completed a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis Test to look for statistically significant differences between two or more groups of an independent variable (credentials) on a dependent variable (voice in the implementation of the evaluation policy at all organizational levels). As shown in Table 27, the Kruskal-Wallis test showed there was not a statistically significant difference in voice in the three different organizational levels and credentials of the principals $\chi^2(2, N=364) = .889$, $p = .641$ with a mean rank score for the following credentials earned by principals: Masters/Specials/Doctorate (176.42); Administrative Certification (185.71); and Non-Traditional Certification (195.14).

Table 27

Rankings of Administrative Credentials at Three Organizational Levels

Ranks

Credentials		N	Mean Rank
Voice in Implementation at All Levels	Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	140	176.42
	Administrative Certification	210	185.71
	Non-traditional Certification	14	195.14
	Total	364	

Test Statistics[a,b]

	Voice in Implementation at All Levels
Chi-Square	.889
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.641

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Credentials with last two combined

The Chi-Square showed that certain credentials did not have more influence over voice in the implementation process than others with a critical value of 5.99 and using a significance level of $\alpha = .05$, the result for this test was .889.

The researcher then completed a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test using voice in implementation at the building and district level (dependent variable) to discover if the skew that existed from the state level impacted the significance of this test. As shown in Table 28, the Kruskal-Wallis test showed there was not a statistically significant difference in voice when using the two different organizational levels and credentials of the principals χ^2(2, N=369) = 2.46, p = .291 with a mean rank score for the following credentials earned by principals: Masters/Specials/Doctorate (176.42); Administrative Certification (185.71); and Non-Traditional Certification (195.14). For χ^2 to be significant, the critical value would have been greater than 5.99.

Table 28

Rankings of Administrative Credentials at Two Organizational Levels

Ranks

Credentials		N	Mean Rank
Voice in Implementation at Building and District Levels	Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	142	175.46
	Administrative Certification	213	191.42
	Non-traditional Certification	14	183.96
	Total	369	

Test Statistics^{a,b}

	Voice in Implementation at Building and District Levels
Chi-Square	2.466
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.291

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Credentials with last two combined

The researcher completed an ANOVA to determine if there were within or between group differences between respondents' years in the principalship (independent variable) and voice in the implementation of the educational policy (dependent variable). The ANOVA was not significant (F(4, 371) = .590, p = .670) and led the researcher to determine there was no relationship between voice in implementation of the educational policy at all levels and years in the principalship at $p = < .05$ as shown in Table 29. As the test was not significant, a post hoc Tukey HSD was not required but has been included in the testing data.

Table 29

Voice in Implementation at All Levels and Years as a Principal

Descriptives

					95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
1-5 years	146	8.6781	2.63644	0.21819	8.2468	9.1093	3	14
6-10 years	108	8.4074	2.59055	0.24928	7.9132	8.9016	3	12
11-15 years	60	8.15	2.89257	0.37343	7.4028	8.8972	3	13
16-20 years	35	8.3429	3.06731	0.51847	7.2892	9.3965	3	12
Over 20 years	27	8.8519	2.41316	0.46441	7.8972	9.8065	3	12
Total	376	8.4973	2.68725	0.13858	8.2248	8.7698	3	14

ANOVA

Voice in Implementation at All Levels

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	17.110	4	4.278	.590	.670
Within Groups	2690.887	371	7.253		
Total	2707.997	375			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Voice in Implementation at All Levels
Tukey HSD

					95% Confidence Interval	
(I) Years as a principal		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-5 years	6-10 years	.27067	.34181	.933	-.6663	1.2077
	11-15 years	.52808	.41299	.705	-.6040	1.6602
	16-20 years	.33523	.50686	.964	-1.0542	1.7247
	Over 20 years	-.17377	.56419	.998	-1.7204	1.3728
6-10 years	1-5 years	-.27067	.34181	.933	-1.2077	.6663
	11-15 years	.25741	.43364	.976	-.9313	1.4461
	16-20 years	.06455	.52382	1.000	-1.3714	1.5005
	Over 20 years	-.44444	.57947	.940	-2.0329	1.1440
11-15 years	1-5 years	-.52808	.41299	.705	-1.6602	.6040
	6-10 years	-.25741	.43364	.976	-1.4461	.9313
	16-20 years	-.19286	.57281	.997	-1.7631	1.3774
	Over 20 years	-.70185	.62411	.794	-2.4127	1.0090
16-20 years	1-5 years	-.33523	.50686	.964	-1.7247	1.0542
	6-10 years	-.06455	.52382	1.000	-1.5005	1.3714
	11-15 years	.19286	.57281	.997	-1.3774	1.7631
	Over 20 years	-.50899	.68983	.947	-2.4000	1.3820
Over 20 years	1-5 years	.17377	.56419	.998	-1.3728	1.7204
	6-10 years	.44444	.57947	.940	-1.1440	2.0329
	11-15 years	.70185	.62411	.794	-1.0090	2.4127
	16-20 years	.50899	.68983	.947	-1.3820	2.4000

Voice in Implementation at All Levels

Tukey HSD

Years as a principal	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05 1
11-15 years	60	8.1500
16-20 years	35	8.3429
6-10 years	108	8.4074
1-5 years	146	8.6781
Over 20 years	27	8.8519
Sig.		.683

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.
a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 50.821.
b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

An ANOVA was then completed using the two organizational levels and it was determined that it was not significant (F(4, 376) = .479, *p* = .751) and led the researcher to determine there was no relationship between voice in implementation of the educational policy at all levels and years in the principalship at *p* < .05, as shown in Table 30. As the test was not significant, a post hoc Tukey HSD was not required but has been included in the testing data.

Table 30

Voice in Implementation at Two Organizational Levels and Years as a Principal

Descriptives

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	 Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
1-5 years	148	7.1149	2.4033	0.19755	6.7245	7.5053	2	10
6-10 years	109	6.9083	2.38646	0.22858	6.4552	7.3613	2	10
11-15 years	62	6.6613	2.75171	0.34947	5.9625	7.3601	2	10
16-20 years	35	6.8857	2.83644	0.47945	5.9114	7.8601	2	10
Over 20 years	27	7.2593	2.33028	0.44846	6.3374	8.1811	2	10
Total	381	6.9711	2.48823	0.12748	6.7205	7.2218	2	10

ANOVA

Voice in Implementation at Building and District Levels

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	11.937	4	2.984	.479	.751
Within Groups	2340.745	376	6.225		
Total	2352.682	380			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Voice in Implementation at Building and District Levels
Tukey HSD

(I) Years as a principal		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-5 years	6-10 years	.20661	.31492	.965	-.6566	1.0698
	11-15 years	.45357	.37746	.750	-.5811	1.4882
	16-20 years	.22915	.46897	.988	-1.0563	1.5146
	Over 20 years	-.14439	.52214	.999	-1.5756	1.2868
6-10 years	1-5 years	-.20661	.31492	.965	-1.0698	.6566
	11-15 years	.24697	.39689	.971	-.8409	1.3349
	16-20 years	.02254	.48475	1.000	-1.3062	1.3513
	Over 20 years	-.35100	.53636	.966	-1.8212	1.1192
11-15 years	1-5 years	-.45357	.37746	.750	-1.4882	.5811
	6-10 years	-.24697	.39689	.971	-1.3349	.8409
	16-20 years	-.22442	.52752	.993	-1.6704	1.2215
	Over 20 years	-.59797	.57531	.837	-2.1749	.9790
16-20 years	1-5 years	-.22915	.46897	.988	-1.5146	1.0563
	6-10 years	-.02254	.48475	1.000	-1.3513	1.3062
	11-15 years	.22442	.52752	.993	-1.2215	1.6704
	Over 20 years	-.37354	.63909	.977	-2.1253	1.3782
Over 20 years	1-5 years	.14439	.52214	.999	-1.2868	1.5756
	6-10 years	.35100	.53636	.966	-1.1192	1.8212
	11-15 years	.59797	.57531	.837	-.9790	2.1749
	16-20 years	.37354	.63909	.977	-1.3782	2.1253

Voice in Implementation at Building and District Levels

Tukey HSD

		Subset for alpha = 0.05
Years as a principal	N	1
11-15 years	62	6.6613
16-20 years	35	6.8857
6-10 years	109	6.9083
1-5 years	148	7.1149
Over 20 years	27	7.2593
Sig.		.744

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 51.194.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

The final set of Kruskal-Wallis tests were used to determine if there were statistically significant differences between years of being in a principalship and voice in the implementation of policy. Once again, the tests were separated into two organizational levels: the first, as shown in Table 31, examining scores for all three organizational levels (building, district, and state) and then examining scores, as shown in Table 32, for two organizational levels (building and district) and removing the potentially skewed state data.

Table 31

Rankings of Voice and Years as a Principal at Three Organizational Levels

Ranks

Years as a principal		N	Mean Rank
Voice in Implementation at All Levels	1-5 years	146	193.96
	6-10 years	108	183.62
	11-15 years	60	175.28
	16-20 years	35	189.16
	Over 20 years	27	207.04
	Total	376	

Test Statistics[a,b]

	Voice in Implementation at All Levels
Chi-Square	2.324
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.676

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Years as a principal

As shown in Table 31, the Kruskal-Wallis test showed there was not a statistically significant difference in voice in implementation when using three different organizational levels and years in the principalship $\chi^2(4, N = 376) = 2.32$, $p = .676$ with a mean rank score for the following credentials earned by principals: 1-5 years (193.96); 6-10 years (183.62); 11-15 years (175.28) 16-20 years (189.16) and over 20 years (207.04). For χ^2 to be significant, the critical value would need to be greater than 9.49.

The researcher then examined data using two different organizational levels, as shown in Table 32. The Kruskal-Wallis test showed there was not a statistically significant difference in voice when examining the two organizational levels and years in the principalship $\chi^2(4, N = 381) = 3.03$, $p = .552$ with a mean rank score for the following credentials earned by principals: 1-5 years (197.48); 6-10 years (190.81); 11-15 years (173.26) 16-20 years (188.23) and over 20 years (200.59). For χ^2 to be significant, the critical value would need to be greater than 9.49.

Table 32

Rankings of Voice and Years as a Principal at Two Organizational Levels

Ranks

Years as a principal		N	Mean Rank
Voice in Implementation at Building and District Levels	1-5 years	148	197.48
	6-10 years	109	190.81
	11-15 years	62	173.26
	16-20 years	35	188.23
	Over 20 years	27	200.59
	Total	381	

Test Statistics[a,b]

	Voice in Implementation at Building and District Levels
Chi-Square	3.033
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.552

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Years as a principal

Summary

To summarize Research Question 4, there was no statistically significant within or between group differences by gender, credentials, or years as a principal (independent variables) and having a voice in the implementation of the teacher evaluation policy (dependent variable) when examining respondents' data. The researcher examined two different sets of organizational levels: all organizational levels which included building, district and state levels and a second set with two organizational levels which included building and district levels. This was completed to remove the skewed data from the state level as determined in Research Questions 2.

Research Question 5

A final *t* test and regression analysis was completed by the researcher to determine to what extent demographic characteristics (gender, credentials, and years in a principalship), job satisfaction, self-efficacy, level of stress/time and knowledge of the teacher evaluation policy predicted principals' perceptions of implementing the evaluation policy. Prior to running the test, the researcher recoded identified items from the questionnaire to create an "implementation" variable. Means from items 17, 18, 19, 20, 24, 25, 27, and 30 were combined using SPSS to create the variable "implementation." (See Appendix J)

As shown in Table 33, an independent-samples *t* test was conducted, using responses from the questionnaire, to determine if gender was a predictor for principals' perceptions regarding their successful implementation of the evaluation policy (using gender as the grouping variable and implementation of the policy as the dependent variable). The test showed no significance, t(377) = 1.54, $p < .05$. With $p = .12$, the researcher determined that gender was not a predictor for implementation success.

Table 33

Gender as a Predictor for Implementation

Group Statistics

Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Implementation	Male	178	26.0787	4.96934	.37247
	Female	201	25.3284	4.45327	.31411

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Implementation	Equal variances assumed	1.820	.178	1.550	377	.122	.75029	.48401	-.20140	1.70199
	Equal variances not assumed			1.540	358.025	.124	.75029	.48723	-.20791	1.70849

An ANOVA was completed using principals' responses for the demographic of credentials as a predictor for successful implementation of the evaluation policy as shown in Table 34. The test determined that credentials did not predict principals' perceptions of successful implementation of the evaluation policy: F(2,375) = .735, p < .05.

Table 34

Credentials as a Predictor for Implementation

Descriptives

Implementation

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	140	25.4857	4.64338	.39244	24.7098	26.2616	12.00	37.00
Administrative Certification	214	25.8411	4.85402	.33181	25.1871	26.4952	12.00	37.00
Non-Traditional Certification	24	24.7083	3.95055	.80640	23.0402	26.3765	16.00	35.00
Total	378	25.6376	4.72236	.24289	25.1600	26.1152	12.00	37.00

ANOVA

Implementation

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	32.819	2	16.409	.735	.480
Within Groups	8374.528	375	22.332		
Total	8407.347	377			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Implementation
Tukey HSD

(I) Correct Credentials into 3 level		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	Administrative Certification	-.35541	.51368	.768	-1.5641	.8533
	Non-Traditional Certification	.77738	1.04404	.737	-1.6793	3.2341
Administrative Certification	Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	.35541	.51368	.768	-.8533	1.5641
	Non-Traditional Certification	1.13279	1.01728	.506	-1.2609	3.5265
Non-Traditional Certification	Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	-.77738	1.04404	.737	-3.2341	1.6793
	Administrative Certification	-1.13279	1.01728	.506	-3.5265	1.2609

Implementation

Tukey HSD

Correct Credentials into 3 level	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05 1
Masters/Specialist/Doctorate	140	25.4857
Administrative Certification	214	25.8411
Non-Traditional Certification	24	24.7083
Sig.		.413

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 56.093.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

A third test, as shown in Table 35, was completed to determine if years in the principalship predicted principals' perceptions for successful implementation of the evaluation policy. The researcher completed an ANOVA on responses from the questionnaire and determined that years in a principalship was not a predictor for successful implementation: F(4, 375) = 1.46, p < .05.

Table 35

Years as a Principal as a Predictor for Implementation

Descriptives

Implementation

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
1-5 years	149	26.2483	4.77735	.39138	25.4749	27.0217	12.00	37.00
6-10 years	109	25.6606	4.47673	.42879	24.8106	26.5105	12.00	35.00
11-15 years	60	24.9333	4.81476	.62158	23.6895	26.1771	13.00	37.00
16-20 years	36	24.5278	4.65057	.77509	22.9543	26.1013	14.00	33.00
Over 20 years	26	25.5385	5.16318	1.01258	23.4530	27.6239	12.00	34.00
Total	380	25.6605	4.72550	.24241	25.1839	26.1372	12.00	37.00

ANOVA

Implementation

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	129.788	4	32.447	1.460	.214
Within Groups	8333.420	375	22.222		
Total	8463.208	379			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Implementation
Tukey HSD

(I) Years as a principal		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-5 years	6-10 years	.58777	.59415	.860	-1.0409	2.2164
	11-15 years	1.31499	.72078	.361	-.6607	3.2907
	16-20 years	1.72054	.87546	.285	-.6792	4.1203
	Over 20 years	.70986	1.00192	.955	-2.0365	3.4562
6-10 years	1-5 years	-.58777	.59415	.860	-2.2164	1.0409
	11-15 years	.72722	.75779	.873	-1.3500	2.8044
	16-20 years	1.13277	.90618	.722	-1.3512	3.6167
	Over 20 years	.12209	1.02888	1.000	-2.6982	2.9423
11-15 years	1-5 years	-1.31499	.72078	.361	-3.2907	.6607
	6-10 years	-.72722	.75779	.873	-2.8044	1.3500
	16-20 years	.40556	.99381	.994	-2.3186	3.1297
	Over 20 years	-.60513	1.10684	.982	-3.6391	2.4288
16-20 years	1-5 years	-1.72054	.87546	.285	-4.1203	.6792
	6-10 years	-1.13277	.90618	.722	-3.6167	1.3512
	11-15 years	-.40556	.99381	.994	-3.1297	2.3186
	Over 20 years	-1.01068	1.21326	.920	-4.3363	2.3150
Over 20 years	1-5 years	-.70986	1.00192	.955	-3.4562	2.0365
	6-10 years	-.12209	1.02888	1.000	-2.9423	2.6982
	11-15 years	.60513	1.10684	.982	-2.4288	3.6391
	16-20 years	1.01068	1.21326	.920	-2.3150	4.3363

Implementation

Tukey HSD

Years as a principal	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05 1
16-20 years	36	24.5278
11-15 years	60	24.9333
Over 20 years	26	25.5385
6-10 years	109	25.6606
1-5 years	149	26.2483
Sig.		.354

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 50.612.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

A multiple linear regression was completed using principals' job satisfaction, self-efficacy, stress/time, and knowledge responses as independent variables and implementation responses as the dependent variable to evaluate if the independent variable predicted the dependent variable in the population who responded to the questionnaire.

As shown in Table 36, job satisfaction $t(362) = .61$, $p = .54$ was not a predictor of principals' perceptions of policy implementation ($b = .101$, $p = .54$). Knowledge of the law $t(362) = .47$, $p = .638$ was also not a predictor of principals' perceptions of successful policy implementation ($b = .03$, $p = 6.38$).

The model reflected that self-efficacy $t(362) = 45.34$, $p < .001$ was a predictor of principal's perceptions for successful policy implementation $b = 7.4$, $p < .001$. Stress/time $t(362) = 8.56$, $p < .001$ also was a predictor $b = 2.15$, $p < .001$ for principals' perceptions of successful policy implementation.

When examining the Model Summary in Table 36, a strong association between variables was determined after noting $R^2 = .877$: 88% of the total variance of the policy implementation was explained by the independent variables.

Table 36

Job Satisfaction, Self-Efficacy, and Stress/Time as a Predictor for Implementation

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Implementation	25.6512	4.74870	367
Job Satisfaction	3.35	.547	367
Self-Efficacy	3.50	.567	367
Stress/Time	3.13	.358	367
Knowledge	6.1444	1.44228	367

Correlations

		Implementation	Job Satisfaction	Self-Efficacy	Stress/Time	Knowledge
Pearson Correlation	Implementation	1.000	.247	.923	.348	.147
	Job Satisfaction	.247	1.000	.240	.137	.065
	Self-Efficacy	.923	.240	1.000	.209	.156
	Stress/Time	.348	.137	.209	1.000	-.003
	Knowledge	.147	.065	.156	-.003	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Implementation		.000	.000	.000	.002
	Job Satisfaction	.000		.000	.004	.108
	Self-Efficacy	.000	.000		.000	.001
	Stress/Time	.000	.004	.000		.478
	Knowledge	.002	.108	.001	.478	
N	Implementation	367	367	367	367	367
	Job Satisfaction	367	367	367	367	367
	Self-Efficacy	367	367	367	367	367
	Stress/Time	367	367	367	367	367
	Knowledge	367	367	367	367	367

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.937[a]	.877	.876	1.67319

a. Predictors: (Constant), Knowledge, Stress/Time, Job Satisfaction, Self-Efficacy

b. Dependent Variable: Implementation

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7239.914	4	1809.978	646.521	.000[b]
	Residual	1013.443	362	2.800		
	Total	8253.357	366			

a. Dependent Variable: Implementation

b. Predictors: (Constant), Knowledge, Stress/Time, Job Satisfaction, Self-Efficacy

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-7.524	.982		-7.660	.000
	Job Satisfaction	.101	.165	.012	.611	.541
	Self-Efficacy	7.409	.163	.885	45.343	.000
	Stress/Time	2.150	.251	.162	8.557	.000
	Knowledge	.029	.061	.009	.471	.638

a. Dependent Variable: Implementation

Residuals Statistics[a]

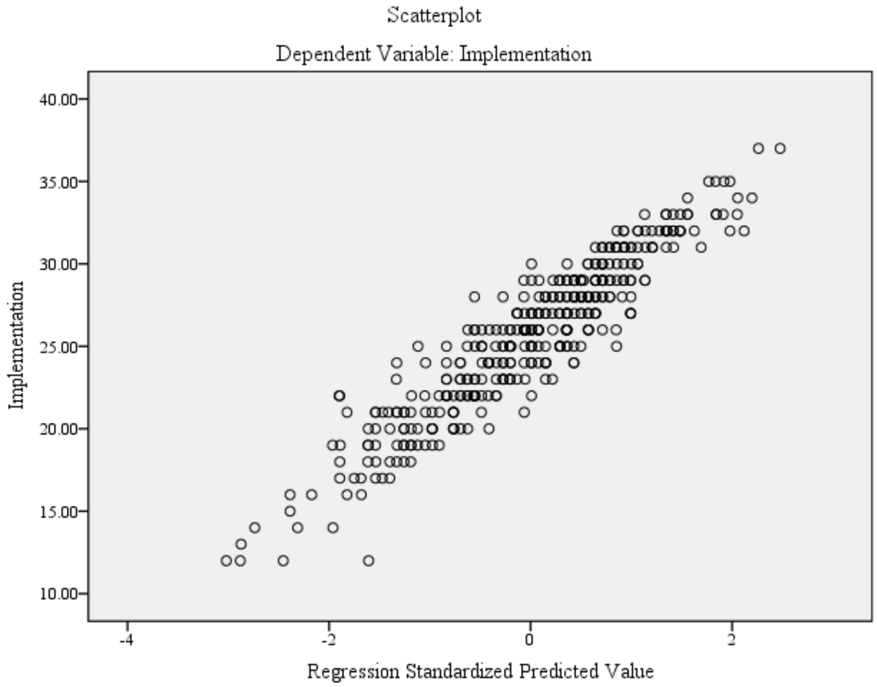
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	12.2592	36.5039	25.6512	4.44760	367
Residual	-6.66350	4.74794	.00000	1.66402	367
Std. Predicted Value	-3.011	2.440	.000	1.000	367
Std. Residual	-3.983	2.838	.000	.995	367

a. Dependent Variable: Implementation

A second regression was then completed using only the constructs of self-efficacy and stress/time to gain a clearer understanding of model results. The scatterplot in Figure 1 reflected the linearity of the two variables (self-efficacy and stress/time with implementation). The model statistically predicted the relationship between self-efficacy and stress/time with implementation *p* <.001. When examining respondents' perceptions, as self-efficacy *t*(2, 378) = 47.38, *p* <.001 and stress/time *t*(2, 378) = 8.91, *p* <.001 increased, the successful implementation of the evaluation policy also increased.

Figure 2

Scatterplot between Self-Efficacy with Stress/Time and Implementation



When examining the scatterplot, the researcher noted outliers, but the goodness of fit line showed a strong correlation between the constructs of self-efficacy and stress/time and implementation of policy.

Table 37

Self-Efficacy and Stress/Time as a Predictor for Implementation

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Implementation	25.6562	4.72005	381
Self-Efficacy	3.50	.561	381
Stress/Time	3.12	.355	381

Correlations

		Implementation	Self-Efficacy	Stress/Time
Pearson Correlation	Implementation	1.000	.920	.352
	Self-Efficacy	.920	1.000	.210
	Stress/Time	.352	.210	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Implementation		.000	.000
	Self-Efficacy	.000		.000
	Stress/Time	.000	.000	
N	Implementation	381	381	381
	Self-Efficacy	381	381	381
	Stress/Time	381	381	381

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.935[a]	.874	.873	1.68153

a. Predictors: (Constant), Stress/Time, Self-Efficacy
b. Dependent Variable: Implementation

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7397.150	2	3698.575	1308.056	.000[b]
	Residual	1068.808	378	2.828		
	Total	8465.958	380			

a. Dependent Variable: Implementation
b. Predictors: (Constant), Stress/Time, Self-Efficacy

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-7.315	.855		-8.552	.000
	Self-Efficacy	7.446	.157	.886	47.376	.000
	Stress/Time	2.210	.248	.166	8.907	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Implementation

Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	12.3308	36.5814	25.6562	4.41205	381
Residual	-6.56371	4.79875	.00000	1.67710	381
Std. Predicted Value	-3.020	2.476	.000	1.000	381
Std. Residual	-3.903	2.854	.000	.997	381

a. Dependent Variable: Implementation

Breaking out the constructs individually, it was clear from examining the model that self-efficacy *t*(1, 379) = 45.851, *p* <.001 was statistically significant when predicting successful implementation (R^2 = . 847). As shown in Tables 38 and 39, self-efficacy was much stronger in predicting successful implementation when compared to stress/time *t*(1, 379) = 7.329, *p* <.001, R^2 = .124.

Table 38

Self-Efficacy as a Predictor for Implementation

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.920[a]	.847	.847	1.84714

a. Predictors: (Constant), Self-Efficacy

b. Dependent Variable: Implementation

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7172.838	1	7172.838	2102.285	.000[b]
	Residual	1293.120	379	3.412		
	Total	8465.958	380			

a. Dependent Variable: Implementation

b. Predictors: (Constant), Self-Efficacy

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-1.442	.599		-2.409	.016
	Self-Efficacy	7.740	.169	.920	45.851	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Implementation

Table 39

Stress/Time as a Predictor for Implementation

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.352[a]	.124	.122	4.42322

a. Predictors: (Constant), Stress/Time
b. Dependent Variable: Implementation

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1050.880	1	1050.880	53.713	.000[b]
	Residual	7415.078	379	19.565		
	Total	8465.958	380			

a. Dependent Variable: Implementation

b. Predictors: (Constant), Stress/Time

Coefficients[a]

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	11.049	2.006		5.508	.000
	Stress/Time	4.678	.638	.352	7.329	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Implementation

Review of Analyses Examining Constructs

Two regression analyses were conducted to evaluate how well the constructs of job satisfaction, self-efficacy, stress/time and knowledge predicted implementation of the evaluation policy. The first analysis included all four constructs with a regression equation that was significant: $R^{2 =}$ .877, adjusted $R^{2 =}$ .876, F(4, 362) = 646.521, p < .001. When examining the Coefficients Table, the researcher determined that job satisfaction (*p* = .54) and knowledge (*p* = .638) were not significant and did not predict implementation.

The second analysis used the remaining two constructs, self-efficacy and stress/time, to evaluate how well they predicted implementation of the policy. The regression analysis with the two constructs was significant, $R^{2 =}$ .874, adjusted $R^{2 =}$ .873, F(2, 378) = 1308.056, p < .001. The researcher determined, when examining respondents' perceptions, that the constructs of self-efficacy and stress/time did predict successful implementation of the evaluation policy. The overall model is highly unlike to happen by chance *p* = .000. Multicollinearity should not occur as the predictors were not highly intercorrelated: self-esteem and stress/time *r* = .210 which was well below a correlation of .85 which would lead to misleading regression results.

When the researcher examined the Pearson *r* in Table 36 for the two constructs in the regression model, self-efficacy *r* = .920, p < .001 had a very strong positive relationship to implementation and stress/time *r* = .352, p < .001 had a weaker positive relationship to implementation. This led to a final series of linear regression analyses to examine the individual constructs of self-efficacy and stress/time as predictors.

The results of the second linear regression analyses confirmed referencing the data found in Tables 38 and 39. Self-efficacy (see Table 38) was a significant predictor of implementation: $R^{2 =}$ .847, adjusted $R^{2 =}$ .847, F(1, 379) = 2102.285, $p < .001$. Stress/time was also a predictor of implementation (see Table 39) but was not as strong as self-efficacy: $R^{2 =}$ .124, adjusted $R^{2 =}$ .122, F(1, 379) = 53.72, $p < .001$.

Summary

To summarize Research Question 5, the researcher determined that the demographics of gender, credentialing and years in a principalship were not predictors of successful implementation of the teacher evaluation policy for the respondents of the questionnaire. When the researcher examined the constructs of job satisfaction, self-efficacy, stress/time and knowledge as predictors of successful implementation of the teacher evaluation policy, job satisfaction and knowledge were not predictors for implementation.

The multiple regression results suggested that self-efficacy was a strong and significant predictor for successful implementation of the policy for the respondents of the questionnaire: the greater the self-efficacy, the more success in implementation. Stress/time was also significant, but was not as strong a predictor as self-efficacy. Both models represented in Tables 36 and 37 were strong and were highly unlikely to happen by chance with Table 36: F = 646.52, $R^2 = .877$, $p < .001$ and Table 37: F = 1308.06, $R^2 = .875$, $p < .001$.

Chapter 5: Analysis and Conclusions

This final chapter is organized to present and discuss conclusions that have emerged through this study of Michigan public and charter school K-12 principals' perceptions of the mandatory teacher evaluation policy. Themes identified in a prior study conducted by the researcher and the responses of those who completed the final question in the instrument used for this study have been considered together with the statistical results presented in Chapter 4 shaping the conclusions and recommendations presented in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5 begins with a review of the research questions that have guided this study, a brief discussion of responses of principal participants from a previous study that shaped this study and a discussion of Research Question 6 which was also the final open-ended question in the instrument used in this study. Following a presentation of emerging themes and discussion of Research Question 6, an analysis of each of the other five research questions is presented. Conclusions drawn through these discussions will be used to develop a more complete picture and richer understanding of how the formation and implementation of the evaluation policy and knowledge of the mandated teacher evaluation law has played a role in principals' job satisfaction, self-efficacy, stress and use of time. The data analysis of each question will also be viewed through the lens of stakeholder theory, which is the conceptual framework for the study.

Research Questions

As a review, this descriptive/correlational study examined the Michigan School Reform Law 2009 and gathered principals' perceptions pertaining to their knowledge of the law, the formation and implementation of the law, and the potential relationship between the constructs of job satisfaction, self-efficacy, stress/time and implementation of the law (policy implementation).

The following research questions were addressed in Chapter 1:

1. How knowledgeable are principals of the Michigan Teacher Evaluation Policy mandates?
2. Is there an association between principals' perceptions of the input process for teacher evaluation policy formation and implementation with job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and level of stress?
3. What is the relationship between principals' characteristics, job satisfaction, self-efficacy and level of stress with Michigan principals' knowledge of the teacher evaluation policy?
4. Are there any within or between group differences by gender, credentials, or years in the principalship regarding implementation of the teacher evaluation policy?
5. To what extent do demographic characteristics, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, level of stress, and knowledge of the teacher evaluation policy predict principal perceptions of policy implementation?
6. What support do principals say they need in order to implement the new teacher evaluation policy?

A brief history of how themes were originally identified and integrated into the questionnaire is required to understand the process used by the researcher for item design.

Previously Identified Themes

The researcher initiated her study of principals' perceptions regarding the new teacher evaluation law in 2013 using qualitative methods in a research class. The researcher interviewed four principals, beginning with an open-ended question. She transitioned into semi-structured questions early in the interview with questions derived from responses made by the principals.

This first thematic narrative study explored four principals' perceptions of the state evaluation mandate, the role of communication between the principal and district leadership regarding implementation of an evaluation process, and the impact of interviewee perceptions within each schools. Preparation for the future evaluation process was evident in all four interviews.

What was missing for those principals, as identified through thematic analysis, was the time required to navigate the paradigm shift from building manager to instructional leader, the control necessary to guide teachers through a new teacher evaluation process, and the protocol to remain personally informed in the process. Through a detailed transcription and coding process, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, stress and concern with time were identified as final themes.

The following year, when work began on the researcher's dissertation, she used the themes previously identified through her prior 2013 qualitative research on the mandated teacher evaluation policy to shape the items found within her questionnaire for her 2014 quantitative study. Each of the four constructs was operationalized using approximately six items embedded into the questionnaire. Additional items in the questionnaire pertained to principals' roles, knowledge of the law and implementation of the policy. However, it was Research Question 6 that allowed principals to have a voice through the questionnaire.

The Addition of an Open-Ended Question

The development of conclusions regarding the study is not dependent on only the statistical analyses of the first five research questions (see Chapter 4). A sixth and final research question required a thematic analysis of principals' responses to an open-ended question embedded in the questionnaire. This was not an attempt to complete a mixed-methods dissertation: rather the question was included in an attempt to understand how K-12 public and charter school principals were experiencing the implementation process.

Singer and Couper (2011) suggest that when adding an open-ended question to a computerized survey, respondents are willing to answer the question, and that adding such a question is neither expensive nor time-consuming. The value of adding such a question is to check for validity errors within the survey and to provide respondents with the opportunity to explain prior closed-ended questions. Penwarden (2013) noted that adding an open-ended question to the end of a web-based survey provides an opportunity for the researcher to show respondents a level of respect they deserved for taking the time to complete the survey.

An open-ended question was designed to assist in answering Research Question 6. Placed at the end of the questionnaire, it asked, "As a principal, and key stakeholder, what knowledge and skill development did you or do you currently look for when implementing this new teacher evaluation policy?" (see Appendix A). The question provided an opportunity for principals to have a voice when responding to the questionnaire.

One intended goal of the open-ended question was to compile additional data pertaining to the knowledge and skills of principals and investigate new themes or reinforce previously identified themes. However, the opportunity for principals to respond using an open-ended question format substantially enriched and added depth to the data collection process.

Research Question 6 Analysis

Themes

Responses by 366 principals required a thematic analysis that involved coding, segregation of the data by similar thematic responses, and the determination of additional themes. The researcher acknowledged the deductive process of this analysis and has used respondent perceptions to highlight or corroborate statistical analyses, to support the use stakeholder theory as a conceptual framework, or to propose future research.

Themes of self-efficacy, job satisfaction, stress and time, identified in the 2013 study were reinforced in the 2014 dissertation study, after an analysis of the 2014 open-ended question. However, the researcher, after completing the analytical coding of the open-ended question for the 2014 study, noted a strong relationship between the constructs of stress and time. Stress and time were also synonymous in the research completed by Boyland (2011), Cooper (1988) and Sogunro (2013).

Many of the principals' responses merged both constructs in their responses and the researcher determined it was appropriate to recode the two constructs as one construct. As an example, one respondent noted, " My biggest issue is time. There aren't enough hours in the day to do what's currently required, and that's frustrating" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014). Another responded by saying, " The State is putting too many demands on educators and time is so limited" (Principals' Perceptions," 2014). By combining stress and time items found within the questionnaire the researcher created a construct named stress/time that was used when completing a statistical analysis of the data presented in Chapter 4.

In addition, two new themes emerged from the 2014 study: 1) a need for additional training pertaining to the evaluation tool and implementation process and 2) a concern for consistency in the evaluative rating process to guarantee a level of "fairness" in teacher evaluation across the state.

The first new theme is not surprising, given the wording of the open-ended question which asks specifically about training. One respondent noted, "I received the vendor's training; however, it should have included how to manage the website and cutting and pasting; inputting dates/times" (Principals' Perceptions," 2014). An example of responses that supported the second theme is captured in this comment: "It is important that evaluations be consistently implemented across the school, district, and state" (Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

The Implementation Process: Knowledge and Training

Respondents requested additional training opportunities to gain knowledge about the implementation process. One respondent expressed the need for "a solid understanding of the reasons for a new policy, good professional development to help implement the policy and support/buy-in from all other stakeholders" (Principals' Perceptions," 2014). This also reinforced the results of Research Question 1 when respondents demonstrated a significant lack of knowledge regarding the law and key requirements necessary for the legal implementation of the law.

A second example reflecting the lack of knowledge in the implementation process and identified through the open-ended question was how to use a new evaluation tool. One principal was concerned with, "how to use the tool effectively, without letting it control the whole evaluation; rubrics are by their nature reductionist so a major challenge was using the tool with fidelity" (Principals' Perceptions," 2014). Each evaluation used in the pilot had a different evaluation tool to measure teacher effectiveness. A check-list format, often found in software provided by some of the companies supporting an evaluation model identified in the pilot, was confusing to some of the respondents potentially due to an understanding of the rating system found within the rubric.

Ovando (2001) noted that the definitions of teacher effectiveness ratings were subjective in teacher evaluation tools. This respondent expressed a need for "the true meaning/definition of each ranking category based on the rubric components" (Principals' Perceptions," 2014). When coding for themes, an issue with the rating system existed, perhaps due to a lack of communication between the legislature and respondents, addressing which rating system to use: a three or four category rating system. This respondent reported, "I am still seeking a more accurate way categorizing teaching performance- - - - 4 levels is challenging given the existing rubric" (Principals' Perceptions," 2014). For this issue of effectiveness ratings, a professional organization (MASSP), not the legislature or MCEE, sent out a report in November 2013 to remove some of the confusion and informed principals to use the four-category format for evaluating teachers.

Stakeholder Theory Implications

Examining the responses from the open-ended question, the existence of a lack of understanding between legislators and respondents weakened the reciprocity factor found in stakeholder theory (Atkins and McCrindell, 1997; Freeman 1984; Fowler, 2009; Johnson-Cramer, 2008). A respondent reported, "The state does not have an evaluation instrument-how can we effectively evaluate an instructor when nothing exists? It is beyond frustrating!!" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

The lack of voice in policy formation and implementation at the state level found in Research Question 2 and 4 could also have been a factor in the lack of knowledge pertaining to the teacher evaluation policy articulated by respondents through the open-ended question (Janssens and Seynaeve, 2000; Kyriakides and Campbell, 2003). With both research questions, the respondents reported only having a voice in policy formation and implementation at building and district organizational levels. A respondent addressed a need by requesting "the State of Michigan do their part and make things clear before they pass laws, include plans for training administrators, informing teachers, but also changing the expectations so that principals can actually do their jobs" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

The response of principals to the open-ended question regarding the need for knowledge and skill development was valuable to the study. Principals submitted 366 responses to the open-ended question with over 33% of the responses addressing training. Some responses were concise and addressed a concern or approval of the new policy while other respondents used the question as a forum to express their concerns.

Summary

The following quotes best reflect the value found when using an open-ended item in a questionnaire, in the case of this study to address Research Question 6. The first example addresses the theme of training when the respondent reported a need to " Completely understand the teaching standard rubric descriptions" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014). The second example supports the implementation of an evaluation policy, when the respondent notes, "As far as policy…I feel the teacher evaluation system is/was ESSENTIAL to helping to impact teacher effectiveness. Using the system I have been able to remediate and remove staff who are not performing " ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014). The final quote eloquently summarizes one principal’s need with the singular response of “Understanding” (“Principals’ Perceptions,” 2014).

The open-ended question found at the end of the 2014 questionnaire allowed the researcher to reassess her original 2013 findings, extend her thematic analysis beyond her initial research and propose directions for future research. Additional applicable statements, provided by respondent feedback to the open-ended question, have been integrated throughout Chapter 5 to validate and reinforce analysis of data.

Introduction to Analyses and Conclusions

Items pertaining to the themes of job satisfaction, self-efficacy, stress, time, principals’ roles, school population (staff and students) and school settings were included in the questionnaire under the demographic questions. Chapter 4 articulated, prior to introducing Research Question 1 results, the demographic data collected of questionnaire respondents (see Appendix D).

In addition to the value found in the collection of demographics, two items in the questionnaire were invaluable in the interpretation of how principals spent their day and how they perceived the roles they played during the day. These data then were applicable to different research questions found in the study as well as to identify the respondents’ perceptions of the inferred value of being a policy implementer.

In Item 33, respondents were asked to rank the time spent in the roles of instructional leader, building manager and policy implementer. This was to address principals’ perceptions pertaining to the construct of role. May, Huff, and Goldring (2012) found, in their study, that principals spent 19.3% of their time in the instructional leadership role but tended to change their practices from year to year. In the May et al. study, it was unclear how many hours per day principals reported working as they kept a log of activities using a time sheet that tracked activities from 6 a.m. to 7 p.m. for five days.

In this study of principals' perceptions, 60% of the respondents reported spending 1-2 hours per day in the role of instructional leader, which if a principals' day consisted of 8 working hours, equated to approximately 18% of their working hours per day. Fifty-six percent of the respondents reported spending 1-2 hours per day in the role of policy implementer, which was approximately18% of their working hours per day. Data presented in such a way as to show that respondents spent similar percentages of time on the roles of instructional leader and policy implementer, while the role of building manager consumed higher percentages of time during the school day. This supported the work of Ball (1987) who reported upon the role of new managerialism which allowed for less time to influence the quality of teaching and learning within a school.

Examining data from responses pertaining to item 34, when principals were asked which role of the principal they felt was most important, 90% of the respondents identified the role of instructional leader as the most important role. This percentage reinforced the issue of role conflict: respondents acknowledged the importance found in the role of instructional leader but spent a majority of time in the role of building manager (Eckman, 2004; Parasuraman and Allutto, 1981; Wise et al., 2001). Studies showed the importance of the role of instructional leader when instructional leadership experiences and principal responsibilities were correlated to student achievement (Fullan, 1992; Marzano et al., 2005).

Fifty-six of the respondents perceived the role of policy implementer as the least important role. Respondents might not have considered the concept that principals spend most of their career implementing and monitoring state, district, and building policy in their school building (Burkman, 2010). Principals need to remain cognizant of the policies addressed by government leaders and corresponding agencies either by having a voice in the policy formation and implementation (Research Question 2) or understanding the ramifications of indifference potentially found within the role of policy implementer (Burkman, 2010; Chapleo and Simms, 2010; Fowler, 2009).

It is clear from the results of this study that having voice in the process of policy formation and implementation remains important to the respondents. This was supported by the work of Donaldson and Preston (1995) and Mitchell et al. (1997). If Fowler (2009) is correct in her premise that "a policy issue is, by definition, controversial" (p. 13) then a controversy exists as noted in the open-ended responses between stakeholders and those who designed the Michigan School Reform Law. The relationships found between variables and constructs reinforce the impact of this policy on respondents. Furthermore, the use of legislative power (to demonstrate economic power and legal authority as defined by Fowler) has negatively impacted the stakeholders/principals in Michigan schools according to the respondents of the questionnaire. Revamping educational policy, without feedback or input from stakeholders, is not always the best way to bring about change in schools. The results of this study, using stakeholder theory as a framework, support this premise.

Revisiting Stakeholder Theory and Value as a Conceptual Framework

The selection of stakeholder theory for a conceptual framework allowed for the application of a business theory to transfer to an educational study. The reintroduction of the conceptual framework is appropriate when examining the reciprocity, or lack thereof, between the firm (legislature) and stakeholder (principal) identified in this study.

First, the ambiguity found with the definition of stakeholder was clarified through the studies completed by theorists such as Freeman (1984) who in his seminal report defined stakeholders as groups and individuals, and Mitchell, et al. (1997) who noted that in stakeholder theory, a stakeholder could be any type of entity, person, group, organization or institution that required attention from management.

The terms “owner” and “stakeholder” were transferred from a business context to an educational context with the studies of Atkinson and McCrindell (1997), Cousins and Whitmore (1998), Johnson-Cramer (2008) and Tooley and Hooks (2010). The owner or firm became a government agency or legislative body and stakeholders became school principals or site-based managers.

Stronge (1997) labeled school site administrators as stakeholders in a study of school evaluation practices: a group necessary to gain political support for a new evaluation policy. Cousins and Whitmore (1998) identified policy implementers as stakeholders as they had a vested interest in school-based program evaluation. Harrison, Rouse and Villiers (2012) were leaders in creating a connection between stakeholder theory and educational systems (examining school performance) when they addressed societal norms, stakeholder identification, power and legitimacy.

Malen (1994) considered schools as mini political systems and labeled principals as powerless middle managers who dealt with legislative mandates. Reported one respondent of the questionnaire, “I look for what new changes continue to take place on an almost daily basis due to the over controlling legislature that we unfortunately have in our state” (“Principals’ Perceptions,” 2014).

Mitchell et al. (1997) encapsulated the multiple phenomena of stakeholder theory when they created a chronology of the theory. The reciprocal nature of the theory, specifically the relationship between the company and stakeholder, was reinforced when they examined twelve different theorists. They determined that when a relationship existed between the firm and stakeholders, the firm became dependent upon the stakeholder for its survival and the stakeholder depended upon the firm to achieve its interests.

Chistakis (2009) and Chapleo and Simms (2010) completed studies on stakeholder relationships and supported the reciprocity found between the government and universities. They identified the Department of Education and the government as educational stakeholders. Harrison et al. (2012) identified the Department of Education as a powerful stakeholder and labeled a school as a government agency.

Multiple researchers, through the lens of stakeholder theory, supported the following precepts: the importance of relationships between the firm and stakeholder also defined as the reciprocity between the firm and stakeholder; the mutual dependency for survival; and the achievement of interests and attainment of goals. The importance of serving the interest of stakeholders was emphasized (Johnson-Cramer, 2008; Mitchell et al., 1997; Preston & Sapienza, 1990).

One respondent noted a lack of reciprocity when he/she placed responsibility for selection of an evaluation tool with the state, “I would like the state to make a final determination of which tool to use then provide the necessary training for implementation. Too much wasted time” (“Principals’ Perceptions,” 2014). This respondent accepted the role of the state in selecting an evaluation tool, but was looking for a level of reciprocity with the government providing training for the policy implementers. The benefit in this process of reciprocity, for both the firm and stakeholder, would be the attainment of the mutual goal for increased student achievement.

Mitchell et al. (1997) assigned stakeholders three attributes: power, legitimacy and urgency (p. 853). Respondents in this study, as stakeholders, perceived a lack of urgency from the government: they had not garnered the attention from management they deserved nor had they felt the reciprocity of relationships Mitchell et al. referenced. One respondent articulated this scenario by noting, “The state does not have an evaluation instrument-how can we effectively evaluate an instructor when nothing exists? This is beyond frustrating!! (“Principals’ Perceptions,” 2014).

The normative core, embedded in stakeholder theory and defined as ethics, morality, relationships, values and beliefs, was interpolated into the new context of education by Scott and Lane (2000), Johnson-Cramer (2008); and Purnell and Freeman (2012). Stakeholder relationships led to the identification of the ethics of justice and ethics of care as two different normative cores underlying stakeholder theory.

Janssens and Seynaeve (2000) relied on the two different ethics as an underlying basis when they examined school environment using the traditional and relational approaches of stakeholder theory. Day, Harris and Hadfield (2001) noted the dilemma for many principals was the responsibility to implement an externally imposed policy: a policy that might challenge personal core values or moral purposes.

Scott and Lane (2000) noted the governor, as a stakeholder, had the ability to lead policy change and influence the state budget. These studies supported the application of stakeholder theory in educational settings and allowed for the identification of the legislature as “owner” and a principal labeled a “stakeholder and/or policy implementer”.

Research Questions 1- 4 addressed the lack of attention (urgency and reciprocal relationships) between the state and principals (as perceived by respondents) regarding knowledge of the policy, policy formation and implementation. A perception regarding the lack of reciprocity was shared by one respondent, “I don’t feel like the state adequately provides opportunities to understand the policy, nor do they communicate what it looks like to school leaders, parents, or the general public” (“Principals’ Perceptions,” 2014).

To summarize the use of stakeholder theory as a conceptual framework for this study: stakeholder theory has been defined as a normative theory based on ethics, relationships, and the reciprocity identified through interactions between “owners” (the legislature) and “stakeholders” (principals). The definition of stakeholders by Donaldson & Preston (1995) as “persons or groups with legitimate interests in the procedural and/or substantive aspect of corporate activity” (p. 67) matched that of principals as stakeholders who have a legitimate interest in the work completed by the legislature regarding educational policy. Stakeholder theory has been successfully applied to contexts outside the world of business and management: specifically the context of education.

Viewed through the lens of stakeholder theory, an analysis of the results for the five research questions will lead to conclusions and suggestions for future studies. Each analysis contains the data collection results determined from the questionnaire, the application of the conceptual framework to the research and research question, and the validation of results through an extensive literature review covering the multiple facets found within the mandatory teacher evaluation policy.

Analysis of Research Question 1

Purnell and Freeman (2012) suggested that ethical considerations create a process for meaningful conversation throughout an institution and its stakeholders. One example of this premise was the potential for effective communication between the legislature and respondents throughout the formation and implementation of the mandatory teacher evaluation law. Effective communication was found minimal: the lack of transference of knowledge between the legislature and respondents regarding the evaluation policy was cursory regarding knowledge of the mandated policy.

Specifically, respondent's knowledge of the Michigan School Reform Law, addressed in the first research question, was inconsistent. Items pertaining directly to the evaluation process scored higher than items pertaining to MCEE recommendations or specific details found within the law. Respondents scored highest on knowledge of student growth (90%) and teacher practice (92%). The item concerning the principal's evaluation also had a higher score with 85% of the respondents answering this item correctly. This anonymous respondent was motivated to gain knowledge pertaining to the implementation of the policy: " I am always seeking knowledge as to how I can implement my district's evaluation process effectively to support and grow teachers" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

Scores on items focusing on ineffective ratings (60%), protocol used for ineffective observations (34%), number of required observations (25%), and yearly evaluations (55%) reflected a lack of knowledge regarding the law and MCEE recommendations. Fowler (2009) found that implementers frequently didn't understand what they were to do to implement the policy and lacked the skills or knowledge necessary for implementation.

She believed that a successful implementation of policy would occur if school leaders began with a good knowledge base, combined with thought and planning (p. 305). Peterson (2004) noted the danger of a checklist in the hands of an incompetent evaluator. As one respondent noted in the questionnaire, "I like to know the policy, how I am to implement, what tools are necessary to implement and how that implementation will improve achievement at my building" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

Zimmerman and Keckert-Pelton (2003) identified principals as key players in the success of the evaluation policy. It was possible to accept the supposition that the majority of principals were working to complete the evaluation process accurately. However, an analysis of the data pertaining to this set of "knowledge" items found in the questionnaire reflected a basic lack of understanding of the Michigan Education Reform Law and MCEE recommendations. The results did reflect a respondent's knowledge of certain aspects of the evaluation policy that would be necessary to accurately complete an evaluation in the 2013-2014 school year in Michigan.

One way of gaining knowledge about an educational policy would be to provide opportunities for all stakeholders to have input into the formation and implementation of the policy. This level of communication, or reciprocity found between the legislature and principals, would provide stakeholders with the knowledge needed for the successful implementation of the policy. Atkinson and McCrindell (1997) supported the need for involvement in the formation and implementation of policy: an involvement that was lacking according to respondent data addressed later in Research Questions 2 and 4.

Research has supported the valuable role principals have played in the evaluation process (Marzano et al., 2005); therefore, the level of reciprocity between the legislature as "owners" and principals as "stakeholders" would be of paramount importance for the successful implementation of the evaluation policy. Professional organizations, such as MASSP, and the MDE offered workshops for principals to attend to learn about the evaluation policy. After examining the data and determining the lack of knowledge displayed by respondents, it could be inferred that respondent attendance at the workshops and conferences was low or the quality of information provided at the workshops was suspect. Another possibility is that communication was faulty regarding the opportunities for attending workshops provided by the MDE or the MASSP: This was not a specific item asked on the questionnaire so the answer is purely conjecture.

Nevertheless, principals needed to ascertain the multiple components of the policy that are necessary for meaningful and accurate policy implementation. How respondents perceived they had a voice in the formation and implementation of the evaluation policy was addressed in Research Question 2.

Analysis of Research Question 2

Research Question 2 addressed respondents' perceptions of having a voice in the formation and implementation of the evaluation policy and if there was an association between voice in the process and job satisfaction, self-efficacy and stress/time. Using voice in formation and implementation as independent variables, the researcher wanted to determine if there was a relationship with voice and the dependent variables of job satisfaction, self-efficacy and stress/time.

Impact on Data at Different Organizational Levels

When examining data developed from completing a Pearson r, the researcher re-examined Tables 8 and 9 and determined that with respondents claiming very little voice in the formation (M = 1.53) and implementation (M = 1.53) at the state level, the data would be skewed when running future analysis. With this concern in mind, she ran several different tests: using voice in formation and implementation at three organizational levels (building, district, state) and two organizational levels (building and district) for accuracy in her results. (When examining the data reported in questionnaire items 31 and 32, respondents did not perceive they had a voice in the formation or implementation of the policy at the state level but they did believe they had a voice at the district and building level.)

The low means led the researcher to conclude that respondents perceived they had very little voice in policy formation or implementation at the state level. This information moves the researcher to encourage stronger communication between the principals, as stakeholder, and the legislature, as owners. The respondents' perception of lack of voice at the state level reflects a lack of reciprocity existing between principals and the legislature and conflicts with one premise found in stakeholder theory.

Based on the work of Fowler (2009), principals became intermediary policy implementers responsible for the actual implementation while formal implementers would be the government officials overseeing the implementation. This responsibility should require principals to have a voice in the process or, at the very least, a higher level of knowledge attainment, which by default, would fall under the responsibilities of the formal implementer or government officials.

With a strong lack of perceived communication between the respondents and the legislature at the state level, it is understandable that respondents have turned to their districts and within their buildings to gain the knowledge required for successful implementation of the policy. One respondent addressed this concern by explaining, "I have networked with other principals to see how they were doing things in their buildings. I worked with our own admin [administrative] team" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

Another respondent noted that principals were gaining knowledge of the policy through their district or a network of other principals and they would implement this knowledge in their buildings when completing a teacher evaluation. This respondent noted, "I looked for additional training in district to use the Danielson model with more fidelity" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014). How district leaders gained knowledge of the policy and implementation process was not addressed in the questionnaire, though it may be a viable question to ask in future studies.

The importance of having a voice in policy implementation was supported by the work of Fowler (2009) and suggested the dependency and reciprocal nature of stakeholder theory (Scott and Lane, 2000; Wicks et al. 1994). Phillips et al. (2003) determined that stakeholder theory was "concerned with those having input into the actual decision-making" (p. 490). According to the work of Fowler (2009) and others, Michigan principals needed to play an important role in policy implementation.

Association with Job Satisfaction, Self-Efficacy, and Stress/Time

An analysis of the association between voice in the input process for formation or implementation of the evaluation policy with job satisfaction, self-efficacy and stress/time revealed positive correlations between voice and several constructs. An increase in voice for input into policy formation and implementation at the district and building organizational level did correlate with an increase in job satisfaction and self-efficacy. Voice in the input process also correlated with self-efficacy for implementation of policy at all three organizational levels of building, district and state (see Table 15).

This is significant as it reinforces the importance of principals having a voice in policy formation and implementation. Having a voice does impact job satisfaction and self-efficacy, and through participation in the formation and implementation one side benefit would be increased knowledge of the policy. One respondent reflected upon the importance of "knowing the purpose behind the policy so that I can understand its significance when presenting it to my staff. I know that my attitude will play a significant part in their acceptance" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

Graham and Messner (1998) and Chabers (1999 as cited by Eckman, 2004) reported the importance of job satisfaction with a current job. Beatty (2000) warned of resentment and frustration if a leader felt a loss of empowerment. This was clear with one respondent who stated, "Keep the state out of it and let the local district take care of its own" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014). Job satisfaction was vital for success in the business and educational fields (Molden et al. (2009).

Dimmock (2012) reported in his study that a highly efficacious leadership practice was classroom observation and teacher evaluation. This premise, supported by the work of Marzano et al. (2005), has led the researcher to determine one reason for this level of efficacy is the ability for the principal to share his/her expertise, including quality feedback, with the teacher. A lack of knowledge regarding the new evaluation tool or evaluative process will hinder the ability of the principal to provide a meaningful evaluative experience for the teacher and potentially lower principal self-esteem.

Principals feel efficacious because they are walking into a classroom and they are feeling confident in their ability to assist the teacher to become more effective when working with students. A lack of clarity will limit the level of confidence and self-efficacy a principal experiences in the evaluation process.

The work of Dimmock (2012), Danielson (2002) and Stronge (1997) reinforced the valuable commodities of knowledge and expertise required for successful implementation of an evaluation policy. For this study, the two commodities are enhanced when principals have a voice in the formation and implementation of policy. This motivated respondent reported that "the knowledge and skill development began with a basic understanding of the new evaluation process and continued with practice of the new evaluation process leading to additional questions and areas in which I needed to grow" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

The ability to complete a meaningful and appropriate evaluation requires knowledge of the evaluation process and tool. If Michigan principals are not receiving adequate acquisition of knowledge through the state then there is an issue with reciprocity between the legislature and school principals.

Manuel-Navarrete and Modvar (2007) explained stakeholder theory as defining the connections between stakeholder legitimate interests, stakeholder management practices and the achievement of organizational goals. Principal's perceptions in the study showed a lack of connection, or communication, between the organizational goal of improving student achievement and principals as policy implementers at the state level. A lack of concern for stakeholder legitimate interests (implementing the policy) now impacts job satisfaction and self-efficacy that potentially now influences the organizational goal of increased student achievement. This respondent summarizes the lack of concern for students by saying, " the evaluation process is too long and the document is confusing. It was put together too late and admin and teachers were not well informed. I like that student growth is a part of the eval and we all should be held accountable" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

Kyriakides and Demetriou (2007) and Fowler (2009) both reported a need for stakeholder acceptance of a new educational policy. Phillips (1997) noted the firm had obligations to attend to the needs of individuals and groups of people and Freeman et al. (2010) noted stakeholders had a role in the success or failure of a business. One respondent stated, "Reducing the requirement of every year evaluations would help. I look to the Legislators to recognize their error and fix it!" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

If respondents perceived themselves as overextended then the firm, or legislature, has an obligation to assist the policy implementers who have a role in the success or failure of the policy. This is related to the urgency noted by Mitchell et al. (1997).

Fowler (2009) believed that principals played a very important role in policy implementation and that policy implementation was political. As both the owner and stakeholder place a high value on using the evaluative process as one method for increasing student achievement, it would be hoped that both parties would be working together communicating strategies for the evaluation design and implementation process. Unfortunately, this was not the case for this respondent:

> Absolutely nothing that has come out of the state or the MDE has helped me to understand or grow in these areas [observation and evaluation], and legislators should not be sitting in an office in Lansing deciding the fate of a child's education in a classroom when they have never been trained, exposed or done research in proper evaluation or observation. ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014)

Kyriakides and Demetriou (2007) noted the connection between power and conflict with the introduction of teacher evaluation reform. Fowler (2009) noted the use of first dimension power, which is an explicit exercise of power and is observable, when a legislature passes a law such as the law (Michigan School Reform Law) in this study. The existence of power and conflict is apparent in the responses of principals, “I am more concerned with the policy flawed by the overreach of politicians and policy makers” (“Principals’ Perceptions,” 2014), and found in the lack of communication (reciprocity) between the legislature and principals as determined through the results found in Research Question 2.

The results of this analysis combined with the respondent statements supported several of the premises attached to stakeholder theory. Using the work of Mitchell et al. (1997) as a guide, and the legislature synonymous for company and respondents synonymous for stakeholders:

- the legislature was holding power over the respondents (through the use of first dimension power);
- stakeholders would have legitimate power when managers saw stakeholder claims as appropriate (if the legislature listened to the concerns of principals);
- there was a mutual dependency between respondents and the legislature (that was practically non-existent even though results of the study show that the reciprocity that would exist through an increase in voice would increase job satisfaction and self-esteem);
- respondents had a level of dependency upon the legislature (for a shared development of policy and the attainment of knowledge through training and

> voice in the implementation process to achieve a common goal of increased student achievement.)

Analysis of Research Question 3

The researcher determined that the number of respondent characteristics was too extensive, so the variables of gender, race, credentialing, years of teaching and years in the principalship were examined. These variables were specifically chosen after reviewing studies completed by Dewa et al. (2009) on factors associated with the mental health of principals and Judge and Bono (2001) whose study focused on self-esteem and job satisfaction.

There was a positive weak relationship between knowledge and years in the principalship and knowledge and self-efficacy. Knowledge was the independent variable and the researcher was looking to determine if there was a relationship between knowledge and the identified dependent variables.

Fowler (2009) noted that policy stakeholders interpreted a new policy in terms of past experiences leading to a possible adaptation of the policy. Implementers would interpret the policy drawing on prior knowledge (schemas) unless principals learn new knowledge (schemas). Reflecting upon the data and Fowler's concept of prior knowledge, respondents who had more experience in the role of principal were able to access knowledge from previous evaluation policies thereby becoming receptive to new knowledge required to implement the new policy. The statement made by this respondent supports Fowler's discussion of prior knowledge, "Used my knowledge of teaching based on my years of experience in the classroom, used the training I received at the district level" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

A weak relationship also existed between knowledge and the construct of self-efficacy: this would equate to the concept that greater knowledge of the law increased self-efficacy. This relationship, regardless of strength, was supported by the research completed by Pierce and Gardner (2004) on organization-based self-esteem OBSE and the impact OBSE had on motivation, organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

By applying the normative lens of stakeholder theory to Research Question 3, if principals were viewed as having legitimate interests in legislative activities, a relationship between parties would strengthen a shared belief in the importance of improving student achievement in Michigan. The results of Research Question 2 proved there was no reciprocity between the legislature and principals; therefore, leading to the assumption that legislators do not accept the premise of principal legitimacy.

As stakeholder theory is a study of relationships between stakeholders, a stronger relationship between the legislature and principals would affect efforts to achieve the legislative goals or outputs (Harrison et al., 2012). Greater knowledge would improve principals' self-esteem and impact performance (Pierce & Gardner, 2004: Jones & Wicks, 1999; Johnson-Cramer, 2008).

Analysis of Research Question 4

The researcher was looking to understand if voice in policy implementation differed based on gender, credentials or years in a principalship. Results would provide invaluable knowledge applied for the creation of professional development on voice in policy formation or implementation. This would impact the design and context in which the professional development was offered, encourage development of additional curriculum in higher education leadership programs and suggested strengthening of a partnership between the

MDE and professional leadership organizations to develop a plan for sustaining longevity in the principalship. As one respondent noted, “ I have also watched a literal exodus of principals learning the field in response to the current evaluation demands” (“Principals’ Perceptions,” 2014).

Analysis determined that respondents’ gender, credentials, and years in the principalship did not impact voice in the implementation process of the teacher evaluation policy; however, this does not diminish the value of previously listed suggested outcomes for addressing these issues. This researcher still promotes the value found in professional development through higher education leadership programs (leading to additional credentialing). This recommendation is supported by a respondent who reports, “I consulted my peers in the educational leadership program that I am currently enrolled. My biggest complaint is not being able to get an answer on how or what training is required to implement the program” (“Principals’ Perceptions,” 2014).

Analysis of Research Question 5

Research Question 5 ascertained certain demographics, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, stress/time or knowledge of the law predicted successful implementation of the policy. A multiple regression found statistically significant results when examining self-esteem and stress/time and evaluation implementation. Self-efficacy was a strong predictor for successful implementation of the policy and stress/time was a predictor for successful implementation.

Judge and Bono (2001) determined that self-esteem and self-efficacy were significant predictors of job satisfaction and job performance. When examining self-efficacy and job satisfaction in this study, the correlation between the two constructs was r = .240. *p* < .001 thereby supporting a section of Judge and Bono's study.

Luscher et al. (2006) proposed that as roles within the organization fluctuated due to "changing structure and expectations" stakeholders experienced a decrease in self-concept (p. 493). This respondent's comment would support their premise, "The job of principal has become so difficult, I am now the school nurse, the social worker, the testing coordinator and instructional specialist in addition to being principals" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014). However, this comment was not the consensus of all respondents and the work of Luscher et al. was not supported by the findings found in this study of principals' perceptions. As principals moved into the role of policy implementer, there did not appear to be a loss of self-efficacy.

Specifically, an analysis of these data showed a weak relationship between self-efficacy and voice in formation and implementation of policy (Research Question 2); a positive weak relationship between knowledge of the policy and self-efficacy (Research Question 3); and self-efficacy as a predictor of successful policy implementation (Research Question 5). As respondents became policy implementers (although they may have been unaware of their assumption of this role), self-esteem did increase with knowledge of the law and their responsibility to implement it. (Research Question 1).

The importance of weak correlations, found in these data, supported the value of the relationships between variables. Nardi (2003) noted that although coefficients below .30 are considered weak it is all "relative in comparison to other studies and the size of the sample" (p.149).

Lashway (2006) noted that much of principals' time is dedicated to "making sense of conflicting mandates that reflect the vision of policy makers" (p. 154). Multiple studies determined how stress and lack of time impacted principals and their perceptions of their role (Beatty, 2000; Boyland, 2011; Kamery, 2004; Miller, 1979; Robertson & Mathews, 1988). Robertson and Mathews (1988) also noted that complying with state and federal rules ranked seventh out of ten stressors for leaders.

Stress and time also had an impact on respondents in this teacher evaluation study as discovered through Likert and open-ended responses. Stress/time predicted the successful implementation of the evaluation policy twelve percent of the time for respondents in this study. Although this would not be considered a high percentage, when examining the results of the questionnaire, the construct of stress/time was positive and suggested that as stress increased it would become a stronger predictor for policy implementation (see Table 39). These data support the work of Burkman (2010) who noted that stress was a part of life and could, in fact, increase performance; therefore, the construct of stress/time as a predictor may assist in the implementation process. Miller (1979) also suggested that principals were experiencing situational stress when they had no control over policy requirements.

In fact, when examining all research completed in this study, the only analysis completed with stress/time that was statistically significant was when it was a predictor for policy implementation. One respondent captured perfectly in his/her statement the intersection, and tensions, between these two variables revealed through the quantitative data: "If there is anything I would like to share it is that I am working 60 to 80 hours a week to get all the components of my job completed. I personally have a family and never see them" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

Sogunro (2012) noted stress developed with changes in political landscapes: lack of resources, needs of the worker and job capabilities all increased stress. This would address the reciprocity and normative core found within stakeholder theory. Mainardes et al. (2011) believed that stakeholder theory was a means for combining ethical questions, and reported that the company should take into consideration the needs and influence of groups who may impact or be impacted by the company's policies. This theme permeates literature on stakeholder theory. If respondents in the evaluation study were demonstrating stress and time concerns in the implementation of the policy, the legislature should have considered the needs of their stakeholders.

Unfortunately, when the MCEE published a series of recommendations to guide legislative decision-making, Guerra (2011) reported that Republican State Rep. Margaret O'Brien, who introduced one of the bills, acknowledged the future work of the MCEE and reinforced that the decision of the MCEE would not "automatically go into effect" as the legislature would vote on the final recommendation (p. 1). The MCEE, consisting of select educators and those in higher education who know not only the research that should underpin the policy , but also the realities of daily life in schools for principals, was allowed to make recommendations but the legislature was free to ignore the recommendations. The legislators were still in a position to make a final determination of policy. In this scenario, if the legislature heard the recommendations and addressed the policy implementation concerns noted by educators, it would have supported a reciprocal relationship between stakeholders and the firm as well as consider the values and ethics found in the normative core of stakeholder theory.

One powerful example of lack of reciprocity between the firm and stakeholders was the creation of *A Framework for Michigan Educator Evaluations* (2009). This framework was the result of a collaborative effort between the American Federation of Teachers-Michigan, Michigan Education Association, Michigan Association of Secondary School Principals and Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association and was suggested as a model by the MDE. The MDE (2010) endorsed the framework and recommended local districts use the framework as a model for evaluations but did not require its use.

However, the MCEE recommended four evaluation pilots and *A Framework for Michigan Educator Evaluations* was not identified as one of the pilot models. Although the proposal contains some of the recommendations later made by the MCEE for rating, the strength of the proposal was diminished by the lack of acceptance by the MDE when it was endorsed but never required.

The Theme of "Fairness"

One theme that was discovered when coding the open-ended question (Research Question 6) was the issue of fairness. A pattern of responses noted concern for fairness in the evaluation tool and evaluator training; one principal noted, "The evaluation tools are overwhelming to fairly implement with the number of teachers to evaluate" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014). Another responded, " I don't believe principals have been adequately trained to implement the teacher evaluation policy in a way that is fair and equitable to the teacher" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014). Phillips et al. (2003) emphasized that concerns of fairness reflected the normative core of stakeholder theory. Phillips (2003) noted the company had an obligation to attend to the needs of stakeholders and addressed the issue by claiming that stakeholders possessed a moral standing based on claims of fairness or reciprocity.

This teacher evaluation study supported the work of Phillips (2003) and Phillips et al. (2003) by noting the lack of reciprocated communication and input into the evaluation policy. Prior studies noted the components of moral obligation, ethic of justice, and normative core found in stakeholder theory, thereby supporting the premise that the state had a moral obligation to consider and attend to of the needs of principals (Bolding and Van Patten, 1982; Janssens & Seynaeve, 2000: Johnson-Cramer, 2008; Jones, 1995; Mitchell et al., 1997; Wicks et al., 1994). This was also reinforced in studies within educational settings when using stakeholder theory (Chapleo & Simms, 2010; Christakis, 2009; Harrison et al., 2012; Janssens & Seynaeve, 2000).

Johnson-Cramer (2008) noted a company was obligated to work with stakeholders and should invite stakeholder input in policy making. The MCEE, with a vision to "develop a fair, transparent and feasible evaluation system" (MCEE Website), asked for input on December 7, 2011 when it held its first public meeting. In a weak attempt to work with stakeholders, they provided limited time for public comment and invited a dozen speakers who were "actively engaged in teacher tenure reforms that led to the creation of the MCEE" (Wurfel & Schornack, 2011). It appears as if the public meeting was more of a distortion to allow MCEE the wherewithal to claim transparency and not a meeting providing stakeholders the opportunity to experience a higher level of reciprocity.

Phillips et al. (2003) noted that stakeholder theory addressed the importance for stakeholders having input into the decision-making: ideally procedure was just as valuable as distribution of outputs. The legislature and principals would have a common goal, much like an organization and its stakeholders.

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (1991 attempted to address the issue of being fair and transparent to ensure respect for the evaluation process. But more than two decades later, one principal in this expressed that "I continue to struggle with an effective model to evaluate teachers on student growth in a fair and meaningful way" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

Recommendations and Future Studies

Role of Higher Education and Leadership Programming

The role of higher education must not be diminished when examining educational policy. Fowler (2009) noted that graduate students needed to be prepared for future leadership roles and members of the higher education leadership programs needed to remain current on educational policy. Moving beyond the work of Hitt et al. (2012) who encouraged principals to earn higher degrees to strengthen their leadership practices, higher education also has a responsibility to prepare school leadership for their role as a policy implementer. Baxter (2008) and Burkman (2010) were concerned with university preparation programs that were focused more on the managerial role for principals rather than the role of policy implementer. Yet, the challenges for respondents continue: "I consulted my peers in the educational leadership program that I am currently enrolled [in]. My biggest complaint is not being able to get an answer on how or what training is required to implement the program" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

Principals and future educational leaders need to understand the politics involved in the development of an educational policy and how the policy impacts a principal in the role of instructional leader, building manager, and policy implementer. It is not enough to know of a policy: leaders also need to understand the underpinnings for the creation of educational policy. This premise is reinforced through ELCC Standard 5.1: candidates must have knowledge of federal, state, and local legal and policy guidelines and Standard 6.1 with candidates demonstrating knowledge of policies, laws and regulations.

Understanding Policy Making in Leadership Programming

Louis, Thomas, Gordon, and Febey (2008) found that a "state's political culture is a significant mediating influence on its educational policymaking and leadership practices at the state, district and local level" (as cited in Furgol and Helms, 2012, p. 781). The need for an understanding of policy making is vital as universities continue to develop and revise educational leadership programs.

Furgol and Helms (2012) reported that stakeholders needed to make opportunities for participation in policy making and that those who were involved in the implementation of policy transformed it into concrete practices. Future educational leaders must be prepared to take on the responsibilities of policy formation and implementation through meaningful experiences in the graduate level classrooms of Michigan universities. This recommendation supports the precepts found in stakeholder theory. Principals, in their role of policy implementers, need to nurture and reinforce the reciprocal nature of policy formation and implementation with state policy makers. (Policy makers could be state and federal agencies in addition to elected and appointed officials found at the state level.)

Watson (2013) applied stakeholder theory to school leadership by noting principals need to have required knowledge of policy, understand the importance of policy implementation and have a high enough self-efficacy to address the problems (Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar, De Colle, 2010). The relationship of policy implementation with self-efficacy and stress/time determined in the study reflects the value in having knowledge of the policy and means for its implementation to increase respondent self-efficacy.

Responsibilities for Training and Funding

One respondent assigned responsibility to the state for the formation and implementation and funding of the policy. "I look for direction from the state on which eval tool will be supported financially" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014). A future study on the issue of fiscal responsibility throughout the implementation of an educational policy would be valuable as it is tied to the concept of reciprocity, (between the legislature and school districts) found in stakeholder theory. For example, to receive the Race To The Top funds in 2009, Michigan committed to making improvements in teacher effectiveness leading to the new educator evaluation policy. The MCEE believed it was "reckless, both fiscally and technically" to rush into developing a system [teacher evaluation] and recommended a pilot study (Howe, 2013; MCEE Interim Progress Report, April 2012, p. 12).

Wise et al. (1985) examined the concept that utility (the balance between cost and benefits) of an evaluation process was difficult to assess. Donaldson and Preston (1995) noted that examining stakeholder theory's instrumental aspect, the corporate objectives of profitability and growth were related to the achievement of performance goals. The stakeholders in the organization attained these goals.

The cost of professional development for principals implementing the new evaluation tool and gaining knowledge of the policy and process will need to be addressed by the Michigan legislature. Without the knowledge and skills to fairly implement the evaluation policy, the concerns of respondents will not be addressed. For example, the use of multiple measures in teacher evaluations would provide accurate reporting of teacher strengths and weaknesses. The fiscal responsibility must be the role of the legislature to fund the training necessary to provide effective feedback, mentors and peer-review programs (Peterson, 2004).

Stakeholder theory would support the allocation of funds at the organizational level (Michigan's governor, legislature and department of education) to address the fiduciary and financial needs of stakeholders (principals). Funding sources could be delegated to intermediate school districts for professional development programming centered on teacher evaluation. In return, through effective and meaningful evaluation, student achievement would increase and meet the articulated goals published by the legislature (Harrison et al. 2012, Marzano et al. 2005).

Defining Roles for Principals

Understanding the roles of the principal is vital for increased student achievement. Hallinger (2007) noted, "principals' effects on classroom instruction operate through the school's culture and by modeling rather than through direct supervision and evaluation of teaching" (p. 230). For respondents, the time away to complete teacher evaluations moves them away from the role of instructional leader: "The quality of the classroom teacher is the most important thing in a child's educational life. However, the time intensive process [evaluation implementation] pulls me away from being an instructional leader for the entire time the due dates are up" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

The current policy requires yearly evaluations for all teachers with the caveat that if a teacher is rated as highly effective on three consecutive annual year-end evaluations they may be moved to a year-end evaluation biennially instead of annually (The Revised School Code (Excerpt) Act 451 of 1976). The number of evaluations and time to complete the documentation is staggering for many principals, and it is unfortunate that the evaluation of master teachers takes away from the available time a principal has to mentor and assist new or struggling teachers. As this respondent notes, "I believe that I should spend various amounts of time based on need. Some teachers need much more of my time, while others are doing a fantastic job year in and year out" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

An examination of the evaluation policy needs to address the process and requirements tied to teacher observations and evaluations. In addition to a potentially ineffective use of their time at school in order to comply with the mandate, respondents reported that the loss of time to observe and mentor teachers based on the policy mandate rather than individualized need was impacting their personal lives as they tried to carve time out of the school day to complete all of their roles as principal (Mack, 2011; Thrun, 2010). As a respondent summarizes the issue by noting, "If I can just find the uninterrupted time to complete an evaluation I feel lucky" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

Professional Development

For those principals who are no longer enrolled in a graduate leadership program there is a need to provide alternate methods for communicating applicable training experiences on policy implementation. The opportunity to meet with other principals and share successes and concerns is diminished once principals achieve the level of education or certification they desire. Grissom, Loeb and Master (2013) noted that school leaders make excuses to stop attending professional development regardless of the organizational change. This need for continued professional growth for principals is vital for all stakeholders. Notes one respondent, "I am most interested in learning from others about their practices with regard to evaluation. Listening to others helps me shape my own thoughts" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014).

For example, additional training in understanding the use of VAMs as a measure of student growth is necessary for all stakeholders, including members of the MDE and government officials who are instrumental in legislating educational policy or are involved in the policy implementation (Darling-Hammond, 2012; Hanushek and Rifkin, 2010; Papay, 2011). Statewide assessments are only a snapshot of student knowledge acquisition and the quality of this assessment is crucial for the acceptance of principals and teachers impacted by the assessment. The legislature needs to understand the hazards of institutional isomorphism and not purchase an assessment tool used by other states with the mentality that "if it's good enough for them, it must be good enough for me." Michigan schools deserve better.

Although policy makers in the legislature have the power to choose not to listen to stakeholders (Foster, 2009) it might be in the best interest of public education to listen to policy implementers. Policy makers need to work with other stakeholders outside of the legislature to collect valuable feedback on policy formation and implementation. Both the Michigan Senate and House of Representatives have Education Committees that have regularly scheduled meeting dates. It is the role of these committees to develop laws, review existing legislation or hold meetings on education policy issues (Foster, 2009). Although there are additional committees requiring attention (including the finance committee), stakeholders must aggressively lobby to communicate issues, successes, and concerns.

Lobbyists in Lansing have the opportunity to share concerns with the members of the legislature. The MEA and AFT, as teacher unions, are both represented and speaking out in opposition to many of the policies the Michigan Legislature and governor have initiated.

Michigan intermediate school districts also have lobbyists working in Lansing to provide a voice for public school districts. The Michigan Association of School Boards, Michigan Association of School Personnel Administrators and MASSP also communicate with legislatures through lobbyists. These are just of a few of the professional organizations with lobbyists working in Lansing attempting to provide insight into the issues facing their membership to the legislature.

Michigan principals need to reach out to their professional organizations to express their concerns or personally become involved in these organizations and transfer their knowledge and skills as policy implementers to these organizations. Acknowledging the issue of time, the researcher believes that it will be time well spent to share concerns with organizations that have lobbyists with potential influence and a different level of reciprocity with the Michigan legislature.

Legislators in Lansing also need to meet with their constituents and go into the schools in their legislative districts and talk with principals about the challenges they are facing regarding policy implementation. This is a strong “first step” in building reciprocity between the firm and stakeholder as addressed in stakeholder theory.

What needs to be shared with the legislature and all policy makers is the ethical need to involve all stakeholders in the formation and implementation of educational policy. Stakeholder theory’s normative core requires the firm’s acknowledgement of its moral obligation to work with stakeholders: the legislature needs to create and nurture a reciprocal relationship with principals as policy implementers. Issues such as lack of knowledge regarding the policy or lack of training to implement the policy should not exist in a context based on working to improve student achievement.

Listening to their voices, through the open-ended question, the researcher heard the levels of frustration with the policy and with the legislature. One example of the frustration and anger felt by a respondent is represented is this response (submitted in all capital letters) from a principal:

> I THINK THE EVALUATING TOOL SHOULD HAVE TEACHER TRAINING AS WELL AND I THINK THE BOZO'S THAT MADE THE "EVERY YEAR, EVERY TEACHER" SHOULD KNOW THAT THE AMOUNT OF TIME SPENT WORKING WITH TEACHERS THAT NEED THIS SUPPORT HAS DECRESSED CONSIDERABLY…I AM PLANNING TO RETIRE THIS YEAR AS THE WORK LOAD IS NOT SUSTAINABLE. ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014)

The researcher was also surprised by data collected through the questionnaire. After reading and coding the open-ended question it was surprising to determine in the quantitative study using SPSS that lack of knowledge did not have a correlation with stress/time. Voice in the formation and implementation of policy also did not correlate with stress/time. While less than 10% of the respondents addressed stress/time in the open-ended question, their words were powerful and left a lasting impression.

A need exists to address the weaknesses found in respondents' lack of knowledge of the policy through a multi-leveled approach. Intermediate school districts (ISD), professional organizations such as MASSP, the MDE and state policy makers need to reach out to school districts in Michigan with a concise and uniform training program to meet the needs of uninformed principals. This would require individual districts to assess principals' strengths and weaknesses, through pro-active surveys or reactive evaluations, and communicate district needs to the local ISD. This would legitimatize claims by stakeholders addressing the need for additional training on policy formation and implementation.

The development of electronic resources, such as blogs, could support principals as they address the implementation of a new policy (be it a district, state, of federal policy). This would provide a forum for those actively involved in the process and has the potential for immediacy that a workshop or conference couldn't provide.

It is also important not to forget the role a school district plays in the implementation of policy. Data reflected that respondents perceived their voices were heard at the district level for policy formation and implementation. The role the district plays as an intermediary stakeholder is valuable to the success of policy implementation. The district should not only communicate the policy but also prepare principals by sharing the intricacies found within the policy through training. The district also needs to communicate with the legislature the concerns facing principals thereby adding a level of reciprocity found in stakeholder theory.

In a study completed by Spillane (1996) on local school districts and instructional policy making, he reported that district administrators are valuable in the successful implementation of state and federal policy. His study determined that school districts have typically been ignored in school reform. He noted that in Michigan "there is a history of local control and where at least some districts have established instructional policy-making capacity over the past decade that far surpasses that of state government" (p. 83). This study supports the premise that school districts are intermediary stakeholders in policy implementation.

Rorrer, Skria, and Scheurich (2008) found that there was a lack of attention to school districts as a unit of study. They noted that future research is needed to understand districts as “institutional actors in educational reform” (p. 1). This also supported the work of Spillane (1996) who noted that school districts were ignored in reform. Perhaps a future study to focus on the role of the school district as a stakeholder in the formation and implementation of educational policy is necessary.

Firestone, Mangin, Martinez and Polovsky (2005) noted that school district offices can influence teaching through professional development. They found that district differences affected professional development coordination and planning but districts had the potential to provide meaningful professional development.

The researcher has heard the voices of Michigan public and charter K-12 principals through the responses to the open-ended question. Respondents are working very hard to successfully implement the evaluation policy, but after looking at the quantitative results and reading the open-ended question, it is clear that one paramount issue is the lack the time and training to successfully achieve this goal. Personal responses to the researcher have heartened her desire to speak for the respondents: “Good luck on your study….Certainly important information for policy makers if they choose to use the information” (“Principals’ Perceptions,” 2014).

Additional Studies

Recommendations for further studies include:

- The role of politics in policy implementation within educational settings due to the increase of educational policy in the United States. (This study should investigate how political parties play a role in educational policy formation and implementation. Addressing the use of institutionalized isomorphism in the creation of policy, is it possible to apply stakeholder theory to the study as a means of understanding how politics and partisanship impact the constituents in public and/or private schools? Does a political agenda impact educational policy? What is the political motivation and power behind educational reform?)

- Best methods for government/governmental agencies to effectively communicate knowledge of policy implementation to stakeholders. (This should be a meta-analysis of how successful policy formation and implementation has been communicated to stakeholders.)
- The examination of the role of reciprocity between stakeholders and governmental leadership in the communication of policy reform and implementation. This study should continue the work started with this study on the Michigan School Reform Law using stakeholder theory and how policy could be successfully implemented.
- The potential for stakeholder theory to be applied throughout educational settings focusing upon the normative core and construct of reciprocity. As stakeholder theory becomes more recognized for its validity and application outside the realm of business and management, the potential for application of a conceptual framework in educational studies should increase.
- The investigation of role conflict with principals: is there an association between role conflict (including the role of policy implementer) and job satisfaction, self-efficacy, time and stress?
- The role a school district plays in the implementation of educational policy. This potential study would be a continuation of this current study but would examine the results found in Research Question 2 regarding principals having a voice at the district level for policy formation and implementation. This would support the findings of

Firestone et al. and Spillane (1996). What is the definition of educational policy and how is policy communicated to districts? How can a school district develop a reciprocal relationship with the legislature? Is there an association between knowledge of the policy by superintendent/central office leadership and implementation of school policies? Does this association correlate with job satisfaction, self-efficacy, stress and time?

Conclusion

This study is the culmination of multiple passions on the part of the researcher. One purpose of this study was to discover and then make sense of how principals, in the role of policy implementer, perceived they were handling the implementation of the mandatory teacher evaluation policy. As a former principal and current instructor of educational leadership classes at the university graduate level, this researcher feels the need to prepare educators (who have shown an interest in becoming a principal) for the reality and implications of policy implementation is vital through a curriculum that addresses policy and the role of principal as a policy implementer.

The selection of stakeholder theory was, as first, controversial as it was not a typical conceptual framework for educational studies. However, the researcher was attracted to the concept of a reciprocal relationship between owners and stakeholders. Reading the work of Freeman (1984) and progressing through multiple studies, including the work of Mitchell et al. (1997), allowed this researcher to follow the development of a theory used to explain relationships between managers and workers. As researchers throughout the world continued to apply stakeholder theory in a managerial context, the theory was moved to the social sciences and morals and ethics were identified (Jones and Wicks, 1999). Finally, studies applied stakeholder theory and its normative core in an educational context and this reinforced the applicability of viewing principals' perceptions through the lens of stakeholder theory (Harrison et al, 2012; Johnson-Cramer, 2008).

The issue of reciprocity is the common thread that has traveled throughout the data analyses and findings. Through data analysis it was determined that knowledge of this educational policy, among those charged with implementing it, was weak. Yet, knowledge of this educational policy would bring an increase in self-efficacy, also determined in this study, and this level of efficacy should assist in the implementation of the policy.

It was the role of the legislature (as owner) to monitor the implementation of the mandatory evaluation policy and listen to the concerns of stakeholders: concerns of training, complying with the requirement for annual evaluations for all teachers, and monitoring a level of fairness in the evaluative process. It was also the role of the legislature to address these concerns in a timely manner as a relationship does exist between knowledge of the policy and respondents' self-efficacy. It is not enough to expect that years of experience as a principal is the only way to become knowledgeable about an educational policy.

More of a concern determined from the study was the perception that principals lacked a voice in policy formation and implementation at the state level. Principals need to have a voice in policy formation and implementation as their knowledge of the policy will assist in its successful implementation. This use of voice will increase self-efficacy and decrease stress and concerns for time. However, principals' voice will not be actualized until the legislature understands the role principals play as policy implementers and that communication between the two parties is mandatory, per stakeholder theory, for the successful implementation of any educational policy.

Acknowledging the issue of role conflict between instructional leader, building manager and policy implementer has the potential to bring about a paradigm shift in defining a principal's three roles. Principals need to recognize the vital role they play as a policy implementer and that they are implementing federal, state, and district policies throughout the school day. This lack of conceptualization regarding the importance of this role must be addressed through future research and factored in when writing curriculum for graduate level leadership courses. Results of this study confirmed that principals place a great deal of value in the role of instructional leader yet spend the same number of hours per day as a policy implementer which was a role they delineated as last when asked order of importance for principals' roles.

The issue of time and stress were of tantamount importance to respondents in the open-ended question, but were found, through data analysis, to also have a relationship with policy implementation. The correlation between stress/time and policy implementation will be reduced when policy makers effectively communicate with policy implementers.

The role a school district plays in policy implementation is significant as principals perceived they had a voice at this organizational level. A level of reciprocity must also exist between these stakeholders as both will benefit from the sharing of knowledge. When principals are feeling efficacious and satisfied in their job, they will have fewer challenges with policy implementation.

The final test conducted determined that self-efficacy and stress/time did predict success in the implementation of the policy. Principals should be mindful of the influence policy implementation has on their self-esteem as this will factor into job satisfaction (see Research Question 2).

Finally, when applying the foundations of stakeholder theory to educational policy implementation, the importance of communication and reciprocity allows for understanding the normative core of the theory: both the legislature and principals working together for the achievement of a final goal (increased student achievement). Principals and legislators should no longer have an "us-them" mentality with legislative reform when the government shares responsibility, through quality two-way dialogue, for policy formation and implementation.

Addressing the needs of stakeholders, the legislature should promote the design of clearly articulated policy training measures for the teacher evaluation process to eliminate the stress and frustration felt by policy implementers. Then, as stakeholders, principals will hold a viable interest in the successful implementation of the policy and the attainment of the legislative goals for the policy.

The role government should play in the creation of educational policy and the impact of that policy on educational stakeholders must be addressed. The issue of politics and education is a long-standing relationship and, in the past, conflict has been resolved in courtrooms and through union negotiations. It brings the researcher great pleasure to allow principals to have opportunities for voice in this study. Perhaps this anonymous principal encapsulates the themes identified through the open-ended question and the first ten items in this researcher's 2014 questionnaire by writing, "Our leaders in Lansing just don't understand that we WANT to support our teachers with meaningful feedback but the laws in front of us right now have moved us from meaningful feedback to surface level compliance." A final respondent reinforces the constructs of job satisfaction and self-efficacy as well as the role of stakeholder theory in this study when writing, "Listening to and hearing from others will most help me become a more complete and effective evaluator, regardless of tools or policy implemented. In the end this is a people business" ("Principals' Perceptions," 2014). These are the voices of the dedicated, hard-working policy implementers for the Michigan School Reform Law 2009 and they need to be heard.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Questionnaire for “A Study of Principals’ Perceptions as Implementers of Michigan’s Mandated Teacher Evaluation Policy”

A Study of Principals’ Perceptions as Implementers of the Mandated Michigan Teacher Evaluation Policy

Dear Michigan Principal,

Please remember I am interested in your candid responses regarding your perceptions of the implementation of the new teacher evaluation policy in Michigan. As a reminder, this questionnaire is anonymous with no names or specific identification numbers assigned to returned surveys. Your responses are valuable for the completion of my research and I appreciate your completion of this survey by ______________.

Gratefully,
Linda Foran
EDLD Doctoral Candidate

The following questions should be answered using a Likert Scale with responses of:

1=Strongly Agree
2= Agree
3= Neither Agree or Disagree
4= Disagree
5=Strongly Disagree

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements based on your knowledge or understanding of the requirements of Michigan’s new teacher evaluation law.

1. Evaluating teacher performance should include teacher practice and student growth. 1 2 3 4 5

2. All required evaluations must involve a pre-observation conference, an observation and post-observation conference. 1 2 3 4 5

3. Every year, teachers must be observed/evaluated three times. 1 2 3 4 5

4. All observations should last an entire class period. 1 2 3 4 5

5. Recommended evaluation ratings should indicate professional, provisional, or ineffective. 1 2 3 4 5

6. If a teacher is not effective, he/she has to demonstrate growth in two years. 1 2 3 4 5

7. If a teacher earns an ineffective rating, he/she has the right to request a review by the superintendent, intermediate superintendent or the chief operating officer. 1 2 3 4 5

8. Student growth refers to a change of students' knowledge and skill across a school year. 1 2 3 4 5

9. Once a teacher is rated the highest ranking, he/she only needs to be evaluated every other year. 1 2 3 4 5

10. One factor of a principal's evaluation will include whether he/she has complied in completing teacher evaluations. 1 2 3 4 5

11. The Michigan Department of Education will have full control in re-designing the teacher evaluation system. 1 2 3 4 5

Please continue to use Likert Scale responses of:
1=Strongly Agree
2= Agree
3= Neither Agree or Disagree
4= Disagree
5=Strongly Disagree

When I am completing an evaluation, I:

12. feel confident using my district's evaluation tool for determining teacher effectiveness. 1 2 3 4 5

13. believe the teacher I am observing values my evaluation of his/her performance. 1 2 3 4 5

14. have enough time to complete the required evaluation paperwork for the new teacher evaluation policy during the school day. 1 2 3 4 5

15. am able to determine a teacher's effectiveness. 1 2 3 4 5

16. am feeling satisfied with my accomplishments at the end of the day when I leave the building. 1 2 3 4 5

17. feel confident using the new technology/software. 1 2 3 4 5

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

18. I am confident I am meeting all the requirements of the new teacher evaluation policy. 1 2 3 4 5

19. I feel comfortable meeting the deadlines necessary for the evaluation process. 1 2 3 4 5

20. I feel confident implementing the new teacher evaluation policy due to successfully completing previous teacher evaluations. 1 2 3 4 5

21. I have to complete my evaluations after school and/or on weekends. 1 2 3 4 5

22. I am frustrated when a new educational policy must be implemented. 1 2 3 4 5

23. I rarely regret going into education and becoming a principal. 1 2 3 4 5

24. I believe the Michigan legislature considered the role principals play in the implementation of this new evaluation policy. 1 2 3 4 5

25. I believe I need additional training on implementing the new teacher evaluation policy. 1 2 3 4 5

26. I feel stressed with the amount of work I am required to complete when doing teacher evaluations. 1 2 3 4 5

27. I feel confident that with the amount of training I have received, I can successfully complete the evaluation process. 1 2 3 4 5

28. I am concerned that with the new evaluation and tenure laws, I am negatively impacting the career 1 2 3 4 5

of a teacher if I mark him/her ineffective.

29. I would like my job more if I could go back to the system of evaluation my district used prior to the Michigan School Reform Law. 1 2 3 4 5

30. I am confident I have received adequate training on the new teacher evaluation 1 2 3 4 5

31. **As a member of a key stakeholder group with the charge of completing teacher evaluations, I had a voice during the educational policy formation at:**

A. the building level. 1 2 3 4 5

B. the district level. 1 2 3 4 5

C. the state level. 1 2 3 4 5

32. **As a member of a key stakeholder group with the charge of completing teacher evaluations, I had a voice during the educational policy implementation at:**

A. the building level. 1 2 3 4 5

B. the district level. 1 2 3 4 5

C. the state level. 1 2 3 4 5

33. **Please respond by rating the number of hours per day you fulfill each role as a principal.**

Role	Hours	Hours	Hours	Hours	Hours
A. Instructional Leader	1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	More than 8
B. Building Manager	1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	More than 8
C. Policy Implementer	1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	More than 8

34. **Please rank order the importance you place on each role.**

Role	Rating: 1=Most Important	2= Important	3=Less Important
A. Instructional Leader	1	2	3

B. Building Manager	1	2	3
C. Policy Implementer	1	2	3

35. **Please respond candidly to this final open-ended question:**

As a principal, and key stakeholder, what knowledge and skill development did you or do you currently look for when implementing this new teacher evaluation policy?

Almost Finished………

Demographic Questions

1. Gender
   - A. Male
   - B. Female

2. Building Level of your principalship
   - A. Elementary K-5
   - B. Middle 6-8
   - C. High School 9-12
   - D. Grades K-8
   - E. K-12

3. Size of Student Population in my school
   - A. Less than 250
   - B. 251-500
   - C. 501-750
   - D. 751-1000
   - E. More than 1001

4. Your teaching certification
   - A. Elementary (K-8)
   - B. Secondary (8-12)
   - C. K-12 Non-Core or Elective
   - D. Special Education
   - E. Technology

5. Years as a teacher
   - A. 1-5 years
   - B. 6-10 years
   - C. 11-15 years
   - D. 16-20 years
   - E. Over 20 years

6. Years as a principal
   - A. 1-5 years

B. 6-10 years
C. 11-15 years
D. 16-20 years
E. Over 20 years

7. Administrative Credentials
A. Masters/Specialist/Doctoral Degree in a Leadership Program
B. Administrative Certification
C. Currently enrolled in a program leading to certification
D. Alternate Route Participant

8. Ethnicity
A. White
B. Black
C. Asian
D. Hispanic
E. Pacific Islander
F. American Indian
G. Other

9. Location of your school
A. Urban
B. Suburban
C. Rural

10. Size of teaching staff
A. Fewer than 15
B. 15-30
C. 31-60
D. 61-90
E. 91 +

11. Do you have an assistant principal?
A. No
B. Yes, 1 assistant principal
C. Yes, 2 assistant principals
D. Yes, more than 2 assistant principals

12. If you have an assistant principal, does he/she assist you in completing teacher evaluations?
A. I do not have an assistant principal
B. Yes, my assistant principal(s) completes teacher evaluations
C. No, my assistant principal(s) does not assist in completing teacher evaluations

13. Do you have a designated building leader to assist you in the evaluation process?

A. No, I do not have a staff member assist me in the teacher evaluation process
B. Yes, I have a department head (staff member) assist me in the teacher evaluation process
C. Yes, I have a curriculum coordinator (staff member) assist me in the teacher evaluation process
D. Yes, I have a lead teacher (staff member) assist me in the teacher evaluation process

14. Are you a focus or priority school?
A. Yes
B. No

15. Are you using a state-approved evaluation model and tool or a district model and your district is asking for a waiver?
A. Danielson's Framework for Teaching Model
B. Marzano Teacher Evaluation Model, The Thoughtful Classroom or 5 Dimensions of Teaching and Learning
C. District model with a waiver from the state
D. District model waiting for a waiver from the state

16. Have you attended training for this model?
A. I have attended training from the vender
B. I have attended training within my district
C. I am awaiting training for a model in the future
D. Answers A & B

Thank you, thank you, thank you!

Your responses will allow my dissertation to accurately report the perceptions of Michigan principals regarding the Michigan School Reform Law and the relationship between the teacher evaluation policy found within the law and principals' perceptions regarding job satisfaction, self-efficacy and stress.

I hope to provide a voice for Michigan principals.

Linda K. Foran

Appendix B

UHSRC Dissertation Application and Approval
Human Subjects

Letter of Consent

Date ________

Dear Michigan Principal,

I am a doctoral student in the Leadership and Counseling Department at Eastern Michigan University. As a former Michigan principal, I am studying principals' perceptions of the new mandated teacher evaluation policy.

I am interested in your candid responses regarding your perceptions of the implementation of this new policy in Michigan. It will take approximately _____ minutes to complete this questionnaire. Once your questionnaire is finished, your role in this research study will be completed, however your responses carry a great value to this study. If you are interested in my findings, you are welcome to contact me at lforan@emich.edu.

Using SurveyMonkey, I can assure you that your questionnaire answers will be completely anonymous, with the ability to capture email addresses disabled in the website. Responses will be sent to SurveyMonkey through a secure, encrypted connection and accessed only using a secure password. SurveyMonkey's information systems infrastructure (servers, networking equipment, etc.) is collocated at third party SSAE 16/SOC 2 audited data centers.

There are no foreseeable risks to you for participating in this questionnaire and participation is voluntary with no risk of penalty or repercussion if you choose to not complete the questionnaire. You may also choose to discontinue your participation prior to the completion of your questionnaire at any time. By completing this questionnaire, you are agreeing to participate in the research.

Your perceptions, reported through your responses on the questionnaire, will be used in the data collection process for completion of my doctorate at Eastern Michigan University. Results will be shared with the Michigan Department of Education. The information published in my dissertation may be used at conferences, presentations and journal publications. I appreciate your completion of this survey by __________________.

Gratefully,
Linda Foran
EDLD Doctoral Candidate

This research protocol and informed consent document has been reviewed and approved by the Eastern Michigan University Human Subjects Review Committee for use from March 1, 2014 to July 1, 2014. If you have questions about the approval process, please contact the UHSRC administrative co-chair at hman.subjects@emich.edu or call 734-487-0042.

Summary

A Study of Principals' Perceptions as Implementers of Michigan's Mandated Teacher Evaluation Policy

Summary of Background Literature Stimulating the Research

Although numerous studies exist pertaining to teachers' perceptions of teacher evaluation, there is a shortage of research focusing upon the role of principal as a educational policy implementer, specifically for teacher evaluation. Michigan principals are currently implementing a policy, creating an opportunity to examine the relationship between principals' perceptions of the mandatory implementation of a teacher evaluation policy and job satisfaction, self-efficacy and levels of stress.

The review of literature has been organized to first define and support the use of stakeholder theory as the conceptual framework in a study of educational policy and specifically the perceptions of principals regarding the mandatory teacher evaluation policy. A second section of the literature review presents the historical development of the 2009 Michigan School Reform Law and the impact of policy development in education. A third section of the literature review pertains to the three identified roles of the principal: instructional leader, building manager, and policy stakeholder and the potential positive and/or negative outcomes experienced by principals as policy stakeholders in the implementation process and how this relates to their job satisfaction, self-efficacy and stress.

Rationale for Proposed Study

The purpose of this study is to identify and develop an understanding of the relationships between the perceptions of principals regarding the Michigan mandatory evaluation policy and job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and stress as they attempt to navigate the roles of building manager, instructional leader and specifically that of a policy stakeholder.

The six research questions designed for this study include:

1. How knowledgeable are principals of the Michigan Teacher Evaluation Policy mandates?
2. Is there an association between principals' perceptions of the input process for teacher evaluation policy formation and implementation with job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and level of stress?
3. What is the relationship between principal characteristics, job satisfaction, self-efficacy and level of stress with Michigan principal's knowledge of the teacher evaluation policy?
4. Are there any within or between group differences by gender, age, or years in the principalship regarding implementation of the teacher evaluation policy?
5. To what extent do demographic characteristics, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, level of stress, and knowledge of the teacher evaluation policy predict principal perceptions of policy implementation?
6. What support do principals say they need in order to implement the new teacher evaluation policy?

There are multiple issues to be examined when gaining insight into the relationship between principals' perceptions of the policy driving implementation of the mandatory evaluation process and job satisfaction, self-efficacy and stress. One issue is the possibility that principals believe they have no voice in implementation of this teacher evaluation process. These six research questions may be answered through the examination of principals, as policy stakeholders, through the lens of stakeholder theory.

Description and Recruitment of Participants

The population of this study will be K-12 principals in the state of Michigan as a consensus sampling. Variables include gender, building grade level, student population, teaching and administrative certification, years experience, ethnicity, location of the school, size of teaching staff, if the school is a focus or priority school, the evaluation model currently implemented and if there is a designee such as an assistant principal or department chair to assist in the observations within the school.

Interest by the Michigan Department of Education Research Department in this study is leading to the opportunity to access all email addresses for schools using the Educational Entity Master (EEM) system in Michigan. The EEM is a repository containing the numbers and basic contact information for public, nonpublic schools, intermediate school districts and institutions of higher education (Center for Educational Performance and Information website). The opportunity to reach out to all school leaders in Michigan is being made possible with the Uniform Resource Locator (URL) provided by Matt Gleason at the Michigan Department of Education.

The questionnaire will be sent to all school principals in the EEM system. At the time of the questionnaire, the population is comprised of 4,126 Michigan public schools: 2,158 elementary schools, 659 middle schools and 687 high schools.

Participation is voluntary with respondents completing the questionnaire and data collected through SurveyMonkey. Participants will receive a consent letter explaining the motivation for completing the questionnaire electronically and this will be attached to the questionnaire. The letter guarantees anonymity for the respondents and the questionnaire is designed to "not capture personal information" by disabling the storage of email addresses. Responses will be sent to SurveyMonkey through secure, encrypted SSL/TLS connections and respondents will be tracked through a unique ID. Backups occur hourly, internally, and daily to a centralized backup system for storage in multiple geographically disparate sites. Specifically, the consent letter will address: the voluntary participation by principals; the fact there are no foreseeable risks for participation, no consequences for not participating, the principals may stop taking the questionnaire at any time, and that all responses are anonymous through SurveyMonkey using a secure encrypted connection. Responses can only be accessed through a secure password used by the researcher

Study Methodology

Using stakeholder theory as a theoretical framework, items for the questionnaire have been developed to allow for an examination of principal's perceptions of the mandated policy. The focus of this descriptive/correlational study will be to determine, through data collection, if there is a relationship between the mandatory educational policy, designed by legislators, and job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and stress in the personal and professional lives of Michigan principals. Data will be recorded, using Michigan principal's responses gathered through a web-based questionnaire, to identify potential relationships.

Data collection and analysis for each questions will include:

- Research question #1 will require determining the central tendency as a descriptive analysis of how knowledgeable principals are of the mandated policy.
- Research question #2 will require using cross tabulation to summarize categorical data and then create contingency tables. (Chi Square analysis)
- Research question #3 will require a corrrelational analysis of data to examine if a relationship exists between certain variables, and if a relationship does exist, to determine the strength and direction of the relationship. (Pearson *r*)
- Research question #4 will require the examination of between-group differences to compare the means of two or more independent groups. (ANOVA)
- Research question #5 will require the use of multiple regression to examine relationships between dependent and independent variables and to look for any causal relationships suggesting prediction.
- Research question #6, as an open-ended question, will require a content analysis creating a list of responses. By reading through the responses, it may be possible to determine meaningful categories and create relevant thematic coding assignments.

Completing an ANOVA and regression analysis will allow the researcher to examine relationships between variables and to measure, not only the strength of the relationship, but to discover if there is a causal effect between selected variables. During regression analysis, the goal will be to note the effect of causal variables on the variable they influence. Sykes (1992) reported that multiple regression is “valuable in quantifying the impact of various simultaneous influences upon a single dependent variable (p. 8).

Using univariate and bivariate analysis of data, the focus will be to explore potential relationships between variables, to discover the strength and direction of relationships and/or to uncover any causal relationships to increase the depth of this study. The final question in the questionnaire, as an open-ended question, will allow the researcher to examine themes determined through the examination of responses and note if these themes reflect potential insight for this study's research questions or if additional themes are introduced requiring future study.

UHSRC Approval Letter

EASTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY *Education First*

April 28, 2014 **UHSRC INITIAL APPROVAL: EXEMPT**

To: **Linda K. Foran**
Eastern Michigan University – Leadership & Counseling

Re: **UHSRC: # 140404**
Category: Exempt # 1 & 2
Approval Date: April 28, 2014
Expiration Date: April 28, 2017

Title: A Study of Principals' Perceptions as Implementers of Michigan's Mandated Teacher Evaluation Policy

The Eastern Michigan University Human Subjects Review Committee (UHSRC) has completed their review of your project. I am pleased to advise you that **your research has been deemed as exempt** in accordance with federal regulations.

The UHSRC has found that your research project meets the criteria for exempt status and the criteria for the protection of human subjects in exempt research. **Under our exempt policy the Principal Investigator assumes the responsibility for the protection of human subjects** in this project as outlined in the assurance letter and exempt educational material.

Renewals: Exempt protocols do not need to be renewed. If the project is completed, please submit the **Human Subjects Study Completion Form** (found on the UHSRC website).

Revisions: Exempt protocols do not require revisions. However, if changes are made to a protocol that may no longer meet the exempt criteria, a **Human Subjects Minor Modification Form** or new **Human Subjects Approval Request Form** (if major changes) will be required (see UHSRC website for forms).

Problems: If issues should arise during the conduct of the research, such as unanticipated problems, adverse events, or any problem that may increase the risk to human subjects and change the category of review, notify the UHSRC office within 24 hours. Any complaints from participants regarding the risk and benefits of the project must be reported to the UHSRC.

Follow-up: If your exempt project is not completed and closed after **three years**, the UHSRC office will contact you regarding the status of the project and to verify that no changes have occurred that may affect exempt status.

Please use the UHSRC number listed above on any forms submitted that relate to this project, or on any correspondence with the UHSRC office.

Good luck in your research. If we can be of further assistance, please contact us at 734-487-0042 or via e-mail at gs_human_subjects@emich.edu. Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Jennifer K. Fritz

Dr. Jennifer Kellman Fritz
Faculty Co-Chair
University Human Subjects Review Committee

University Human Subjects Review Committee • Eastern Michigan University • 200 Boone Hall
Ypsilanti, Michigan 48197
Phone: 734.487.0042 Fax: 734.487.0050
E-mail: human.subjects@emich.edu
www.ord.emich.edu (see Federal Compliance)

The EMU UHSRC complies with the Title 45 Code of Federal Regulations part 46 (45 CFR 46) under FWA00000050.

Appendix C

Knowledge Items and Descriptive Analysis of Responses

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements based on your knowledge or understanding of the requirements of Michigan's new teacher evaluation law.

1. Evaluating teacher performance should include teacher practice and student growth. 1 2 3 4 5

2. All required evaluations must involve a pre-observation conference, an observation and post-observation conference. 1 2 3 4 5

3. Every year, teachers must be observed/evaluated three times. 1 2 3 4 5

4. All observations should last an entire class period. 1 2 3 4 5

5. Recommended evaluation ratings should indicate professional, provisional, or ineffective. 1 2 3 4 5

6. If a teacher earns an ineffective rating, he/she has the right to request a review by the superintendent, intermediate superintendent or the chief operating officer. 1 2 3 4 5

7. Student growth refers to a change of students' knowledge and skill across a school year. 1 2 3 4 5

8. Once a teacher is rated the highest ranking, he/she only needs to be evaluated every other year. 1 2 3 4 5

9. One factor of a principal's evaluation will include whether he/she has complied in completing teacher evaluations. 1 2 3 4 5

10. The Michigan Department of Education will have full control in re-designing the teacher evaluation system. 1 2 3 4 5

Descriptive Analysis of Knowledge Items

Item #	Question	N	Median	Mean	Std. Deviation	Item Correctly Stated	Anticipated Response
1	Evaluating teacher performance should include teacher practice and student growth.	388	4	4.24	0.83255	Yes	4 or 5
2	All required evaluations should involve a pre-observation conference, an observation and post-observation conference.	391	4	3.27	1.25035	No	1 or 2
3	Every year, teachers must be observed/evaluated three times.	391	2	2.53	1.1449	Yes	4 or 5
4	All observations should last an entire class period.	386	2	2.43	1.13345	No	1 or 2
5	Recommended evaluation ratings should indicate professional, provisional, or ineffective.	391	3	3.13	1.14334	Yes	4 or 5
6	If a teacher earns an ineffective rating, he/she has the right to request a review by the superintendent, intermediate superintendent or the chief operating officer.	391	4	3.36	1.02653	Yes	4 or 5
7	Student growth refers to a change of students' knowledge and skill across a school year.	390	4	4	0.68022	Yes	4 or 5

8	Once a teacher is rated the highest ranking, he/she only needs to be evaluated every other year.	390	4	3.3	1.2737	Yes	4 or 5
9	One factor of principal evaluations should include whether he/she has complied in completing teacher evaluations.	389	4	3.98	0.74941	Yes	4 or 5
10	The Michigan Department of Education will have full control in re-designing the teacher evaluation process.	387	2	2.18	1.0562	No	1 or 2
	Valid N (listwise)	376					

Appendix D

Descriptive Analysis of Respondent Demographics

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Male	191	46.9	46.9	46.9
	Female	214	52.6	52.6	99.5
	Transgender	2	0.5	0.5	100
Valid	Total	407	100	100	

Race

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Black	28	6.9	6.9	6.6
	Amer Indian	2	0.5	0.5	7.4
	Hispanic	1	0.2	0.2	7.6
	White	376	92.4	92.4	100
Valid	Total	407	100	100	

Teaching Certification

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Elementary (K-8)	175	43.	43.6	43.6
	Secondary (8-12)	159	39.1	39.7	83.3
	K-12 Non-Core or Elective	27	6.6	6.7	90.0
	Special Education	40	9.8	10.0	100
Valid	Total	401	98.5	100	
Missing	System	6	1.5		
Total		407	100		

Years of teaching experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1-5 years	44	10.8	10.9	10.9
	6-10 years	97	23.8	24.1	35.0
	11-15 years	91	22.4	22.6	57.6
	16-20 years	63	15.5	15.6	73.2
	Over 20 years	108	26.5	26.8	100
Valid	Total	403	99.0	100	
Missing	System	4	1.0		
Total		407	100		

Academic/Administrative Credentials

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Masters/Specialist/doctorate in a leadership program	151	37.1	37.4	37.4
	Administrative Certification	227	55.8	56.2	93.6
	Currently Enrolled in a Program	16	3.9	4	97.5
	Alternate Route Participant	10	2.5	2.5	100
Valid	Total	404	99.3	100	
Missing	System	3	0.7		
Total		407	100		

Building Level of Principalship

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Elementary K-5	159	39.1	44.1	44.1
	Pre-K	8	2	2.3	46.4
	Middle 6-8	64	15.7	17.8	64.2
	High School 9-12	83	20.4	22.5	86.7
	Grades K-8	18	4.4	4.6	91.3
	K-12	19	4.7	4.8	96.1
	Other	17	4.2	3.9	100
Valid	Total	368	90.5	100	
Missing	System	39	9.5		
Total		407	100		

Years as a Principal

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1-5 years	159	39.1	39.2	39.2
	6-10 years	112	27.5	27.6	66.7
	11-15 years	68	16.7	16.7	83.5
	16-20 years	38	9.3	9.4	92.9
	Over 20 years	29	7.1	7.1	100
Valid	Total	406	99.8	100	
Missing	System	1	0.2		
Total		407	100		

Location of School

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Urban	61	15	15.2	15.2
	Suburban	175	43.0	43.5	58.7
	Rural	166	40.8	41.3	100
Valid	Total	402	98.8	100	
Missing	System	5	1.2		
Total		407	100		

Size of Teaching Staff

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Fewer than 15	53	12.9	13	13
	15-30	212	52.3	52.7	65.7
	31-60	110	26.5	26.7	92.4
	61-90	19	5.2	5.2	97.6
	91 +	10	2.3	2.4	100
Valid	Total	404	99.3	100	
Missing	System	3	0.7		
Total		407	100		

Do you have an assistant principal?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	No	282	69.3	69.5	69.5
	Yes, 1 assistant principal	92	22.6	22.7	92.1
	Yes, 2 assistant principals	21	5.2	5.2	97.3
	Yes, more than 2 assistant principals	11	2.7	2.7	100
Valid	Total	406	99.8	100	
Missing	System	1	0.2		
Total		407	100		

If you have an assistant principal, does he/she assist you in completing teacher evaluations?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Yes, my assistant principal(s) completes teacher evaluations	100	24.6	60.2	60.2
	No, my assistant principal(s) does not assist in completing	66	16.2	39.8	100
Valid	Total	166	40.8	100	
Missing	System	241	59.2		
Total		407	100		

If you have a designated building leader to assist you in the evaluation process, please state his/her role?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	No, I do not have a staff member to assist me in the teacher evaluation process	355	87.2	96.7	96.7
	Yes, I have a department head (staff member) to assist me in the teacher evaluation process	4	1.0	1.1	97.8
Valid	Yes, I have a curriculum coordinator (staff member) to assist me in	8	2.0	2.2	100

	the teacher evaluation process				
	Total	367	90.2	100	
Missing	System	40	9.8		
Total		426	100		

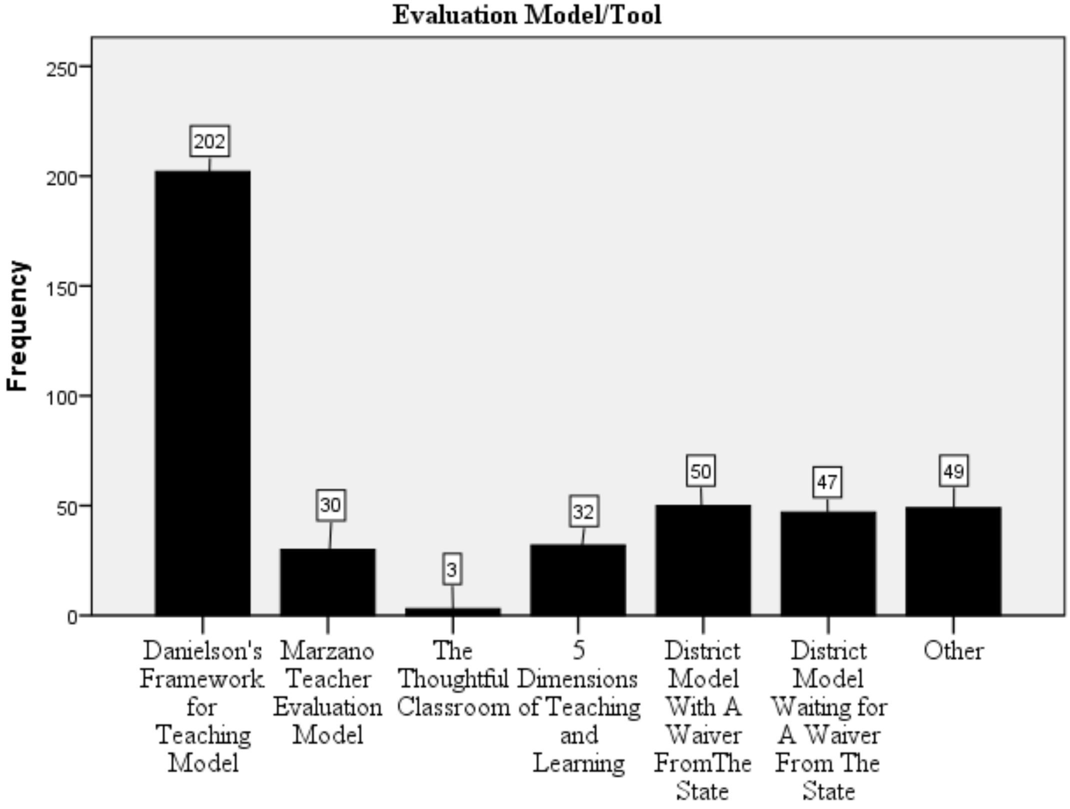
Are you a Focus or Priority School?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Yes	77	18.9	19.0	19.0
	No	327	80.3	80.7	99.8
	Missing	1	0.2	0.2	100
Valid	Total	405	99.5	100	
Missing	System	2	0.5		
Total		407	100		

Evaluation Model/Tool Currently Used

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Danielson's Framework for Teaching Model	190	46.7	48.2	48.2
	Marzano Teacher Evaluation Model	29	7.1	7.4	55.6
	The Thoughtful Classroom	3	0.7	0.8	56.3
	5 Dimensions of Teaching and Learning	29	7.1	7.4	63.7
	District Model With A Waiver From The	50	12.3	12.7	76.4

	State				
	District Model Waiting for A Waiver From The State	45	11.1	11.4	87.8
	Other	48	11.8	12.2	100
	Total	394	96.8	100	
Missing	System	13	3.2		
Total		407	100		



Have you received training for the state-approved evaluation model/tool or district model/tool employed?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	I have attended training from the vendor	95	23.3	24.1	24.1
	I have attended training within my district	185	45.5	46.8	70.9
	I am awaiting training for a model in the future	115	28.3	29.1	100
Valid	Total	395	97.1	100	
Missing	System	12	2.9		
Total		407	100		

	N		Mean	Median	Std. Deviation
	Valid	Missing			
Your teaching certification	420	6	1.8214	2.0000	.92899
Years of teaching experience	422	4	3.25	3.00	1.360
Academic/Administrative Credentials	422	4	1.72	2.00	.664
Building level of your principalship	367	59	2.57	3.00	1.606
Years as a principal	425	1	2.1812	2.0000	1.24105
Location of Your School	421	5	2.2565	2.0000	.70423
Size of Student Population in Your School	417	9	2.47	2.00	1.063

Size of Teaching Staff in Your School	423	3	2.3121	2.0000	.84988
Do you have an assistant principal?	425	1	1.4165	1.0000	.71587
If you have an assistant principal, does he/she assist you in completing teacher evaluations?	173	253	1.3873	1.0000	.48854
If you have a designated building leader to assist you in the evaluation process, please state his/her role?	382	44	1.0576	1.0000	.31884
Are you a Focus or Priority school?	424	2	1.82	2.00	.445
Danielson's Framework for Teaching Model	328	98	1.3537	1.0000	.47884
Marzano Teacher Evaluation Model	221	205	1.8281	2.0000	.37819
The Thoughtful Classroom	204	222	1.9804	2.0000	.13899
5 Dimensions of Teaching and Learning	221	205	1.8507	2.0000	.35721
District model with a waiver from the state	226	200	1.7345	2.0000	.44257
Have you received training for the state-approved evaluation model/tool or district model/tool employed?	414	12	3.558	4.000	1.5151

Appendix E

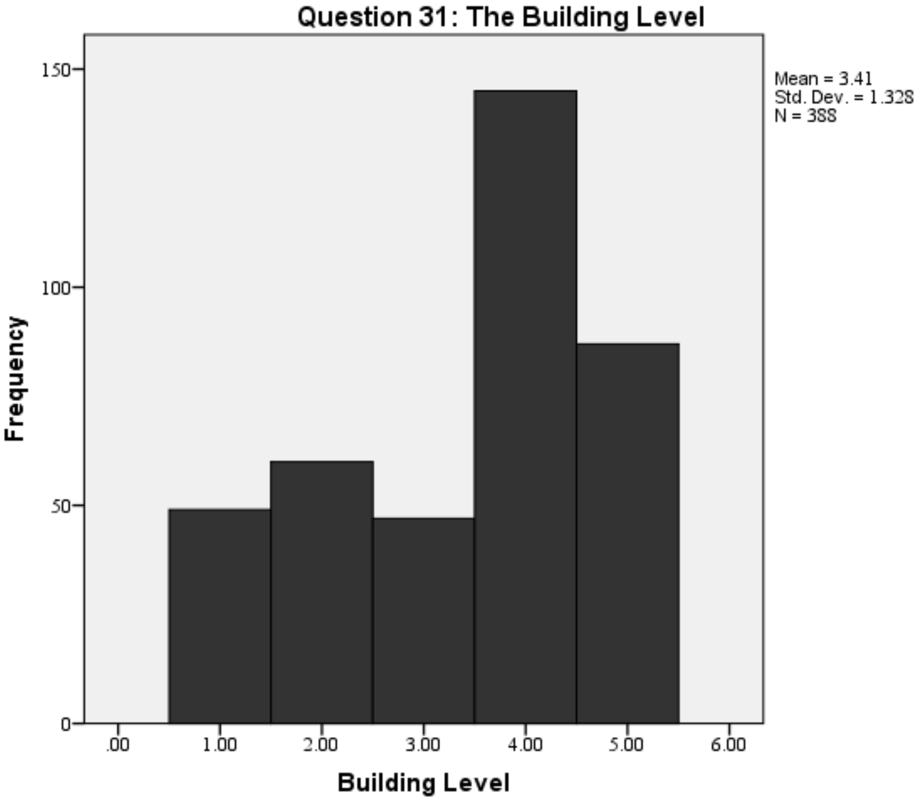
Frequency Tables and Corresponding Histograms
Voice of the Respondents Regarding Policy Formation or Implementation

Question 31: *As a member of a key stakeholder group with the charge of completing teacher evaluations, I had a voice during the educational policy formation at:*

	N				
	Valid	Missing	Mean	Median	Mode
The Building Level	388	38	3.4149	4.0000	4.00
The District Level	387	39	3.3152	4.0000	4.00
The State Level	387	39	1.5349	1.0000	1.00

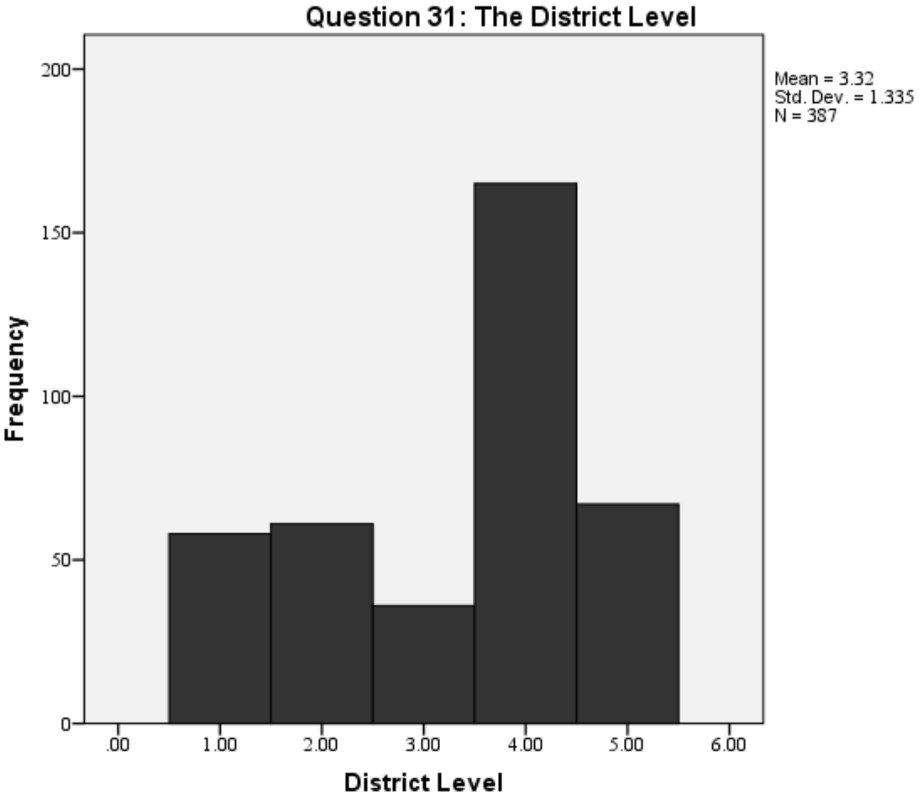
Question 31: The Building Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	49	11.5	12.6	12.6
	Disagree	60	14.1	15.5	28.1
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	47	11.0	12.1	40.2
	Agree	145	34.0	37.4	77.6
	Strongly Agree	87	20.4	22.4	100.0
	Total	388	91.1	100.0	
Missing	System	38	8.9		
Total		426	100.0		



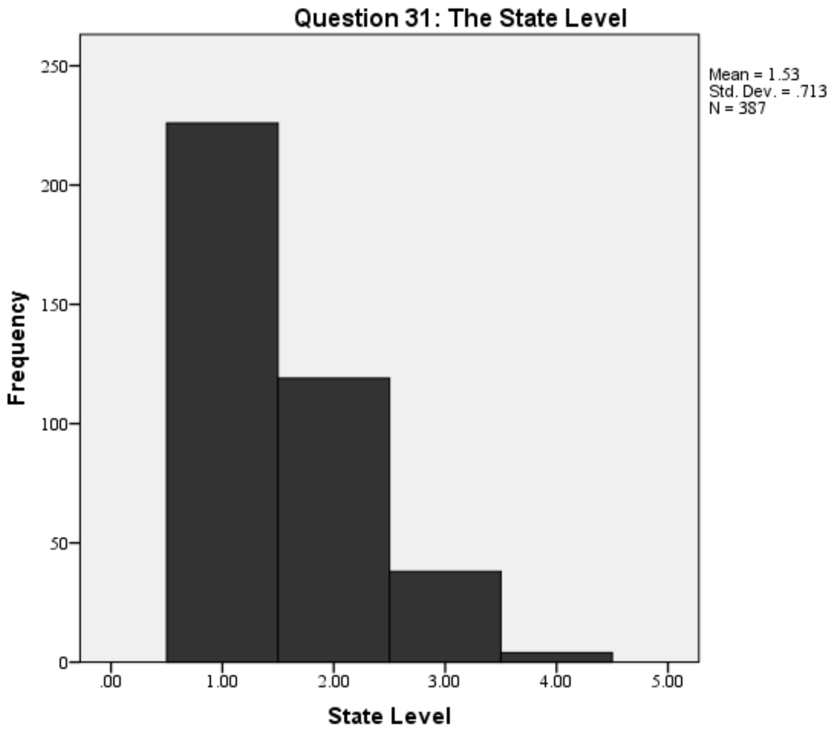
Question 31: The District Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	58	13.6	15.0	15.0
	Disagree	61	14.3	15.8	30.7
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	36	8.5	9.3	40.1
	Agree	165	38.7	42.6	82.7
	Strongly Agree	67	15.7	17.3	100.0
	Total	387	90.8	100.0	
Missing	System	39	9.2		
Total		426	100.0		



Question 31: The State Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	226	53.1	58.4	58.4
	Disagree	119	27.9	30.7	89.1
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	38	8.9	9.8	99.0
	Agree	4	.9	1.0	100.0
	Total	387	90.8	100.0	
Missing	System	39	9.2		
Total		426	100.0		

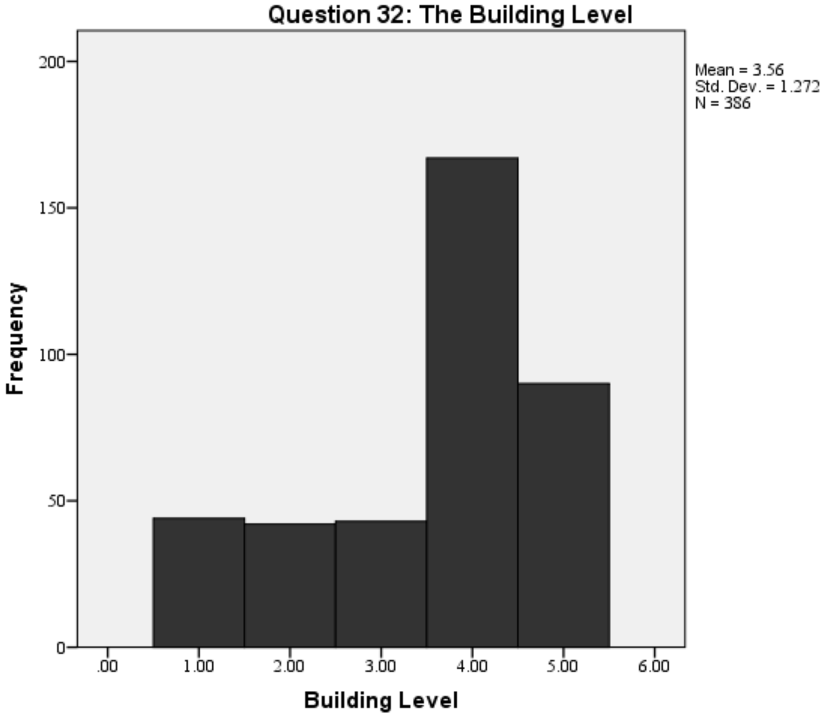


Question 32: As a member of a key stakeholder group with the charge of completing teacher evaluations, I had a voice during the educational policy implementation at:

	N				
	Valid	Missing	Mean	Median	Mode
The Building Level	386	40	3.5622	4.0000	4.00
The District Level	384	42	3.4036	4.0000	4.00
The State Level	382	44	1.5314	1.0000	1.00

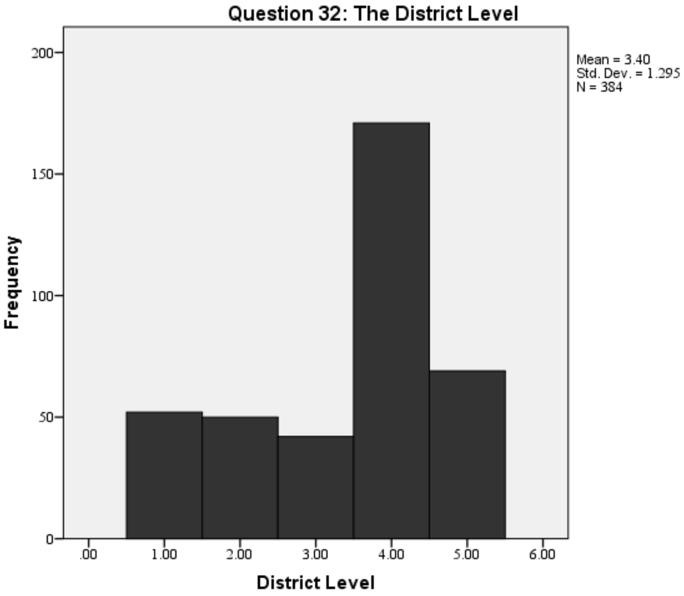
Question 32: The Building Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	44	10.3	11.4	11.4
	Disagree	42	9.9	10.9	22.3
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	43	10.1	11.1	33.4
	Agree	167	39.2	43.3	76.7
	Strongly Agree	90	21.1	23.3	100.0
	Total	386	90.6	100.0	
Missing	System	40	9.4		
Total		426	100.0		



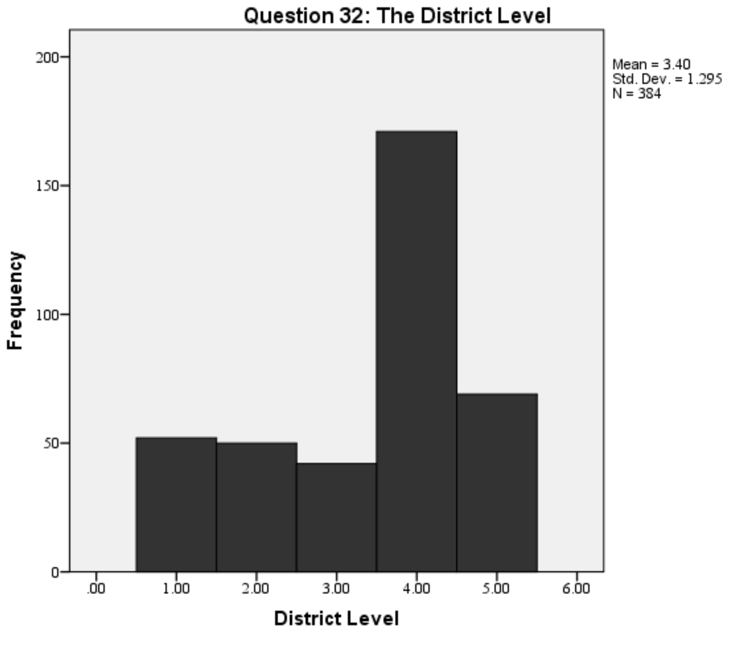
Question 32: The District Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	52	12.2	13.5	13.5
	Disagree	50	11.7	13.0	26.6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	42	9.9	10.9	37.5
	Agree	171	40.1	44.5	82.0
	Strongly Agree	69	16.2	18.0	100.0
	Total	384	90.1	100.0	
Missing	System	42	9.9		
Total		426	100.0		



Question 32: The State Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	223	52.3	58.4	58.4
	Disagree	118	27.7	30.9	89.3
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	38	8.9	9.9	99.2
	Agree	3	.7	.8	100.0
	Total	382	89.7	100.0	
Missing	System	44	10.3		
Total		426	100.0		



Appendix F

Pearson *r* Correlations Between Voice in Formation and Implementation and Stress/Time, Self-Efficacy and Job Satisfaction

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Sum of voice formation/implementation	2.5067	1.72679	373
Stress/Time	3.11	0.361	391

Correlations

		Sum of voice formation/implementation	Stress/Time
Sum of voice formation/implementation	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.016
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.755
	N	373	373
Stress/Time	Pearson Correlation	-0.016	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.755	
	N	373	391

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Sum of voice formation/implementation	2.5067	1.72679	373
Self-Efficacy	3.5	0.559	391

Correlations

		Sum of voice formation/implementation	Self-Efficacy
Sum of voice formation/implementation	Pearson Correlation	1	.206**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0
	N	373	373
Self-Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.206**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	

	N	373	391

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Sum of voice formation/implementation	2.5067	1.72679	373
Job Satisfaction	3.36	10.548	391

Correlations

		Job Satisfaction	Sum of voice formation/implementation
Sum of voice formation/implementation	Pearson Correlation	0.1	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.054	
	N	373	373
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	1	0.1
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.054
	N	391	373

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Sum of voice formation/implementation	2.5067	1.72679	373
Self-Efficacy	3.5	0.559	391

Correlations

		Sum of voice formation/implementation	SelfEfficacy
Sum of voice formation/implementation	Pearson Correlation	1	.206**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0
	N	373	373
SelfEfficacy	Pearson Correlation	.206**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	
	N	373	391

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Sum of voice formation/implementation	2.5067	1.72679	373
Stress/Time	3.11	0.361	391

Correlations

		Sum of voice formation/implementation	Stress/Time
Sum of voice formation/implementation	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.016
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.755
	N	373	373
Stress/Time	Pearson Correlation	-0.016	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.755	
	N	373	391

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Job Satisfaction	3.36	0.548	391
Self-Efficacy	3.5	0.559	391
Stress/Time	3.11	0.361	391
Formation Voice Building Level	0.5995	0.49064	387
Formation Voice District Level	0.601	0.49032	386

Correlations

		Job Satisfaction	Self-Efficacy	Stress/Time	Formation Voice Building Level	Formation Voice District Level
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	1	.250**	.134**	.122*	.129*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0	0.008	0.017	0.011
	N	391	391	391	387	386
Self-Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.250**	1	.214**	.144**	.168**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0		0	0.004	0.001
	N	391	391	391	387	386
Stress/Time	Pearson Correlation	.134**	.214**	1	-0.01	-0.026
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.008	0		0.838	0.604
	N	391	391	391	387	386
Formation Voice Building Level	Pearson Correlation	.122*	.144**	-0.01	1	.800**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.017	0.004	0.838		0
	N	387	387	387	387	386
Formation Voice District Level	Pearson Correlation	.129*	.168**	-0.026	.800**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.011	0.001	0.604	0	
	N	386	386	386	386	386

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Job Satisfaction	3.36	0.548	391
Formation Voice Building Level	0.5995	0.49064	387
Formation Voice District Level	0.601	0.49032	386

Correlations

		Job Satisfaction	Formation Voice Building Level	Formation Voice District Level
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	1	.122*	.129*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.017	0.011
	N	391	387	386
Formation Voice Building Level	Pearson Correlation	.122*	1	.800**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.017		0
	N	387	387	386
Formation Voice District Level	Pearson Correlation	.129*	.800**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.011	0	
	N	386	386	386

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Formation Voice Building Level	0.5995	0.49064	387
Formation Voice District Level	0.601	0.49032	386
Self-Efficacy	3.5	0.559	391

Correlations

		Formation Voice Building Level	Formation Voice District Level	Self-Efficacy
Formation Voice Building Level	Pearson Correlation	1	.800**	.144**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0	0.004
	N	387	386	387
Formation Voice District Level	Pearson Correlation	.800**	1	.168**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0		0.001
	N	386	386	386
Self-Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.144**	.168**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.004	0.001	
	N	387	386	391

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Formation Voice Building Level	0.5995	0.49064	387
Formation Voice District Level	0.601	0.49032	386
Stress/Time	3.11	0.361	391

Correlations

		Formation Voice Building Level	Formation Voice District Level	Stress/Time
Formation Voice Building Level	Pearson Correlation	1	.800**	-0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0	0.838
	N	387	386	387
Formation Voice District Level	Pearson Correlation	.800**	1	-0.026
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0		0.604
	N	386	386	386
StressTime	Pearson Correlation	-0.01	-0.026	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.838	0.604	
	N	387	386	391

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Implementation Voice Building Level	0.6675	0.47171	385
Implementation Voice District Level	0.6266	0.48433	383
Job Satisfaction	3.36	0.548	391
Self-Efficacy	3.5	0.559	391
Stress/Time	3.11	0.361	391

Correlations

		Implementation Voice Building Level	Implementation Voice District Level	Job Satisfaction	Self-Efficacy	Stress/ Time
Implementation Voice Building Level	Pearson Correlation	1	.803**	0.091	.203**	0.013
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0	0.073	0	0.794
	N	385	382	385	385	385
Implementation Voice District Level	Pearson Correlation	.803**	1	0.082	.217**	-0.029
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0		0.111	0	0.569
	N	382	383	383	383	383
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	0.091	0.082	1	.250**	.134**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.073	0.111		0	0.008
	N	385	383	391	391	391
Self-Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.203**	.217**	.250**	1	.214**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0	0		0
	N	385	383	391	391	391
Stress/Time	Pearson Correlation	0.013	-0.029	.134**	.214**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.794	0.569	0.008	0	
	N	385	383	391	391	391

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Voice of Principals in Formation and Implementation of Policy

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Formation Voice Building Level	387	0.00	1.00	232.00	.5995	.49064
Formation Voice District Level	386	0.00	1.00	232.00	.6010	.49032
Formation Voice State Level	386	0.00	1.00	4.00	.0104	.10140

Implementation Voice Building Level	385	0.00	1.00	257.00	.6675	.47171
Implementation Voice District Level	383	0.00	1.00	240.00	.6266	.48433
Implementation Voice State Level	381	0.00	1.00	3.00	.0079	.08850
Valid N (listwise)	373					

Sum of Voice in Formation and Implementation

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Sum of Voice Formation/Implementation	373	0.00	6.00	2.5067	1.72679
Valid N (listwise)	373				

Appendix G

Frequency Tables for
Roles of Principal Time Allotment: Item 33

Question 33: Please respond by rating the number of hours per day you fulfill each role as a principal.

Question 33: Please respond by rating the number of hours per day you fulfill each role as a principal.

	N				
	Valid	Missing	Mean	Median	Mode
Instructional Leader	387	39	1.6400	1.0000	1.00
Building Manager	386	40	2.7200	3.0000	2.00
Policy Implementer	384	42	1.6500	1.0000	1.00

Question 33: Instructional Leader

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-2 Hours	232	54.5	59.9	59.9
	3-4 Hours	102	23.9	26.4	86.3
	5-6 Hours	31	7.3	8.0	94.3
	7-8 Hours	6	1.4	1.6	95.9
	More Than 8 Hours	16	3.8	4.1	100.0
	Total	387	90.8	100.0	
Missing	System	39	9.2		
Total		426	100.0		

Question 33: Building Manager

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-2 Hours	45	10.6	11.7	11.7
	3-4 Hours	140	32.9	36.3	47.9
	5-6 Hours	117	27.5	30.3	78.2
	7-8 Hours	47	11.0	12.2	90.4
	More Than 8 Hours	37	8.7	9.6	100.0
	Total	386	90.6	100.0	
Missing	System	40	9.4		
Total		426	100.0		

Question 33: Policy Implementer

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-2 Hours	215	50.5	56.0	56.0
	3-4 Hours	117	27.5	30.5	86.5
	5-6 Hours	34	8.0	8.9	95.3
	7-8 Hours	9	2.1	2.3	97.7
	More Than 8 Hours	9	2.1	2.3	100.0
	Total	384	90.1	100.0	
Missing	System	42	9.9		
Total		426	100.0		

Appendix H

Frequency Tables for
Ranking Order of Role Importance: Item 34

Question 34: Please rank order the importance you place on each role.

	N Valid	N Missing	Mean	Median	Mode
Instructional Leader	389	37	1.1131	1.0000	1.00
Building Manager	389	37	2.1028	2.0000	2.00
Policy Implementer	390	36	2.5205	3.0000	3.00

Question 34: Instructional Leader

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1: Most Important	348	81.7	89.5	89.5
	2: Important	38	8.9	9.8	99.2
	3: Less Important	3	.7	.8	100.0
	Total	389	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	37	8.7		
Total		426	100.0		

Question 34: Building Manager

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1: Most Important	52	12.2	13.4	13.4
	2: Important	245	57.5	63.0	76.3
	3: Less Important	92	21.6	23.7	100.0
	Total	389	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	37	8.7		
Total		426	100.0		

Question 34: Policy Implementer

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1: Most Important	16	3.8	4.1	4.1
	2: Important	155	36.4	39.7	43.8
	3: Less Important	219	51.4	56.2	100.0
	Total	390	91.5	100.0	
Missing	System	36	8.5		
Total		426	100.0		

Appendix I

Regression Analysis for Demographics and Knowledge of the Law
Research Question 3

Descriptives

Knowledge

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Male	175	5.9943	1.46804	.11097	5.7753	6.2133	2.00	9.00
Female	199	6.2965	1.40976	.09993	6.0994	6.4936	2.00	10.00
Transgender	1	6.0000					6.00	6.00
Total	375	6.1547	1.44139	.07443	6.0083	6.3010	2.00	10.00

ANOVA

Knowledge

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.528	2	4.264	2.064	.128
Within Groups	768.502	372	2.066		
Total	777.029	374			

Descriptives

Knowledge

					95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Black	25	5.8400	1.43411	.28682	5.2480	6.4320	3.00	9.00
Amer Indian	2	5.0000	0.00000	0.00000	5.0000	5.0000	5.00	5.00
Hispanic	1	6.0000					6.00	6.00
White	347	6.1844	1.44474	.07756	6.0319	6.3370	2.00	10.00
Total	375	6.1547	1.44139	.07443	6.0083	6.3010	2.00	10.00

ANOVA

Knowledge

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.473	3	1.824	.877	.453
Within Groups	771.556	371	2.080		
Total	777.029	374			

Descriptives

Knowledge

					95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
1-5 years	42	6.3333	1.55652	.24018	5.8483	6.8184	3.00	10.00
6-10 years	84	5.9048	1.29521	.14132	5.6237	6.1858	2.00	9.00
11-15 years	84	6.2619	1.62153	.17692	5.9100	6.6138	2.00	9.00
16-20 years	58	6.1897	1.33057	.17471	5.8398	6.5395	3.00	9.00
Over 20	103	6.2136	1.41872	.13979	5.9363	6.4909	3.00	10.00

years								
Total	371	6.1644	1.44350	.07494	6.0171	6.3118	2.00	10.00

ANOVA

Knowledge

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7.946	4	1.987	.953	.433
Within Groups	763.024	366	2.085		
Total	770.970	370			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Knowledge
Tukey HSD

(I) Years of teaching experience		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-5 years	6-10 years	.42857	.27287	.517	-.3195	1.1766
	11-15 years	.07143	.27287	.999	-.6766	.8195
	16-20 years	.14368	.29254	.988	-.6583	.9457
	Over 20 years	.11974	.26434	.991	-.6049	.8444
6-10 years	1-5 years	-.42857	.27287	.517	-1.1766	.3195
	11-15 years	-.35714	.22279	.496	-.9679	.2536
	16-20 years	-.28489	.24650	.776	-.9607	.3909
	Over 20 years	-.30883	.21227	.593	-.8908	.2731
11-15 years	1-5 years	-.07143	.27287	.999	-.8195	.6766
	6-10 years	.35714	.22279	.496	-.2536	.9679
	16-20 years	.07225	.24650	.998	-.6035	.7480
	Over 20 years	.04831	.21227	.999	-.5336	.6302
16-20 years	1-5 years	-.14368	.29254	.988	-.9457	.6583
	6-10 years	.28489	.24650	.776	-.3909	.9607

	11-15 years	-.07225	.24650	.998	-.7480	.6035
	Over 20 years	-.02394	.23703	1.000	-.6737	.6259
Over 20 years	1-5 years	-.11974	.26434	.991	-.8444	.6049
	6-10 years	.30883	.21227	.593	-.2731	.8908
	11-15 years	-.04831	.21227	.999	-.6302	.5336
	16-20 years	.02394	.23703	1.000	-.6259	.6737

Knowledge

Tukey HSD

Years of teaching experience	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
6-10 years	84	5.9048
16-20 years	58	6.1897
Over 20 years	103	6.2136
11-15 years	84	6.2619
1-5 years	42	6.3333
Sig.		0.424

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 67.052.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Descriptives

Knowledge

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Masters/Specialist/doctorate in a leadership program	140	6.0929	1.49770	.12658	5.8426	6.3431	3.00	9.00
Administrative Certification	209	6.2344	1.42693	.09870	6.0399	6.4290	2.00	10.00
Currently Enrolled in a Program	15	5.7333	1.22280	.31573	5.0562	6.4105	4.00	8.00
Alternate Route Participant	8	6.0000	1.19523	.42258	5.0008	6.9992	4.00	7.00
Total	372	6.1559	1.44154	.07474	6.0089	6.3029	2.00	10.00

ANOVA

Knowledge

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.719	3	1.573	.755	.520
Within Groups	766.238	368	2.082		
Total	770.957	371			

Knowledge

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
1-5 years	148	6.3176	1.40957	.11587	6.0886	6.5465	3.00	9.00
6-10 years	107	6.1589	1.27494	.12325	5.9145	6.4032	2.00	9.00
11-15 years	60	6.1167	1.72805	.22309	5.6703	6.5631	2.00	10.00
16-20 years	34	5.4412	1.48101	.25399	4.9244	5.9579	3.00	9.00
Over 20 years	25	6.2400	1.33167	.26633	5.6903	6.7897	3.00	9.00
Total	374	6.1551	1.44330	.07463	6.0083	6.3018	2.00	10.00

ANOVA

Knowledge

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	21.506	4	5.377	2.626	.034
Within Groups	755.499	369	2.047		
Total	777.005	373			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Finalsumofrecodequestions

Tukey HSD

(I) Years as a principal		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1-5 years	6-10 years	.15869	.18157	.906	-.3391	.6564
	11-15 years	.20090	.21899	.890	-.3994	.8012
	16-20 years	.87639*	.27213	.012	.1304	1.6224
	Over 20 years	.07757	.30940	.999	-.7706	.9257
6-10 years	1-5 years	-.15869	.18157	.906	-.6564	.3391
	11-15 years	.04221	.23078	1.000	-.5904	.6748
	16-20 years	.71770	.28170	.083	-.0545	1.4899
	Over 20 years	-.08112	.31785	.999	-.9525	.7902
11-15 years	1-5 years	-.20090	.21899	.890	-.8012	.3994
	6-10 years	-.04221	.23078	1.000	-.6748	.5904
	16-20 years	.67549	.30715	.182	-.1665	1.5175
	Over 20 years	-.12333	.34062	.996	-1.0571	.8104
16-20	1-5	-.87639*	.27213	.012	-1.6224	-.1304

years	years					
	6-10 years	-.71770	.28170	.083	-1.4899	.0545
	11-15 years	-.67549	.30715	.182	-1.5175	.1665
	Over 20 years	-.79882	.37698	.214	-1.8322	.2346
Over 20 years	1-5 years	-.07757	.30940	.999	-.9257	.7706
	6-10 years	.08112	.31785	.999	-.7902	.9525
	11-15 years	.12333	.34062	.996	-.8104	1.0571
	16-20 years	.79882	.37698	.214	-.2346	1.8322

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Knowledge

Tukey HSD

Years as a principal	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05 1	2
16-20 years	34	5.4412	
11-15 years	60	6.1167	6.1167
6-10 years	107	6.1589	6.1589
Over 20 years	25		6.2400
1-5 years	148		6.3176
Sig.		.097	.958

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 48.933.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Appendix J

Recoded Items for Policy Implementation

The following items were recoded and combined to create a variable for policy implementation:

When I am completing an evaluation, I:
17. feel confident using the new technology/software. 1 2 3 4 5

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

18. I am confident I am meeting all the requirements of the new teacher evaluation policy. 1 2 3 4 5

19. I feel comfortable meeting the deadlines necessary for the evaluation process. 1 2 3 4 5

20. I feel confident implementing the new teacher evaluation policy due to successfully completing previous teacher evaluations. 1 2 3 4 5

24. I believe the Michigan legislature considered the role principals play in the implementation of this new evaluation policy. 1 2 3 4 5

25. I believe I need additional training on implementing the new teacher evaluation policy. 1 2 3 4 5

27. I feel confident that with the amount of training I have received, I can successfully complete the evaluation process. 1 2 3 4 5

30. I am confident I have received adequate training on the new teacher evaluation 1 2 3 4 5

Appendix K
Knowledge Items: Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Charts
Graphic Representation of Items
Histograms and Normal Distributions
Test for Skew and Kurtosis

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Evaluating teacher performance should include teacher practice and student growth.	388	1.00	5.00	4.2474	.83255
Valid N (listwise)	388				

Minimum Maximum Mean Std. Deviation
Evaluating teacher performance should include teacher practice and student growth. 388
1.00 5.00 4.2474 .83255
Valid N (listwise) 388

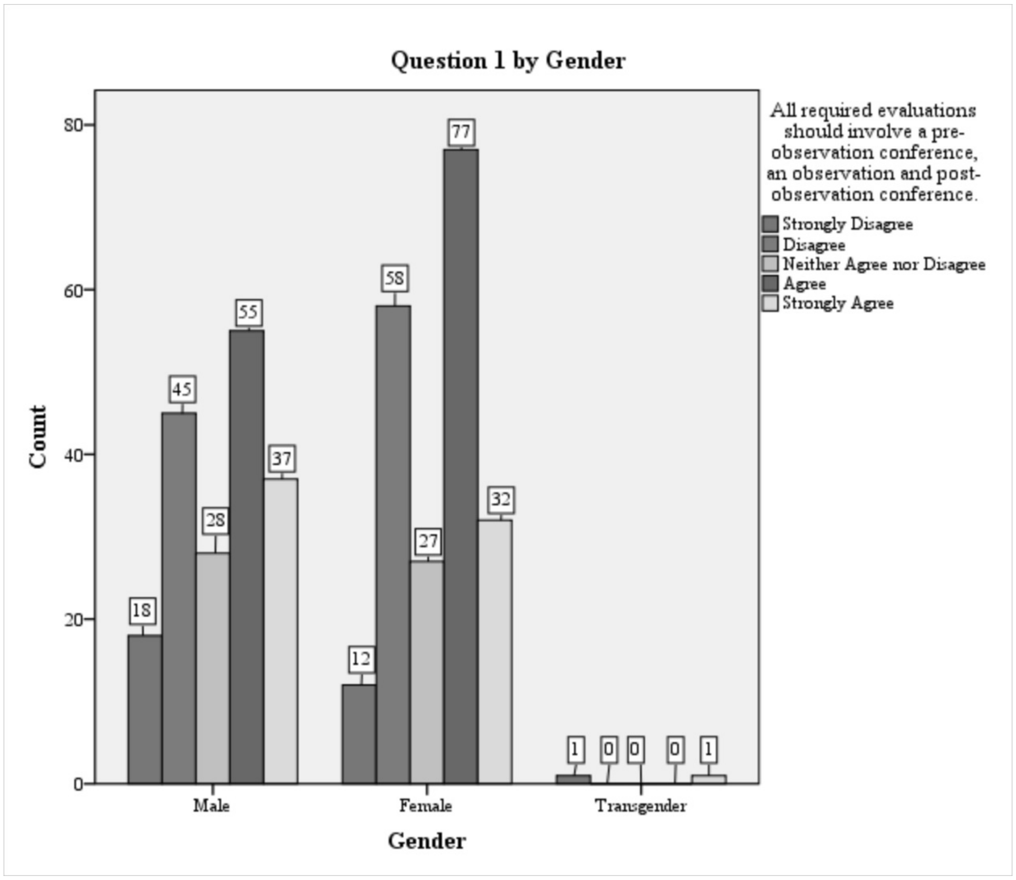
Descriptive Statistics

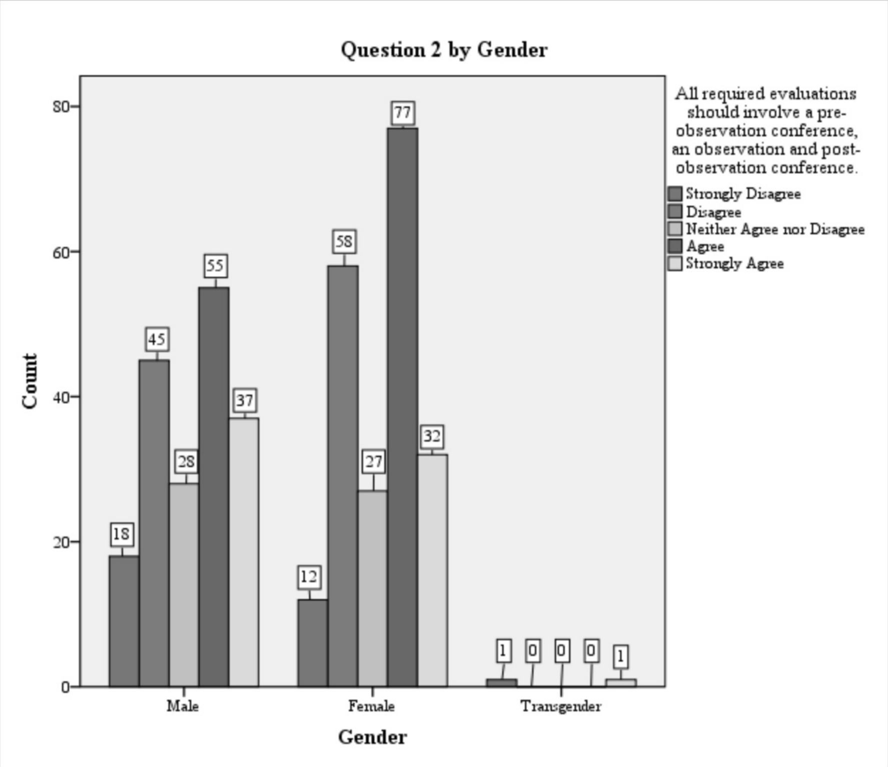
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Evaluating teacher performance should include teacher practice and student growth.	388	1.00	5.00	4.2474	.83255
All required evaluations should involve a pre-observation conference, an observation and post-observation conference.	391	1.00	5.00	3.2737	1.25035
Every year, teachers must be observed/evaluated three times.	391	1.00	5.00	2.5371	1.14490

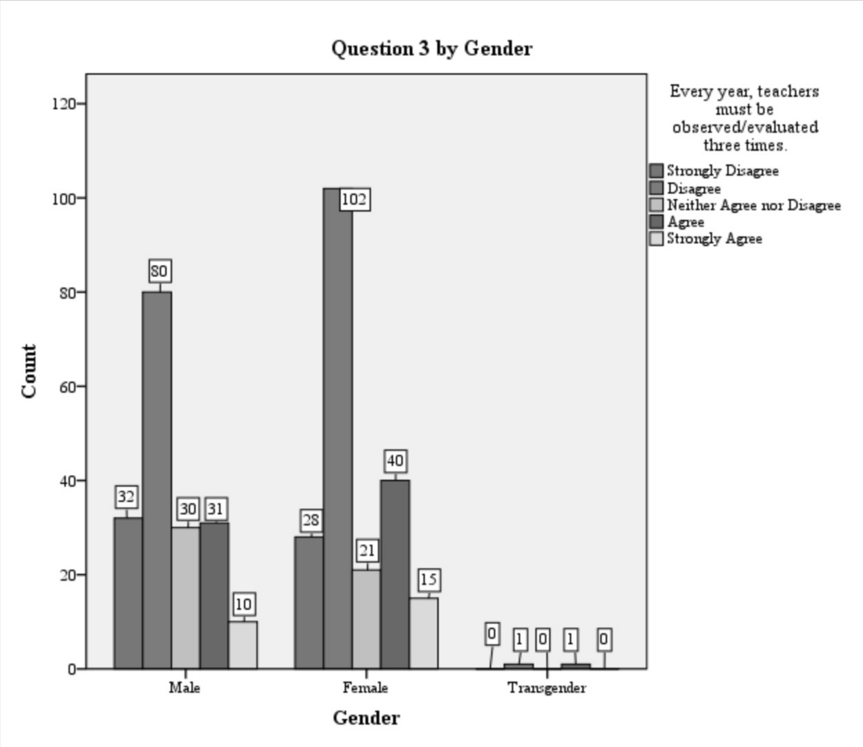
All observations should last an entire class period.	386	1.00	5.00	2.4301	1.13345
Recommended evaluation ratings should indicate professional, provisional, or ineffective.	391	1.00	5.00	3.1355	1.14334
If a teacher earns an ineffective rating, he/she has the right to request a review by the superintendent, intermediate superintendent or the chief operating officer.	391	1.00	5.00	3.3683	1.02653
Student growth refers to a change of students' knowledge and skill across a school year.	390	1.00	5.00	4.0051	.68022
Once a teacher is rated the highest ranking, he/she only needs to be evaluated every other year.	390	1.00	5.00	3.3077	1.27370
One factor of principal evaluations should include whether he/she has complied in completing teacher evaluations.	389	1.00	5.00	3.9846	.74941
The Michigan Department of Education will have full control in re-designing the teacher evaluation process.	387	1.00	5.00	2.1860	1.05620
Valid N (listwise)	376				

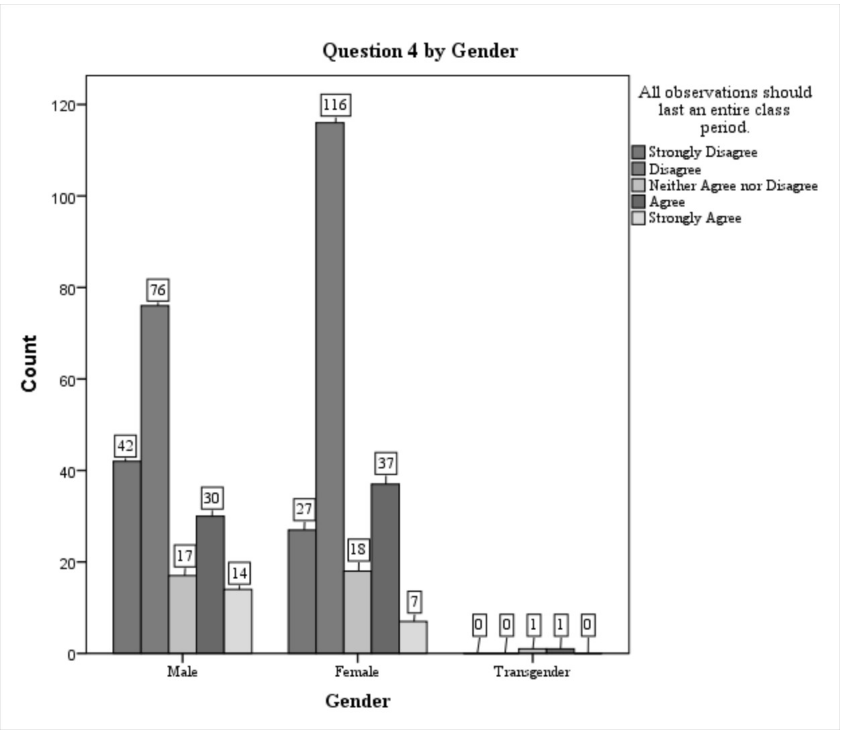
Case Processing Summary

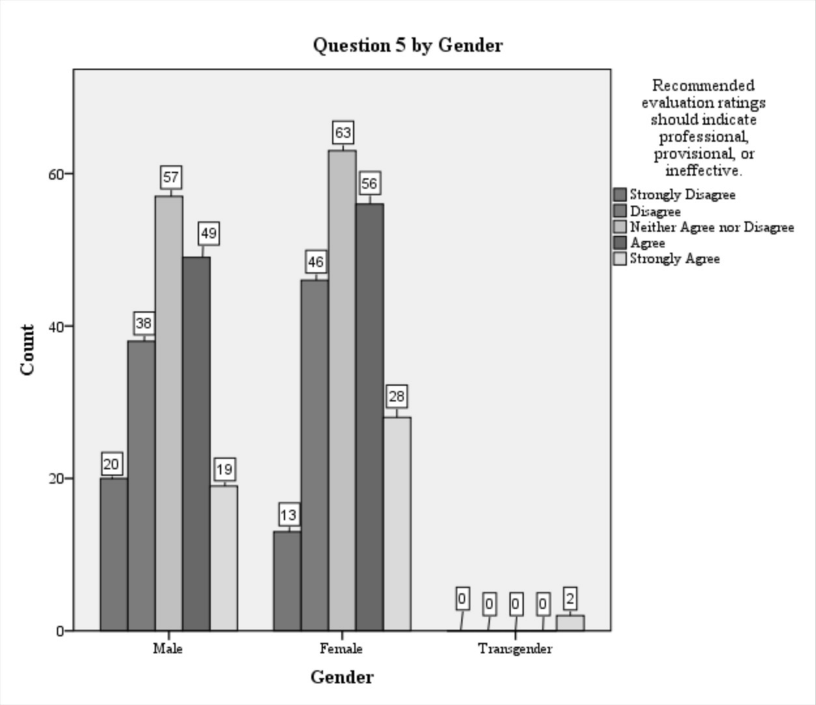
	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Gender * All required evaluations should involve a pre-observation conference, an observation and post-observation conference.	391	91.8%	35	8.2%	426	100.0%

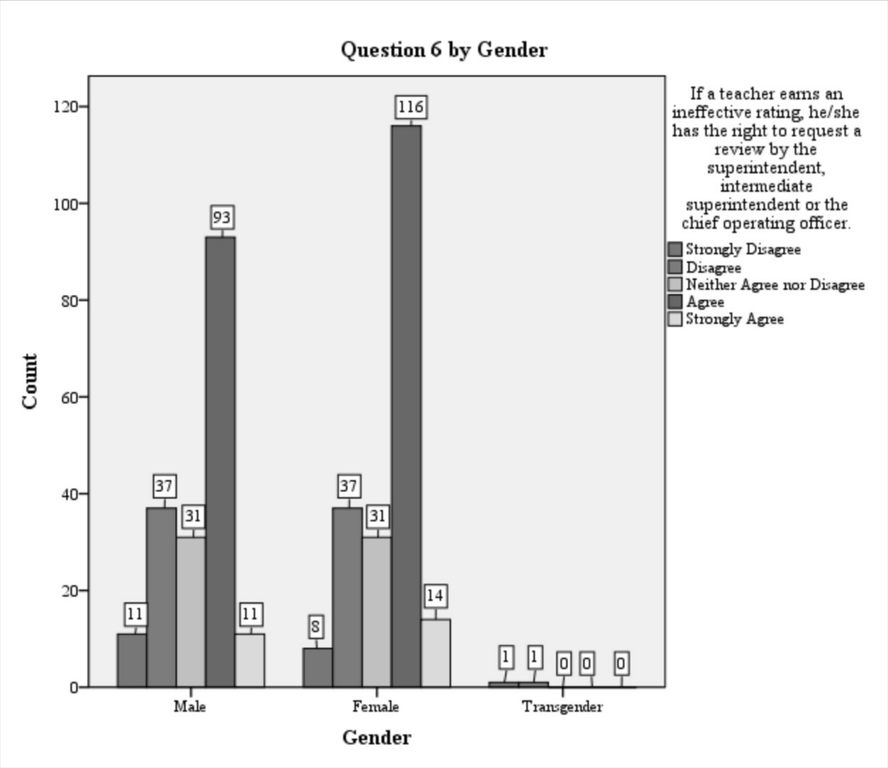


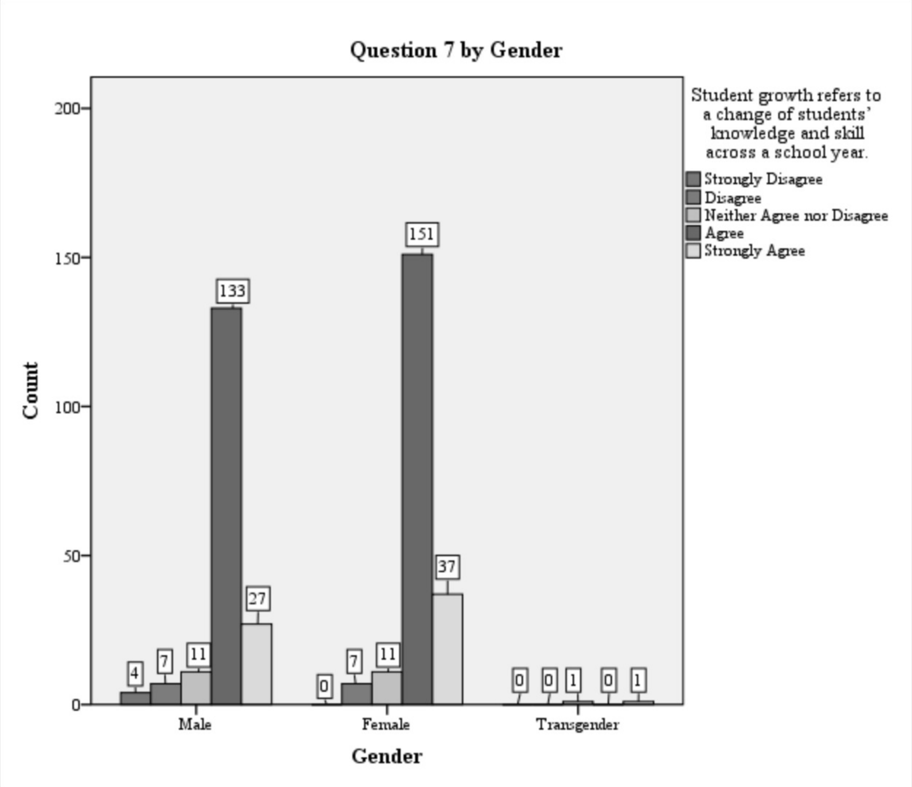

Question 2 by Gender
Count
0
20
40
60
80
18
45
28
55
37
12
58
27
77
32
1
0
0
0
1
Male
Female
Transgender
Gender
All required evaluations should involve a pre-observation conference, an observation and post-observation conference.
Strongly Disagree
Disagree
Neither Agree nor Disagree
Agree
Strongly Agree

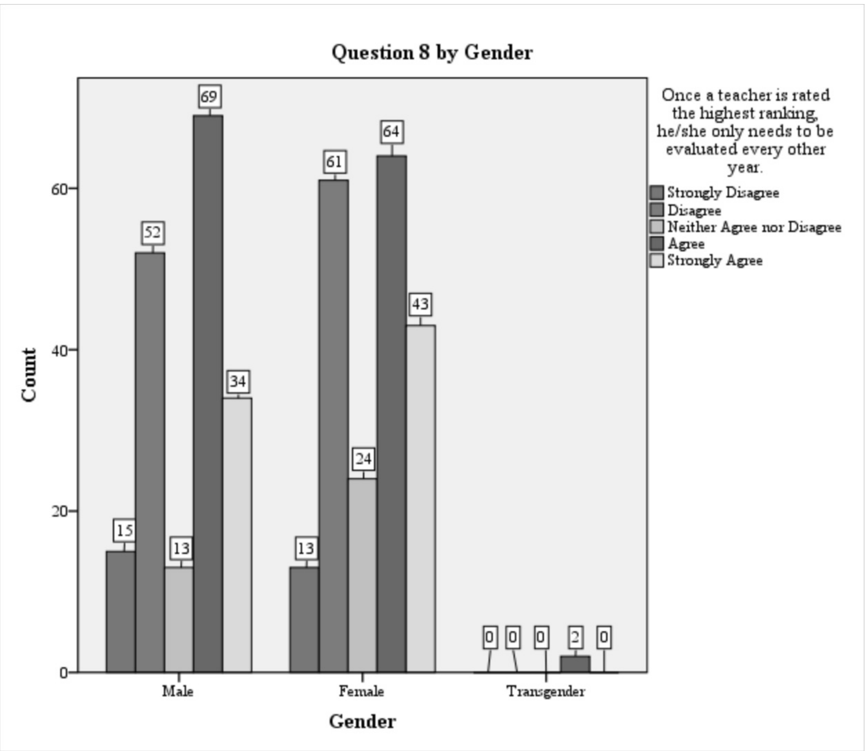

Question 3 by Gender
Count
0
20
40
60
80
100
120
32
80
30
31
10
28
102
21
40
15
0
1
0
1
0
Male
Female
Transgender
Gender
Every year, teachers must be observed/evaluated three times.
Strongly Disagree
Disagree
Neither Agree nor Disagree
Agree
Strongly Agree

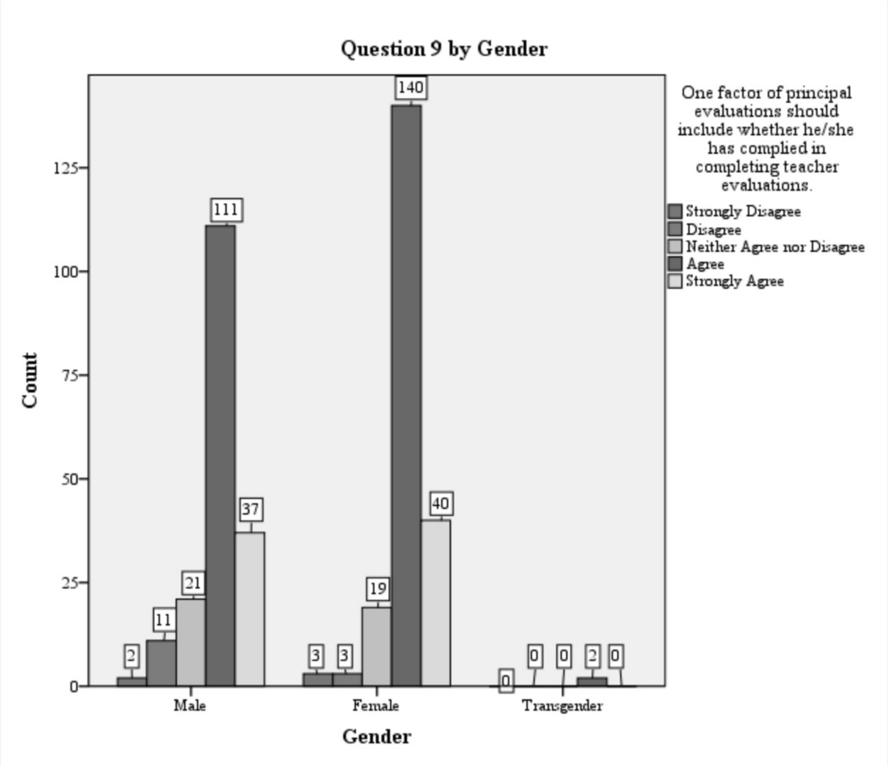

Question 4 by Gender
All observations should last an entire class period.
Strongly Disagree
Disagree
Neither Agree nor Disagree
Agree
Strongly Agree
Count
0
20
40
60
80
100
120
42
76
17
30
14
27
116
18
37
7
0
0
1
1
0
Male
Female
Transgender
Gender


Question 5 by Gender
Recommended evaluation ratings should indicate professional, provisional, or ineffective.
Strongly Disagree
Disagree
Neither Agree nor Disagree
Agree
Strongly Agree
Count
0
20
40
60
20
38
57
49
19
13
46
63
56
28
0
0
0
0
2
Male
Female
Transgender
Gender


Question 6 by Gender
Count
0
20
40
60
80
100
120
11
37
31
93
11
8
37
31
116
14
1
1
0
0
0
Male
Female
Transgender
Gender
If a teacher earns an ineffective rating, he/she has the right to request a review by the superintendent, intermediate superintendent or the chief operating officer.
Strongly Disagree
Disagree
Neither Agree nor Disagree
Agree
Strongly Agree


Question 7 by Gender
Count
0
50
100
150
200
4
7
11
133
27
0
7
11
151
37
0
0
1
0
1
Male
Female
Transgender
Gender
Student growth refers to a change of students' knowledge and skill across a school year.
Strongly Disagree
Disagree
Neither Agree nor Disagree
Agree
Strongly Agree


Question 8 by Gender
Once a teacher is rated the highest ranking, he/she only needs to be evaluated every other year.
Strongly Disagree
Disagree
Neither Agree nor Disagree
Agree
Strongly Agree
Count
0
20
40
60
15
52
13
69
34
13
61
24
64
43
0
0
0
2
0
Male
Female
Transgender
Gender


Question 9 by Gender
One factor of principal evaluations should include whether he/she has complied in completing teacher evaluations.
Strongly Disagree
Disagree
Neither Agree nor Disagree
Agree
Strongly Agree
Count
0
25
50
75
100
125
2
11
21
111
37
3
3
19
140
40
0
0
0
2
0
Male
Female
Transgender
Gender

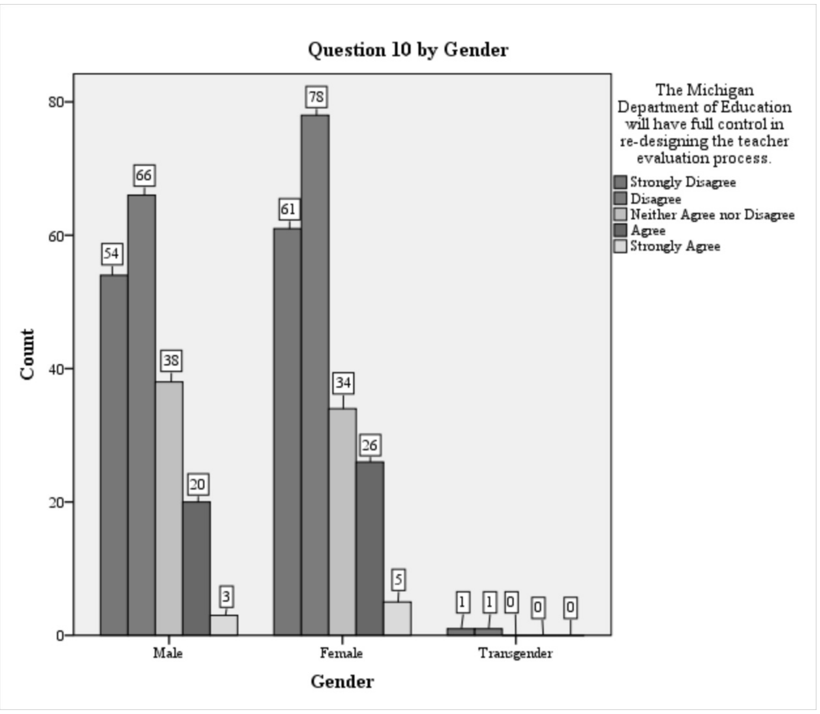

Question 10 by Gender
Count
80
60
40
20
0
54
66
38
20
3
61
78
34
26
5
1
1
0
0
0
Male
Female
Transgender
Gender
The Michigan Department of Education will have full control in re-designing the teacher evaluation process.
Strongly Disagree
Disagree
Neither Agree nor Disagree
Agree
Strongly Agree

Chart of Descriptives for all demographic variables

Statistics

	N		Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Deviation	Variance	Range
	Valid	Missing						
Gender	426	0	1.54	2.00	2	.509	.259	2
race	426	0	5.65	6.00	6	1.268	1.607	5
Your teaching certification	420	6	1.8214	2.0000	1.00	.92899	.863	3.00
Years of teaching experience	422	4	3.25	3.00	5	1.360	1.849	4
Academic/Administrative Credentials	422	4	1.72	2.00	2	.664	.440	3
Building level of your principalship	367	59	2.57	3.00	1	1.606	2.579	5
Years as a principal	425	1	2.1812	2.0000	1.00	1.24105	1.540	4.00
Location of Your School	421	5	2.2565	2.0000	2.00	.70423	.496	2.00
Size of Student Population in Your School	417	9	2.47	2.00	2	1.063	1.130	4
Size of Teaching Staff in Your School	423	3	2.3121	2.0000	2.00	.84988	.722	4.00
Do you have an assistant principal?	425	1	1.4165	1.0000	1.00	.71587	.512	3.00
If you have an assistant principal, does he/she assist you in completing teacher evaluations?	173	253	1.3873	1.0000	1.00	.48854	.239	1.00
If you have a designated building leader to assist you in the evaluation process, please state his/her role?	382	44	1.0576	1.0000	1.00	.31884	.102	2.00
Are you a Focus or Priority school?	424	2	1.82	2.00	2	.445	.198	5

Have you received training for the state-approved evaluation model/tool or district model/tool employed?	414	12	3.5580	4.0000	4.00	1.51514	2.296	4.00

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	200	46.9	46.9	46.9
	Female	224	52.6	52.6	99.5
	Transgender	2	.5	.5	100.0
	Total	426	100.0	100.0	

Race/Ethnicity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Black	28	6.6	6.6	6.6
	American Indian	2	.5	.5	7.0
	Hispanic	1	.2	.2	7.3
	White	395	92.7	92.7	100.0
	Total	426	100.0	100.0	

Principal's Teaching Certification

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Elementary (K-8)	184	43.2	43.8	43.8
	Secondary (8-12)	168	39.4	40.0	83.8
	K-12 Non-Core or Elective	27	6.3	6.4	90.2
	Special Education	41	9.6	9.8	100.0
	Total	420	98.6	100.0	
Missing	System	6	1.4		
Total		426	100.0		

Years of Teaching Experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-5 years	45	10.6	10.7	10.7
	6-10 years	100	23.5	23.7	34.4
	11-15 years	98	23.0	23.2	57.6
	16-20 years	64	15.0	15.2	72.7
	Over 20 years	115	27.0	27.3	100.0
	Total	422	99.1	100.0	
Missing	System	4	.9		
Total		426	100.0		

Academic/Administrative Credentials

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Masters/Specialist/Doctorate in a Leadership Program	158	37.1	37.4	37.4
	Administrative Certification	236	55.4	55.9	93.4
	Currently Enrolled in a Program	17	4.0	4.0	97.4
	Alternate Route Participant	11	2.6	2.6	100.0
	Total	422	99.1	100.0	
Missing	System	4	.9		
Total		426	100.0		

Building level of your principalship

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Elementary K-5	166	39.0	45.2	45.2
	Pre-K	9	2.1	2.5	47.7
	Middle 6-8	67	15.7	18.3	65.9
	High School 9-12	87	20.4	23.7	89.6
	Grades K-8	18	4.2	4.9	94.6
	K-12	20	4.7	5.4	100.0

	Total	367	86.2	100.0	
Missing	System	59	13.8		
Total		426	100.0		

Other (please specify)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	2	.5	11.1	11.1
	0	1	.2	5.6	16.7
	0	6	1.4	33.3	50.0
	0	1	.2	5.6	55.6
	0	1	.2	5.6	61.1
	0	1	.2	5.6	66.7
	0	4	.9	22.2	88.9
	0	2	.5	11.1	100.0
	Total	18	4.2	100.0	
Missing	System	408	95.8		
Total		426	100.0		

Years as a principal

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-5 years	165	38.7	38.8	38.8
	6-10 years	118	27.7	27.8	66.6
	11-15 years	72	16.9	16.9	83.5
	16-20 years	40	9.4	9.4	92.9
	Over 20 years	30	7.0	7.1	100.0
	Total	425	99.8	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.2		
Total		426	100.0		

Location of Your School

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Urban	64	15.0	15.2	15.2
	Suburban	185	43.4	43.9	59.1
	Rural	172	40.4	40.9	100.0
	Total	421	98.8	100.0	
Missing	System	5	1.2		
Total		426	100.0		

Size of Student Population in Your School

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 250	56	13.1	13.4	13.4
	251-500	203	47.7	48.7	62.1
	501-750	93	21.8	22.3	84.4
	751-1000	34	8.0	8.2	92.6
	More than 1001	31	7.3	7.4	100.0
	Total	417	97.9	100.0	
Missing	System	9	2.1		
Total		426	100.0		

Size of Teaching Staff in Your School

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fewer than 15	55	12.9	13.0	13.0
	15-30	223	52.3	52.7	65.7
	31-60	113	26.5	26.7	92.4
	61-90	22	5.2	5.2	97.6
	91 +	10	2.3	2.4	100.0
	Total	423	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	3	.7		
Total		426	100.0		

Do you have an assistant principal?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	294	69.0	69.2	69.2
	Yes, 1 assistant principal	96	22.5	22.6	91.8
	Yes, 2 assistant principals	24	5.6	5.6	97.4
	Yes, more than 2 assistant principals	11	2.6	2.6	100.0
	Total	425	99.8	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.2		
Total		426	100.0		

If you have an assistant principal, does he/she assist you in completing teacher evaluations?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes, my assistant principal(s) completes teacher evaluations	106	24.9	61.3	61.3
	No, my assistant principal(s) does not assist in completing	67	15.7	38.7	100.0
	Total	173	40.6	100.0	
Missing	System	253	59.4		
Total		426	100.0		

If you have a designated building leader to assist you in the evaluation process, please state his/her role.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No, I do not have a staff member to assist me in the teacher	369	86.6	96.6	96.6
	Yes, I have a department head (staff member) to assist me in	4	.9	1.0	97.6
	Yes, I have a curriculum coordinator (staff member) to assis	9	2.1	2.4	100.0
	Total	382	89.7	100.0	
Missing	System	44	10.3		
Total		426	100.0		

Are you a Focus or Priority school?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	82	19.2	19.3	19.3
	No	341	80.0	80.4	99.8
	6	1	.2	.2	100.0
	Total	424	99.5	100.0	
Missing	System	2	.5		
Total		426	100.0		

Have you received training for the state-approved evaluation model/tool or district model/tool employed?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	I have attended training from the vendor	101	23.7	24.4	24.4
	I have attended training within my district	193	45.3	46.6	71.0
	I am awaiting training for a model in the future	120	28.2	29.0	100.0
	Total	414	97.2	100.0	
Missing	System	12	2.8		
Total		426	100.0		

Test for Skew

Statistics

		Gender	Race/ Ethnicity	Your teaching certification	Years of teaching experience	Academic/ Administrative Credentials
N	Valid	426	426	420	422	422
	Missing	0	0	6	4	4
Mean		1.54	5.65	1.8214	3.25	1.72
Skewness		-.034	-3.359	1.098	-.055	.925
Std. Error of Skewness		.118	.118	.119	.119	.119

Statistics

		Building level of your principalship	Years as a principal	Location of Your School	Size of Student Population in Your School	Size of Teaching Staff in Your School
N	Valid	367	425	421	417	423
	Missing	59	1	5	9	3
Mean		2.57	2.1812	2.2565	2.47	2.3121
Skewness		.453	.842	-.407	.869	.798
Std. Error of Skewness		.127	.118	.119	.120	.119

Statistics

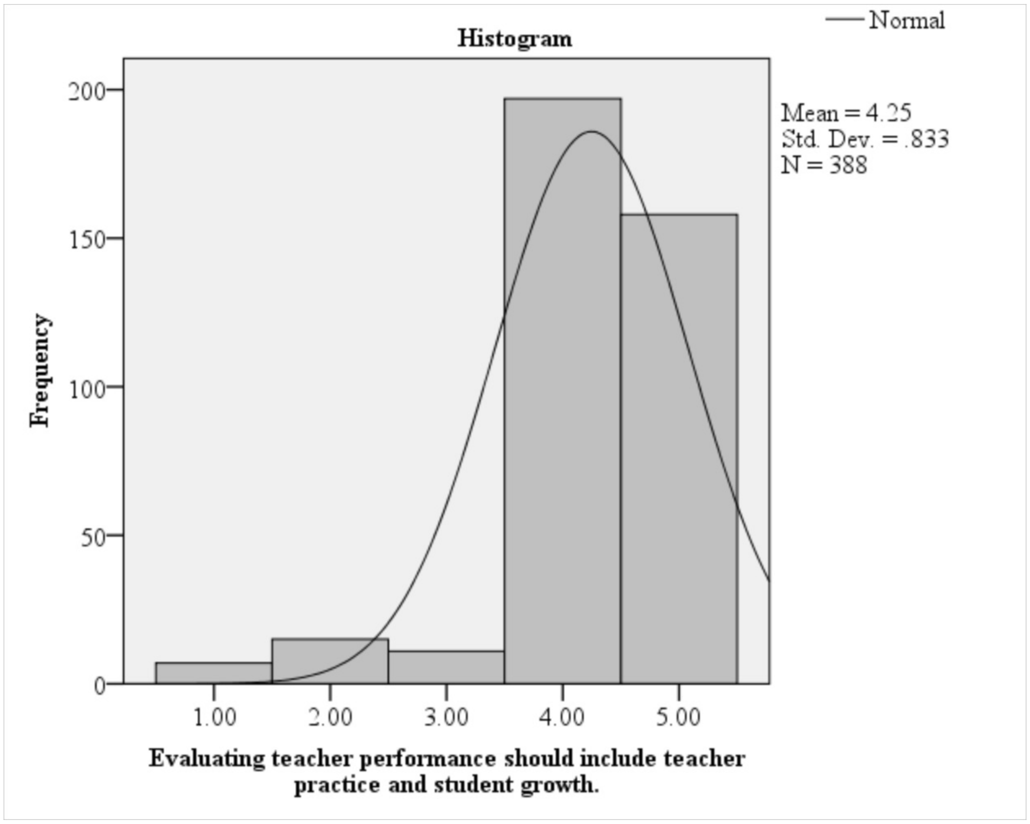
		Do you have an assistant principal?	If you have an assistant principal, does he/she assist you in completing teacher evaluations?	Other (please specify)	Are you a Focus or Priority school?
N	Valid	425	173	0	424
	Missing	1	253	426	2
Mean		1.4165	1.3873		1.82
Skewness		1.827	.467		.832
Std. Error of Skewness		.118	.185		.119

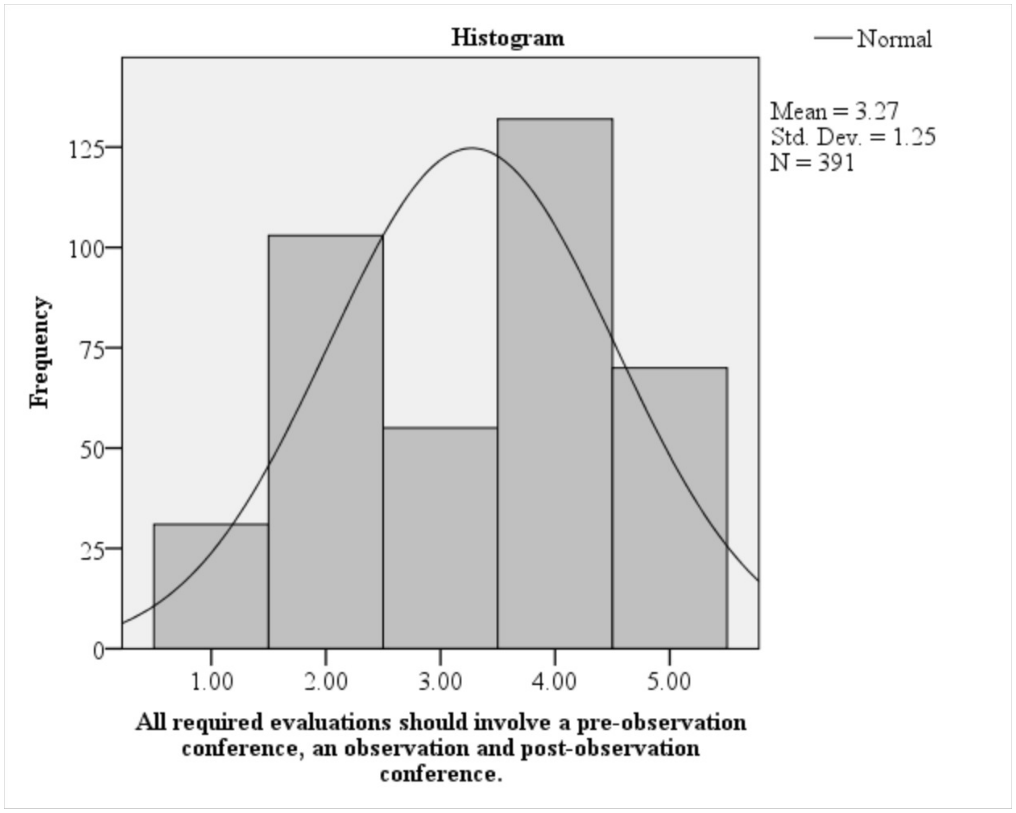
Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Evaluating teacher performance should include teacher practice and student growth.	388	91.1%	38	8.9%	426	100.0%

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
Evaluating teacher performance should include teacher practice and student growth.	Mean		4.2474	.04227
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.1643	
		Upper Bound	4.3305	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.3505	
	Median		4.0000	
	Variance		.693	
	Std. Deviation		.83255	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		1.00	
	Skewness		-1.652	.124
	Kurtosis		3.746	.247



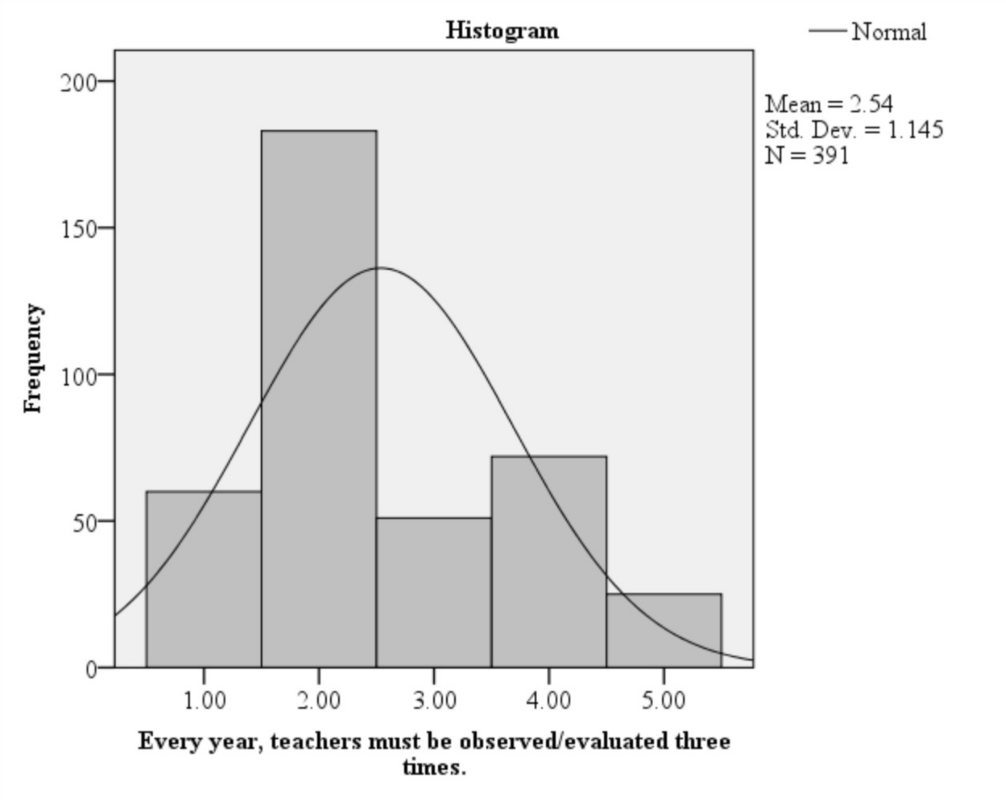


Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
All required evaluations should involve a pre-observation conference, an observation and post-observation conference.	Mean		3.2737	.06323
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.1493	
		Upper Bound	3.3980	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.3041	
	Median		4.0000	
	Variance		1.563	
	Std. Deviation		1.25035	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		2.00	
	Skewness		-.221	.123
	Kurtosis		-1.150	.246

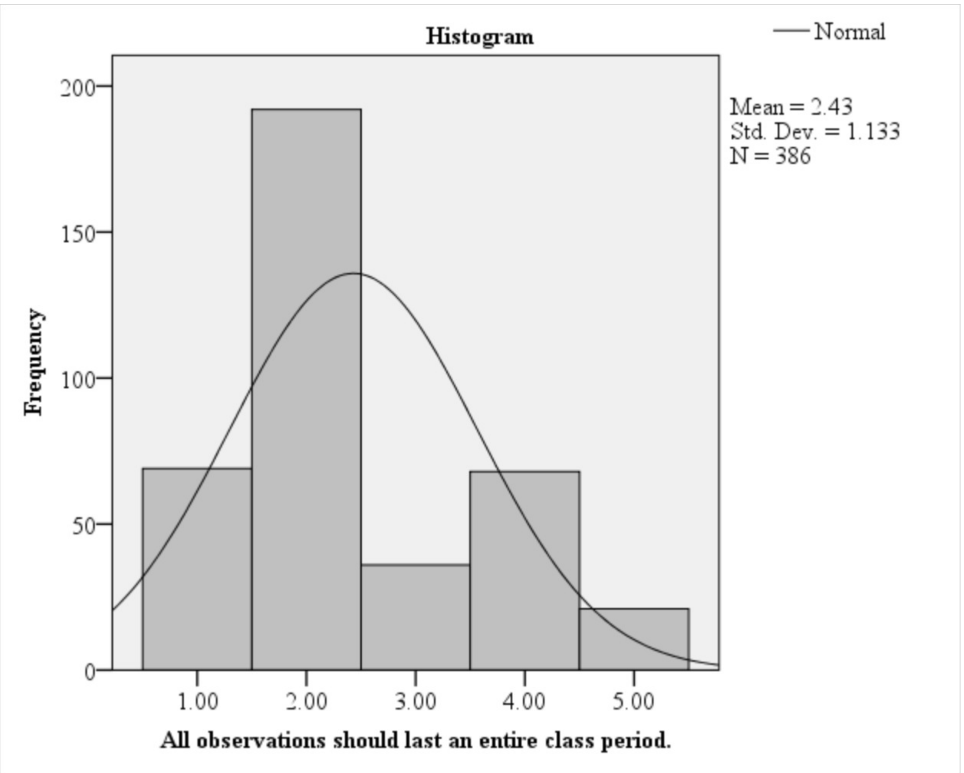
Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
Every year, teachers must be observed/evaluated three times.	Mean		2.5371	.05790
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.4232	
		Upper Bound	2.6509	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.4856	
	Median		2.0000	
	Variance		1.311	
	Std. Deviation		1.14490	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		1.00	
	Skewness		.614	.123
	Kurtosis		-.595	.246



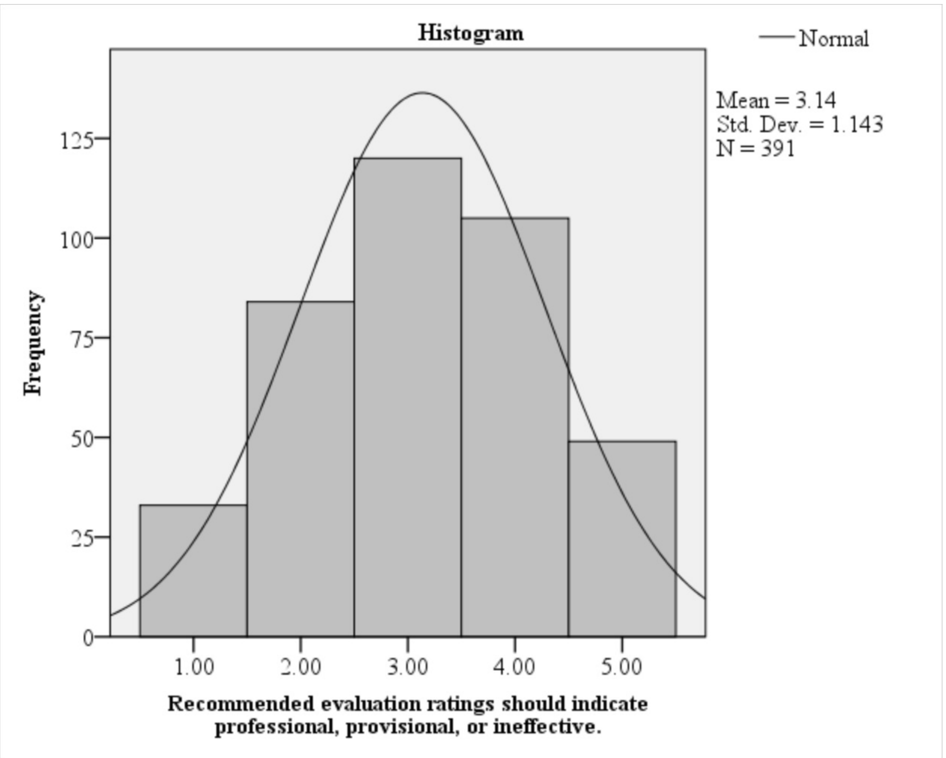
Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
All observations should last an entire class period.	Mean		2.4301	.05769
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.3166	
		Upper Bound	2.5435	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.3667	
	Median		2.0000	
	Variance		1.285	
	Std. Deviation		1.13345	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		1.00	
	Skewness		.734	.124
	Kurtosis		-.421	.248



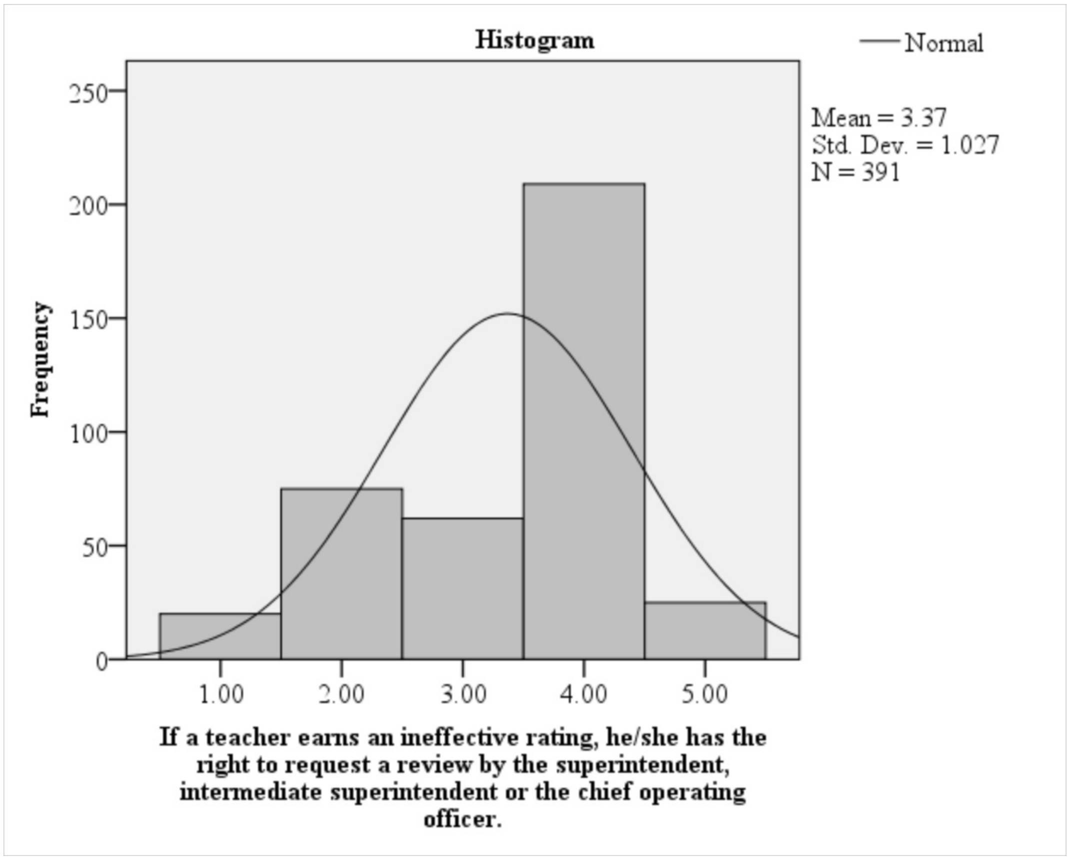
Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
Recommended evaluation ratings should indicate professional, provisional, or ineffective.	Mean		3.1355	.05782
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.0219	
		Upper Bound	3.2492	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.1506	
	Median		3.0000	
	Variance		1.307	
	Std. Deviation		1.14334	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		2.00	
	Skewness		-.102	.123
	Kurtosis		-.773	.246



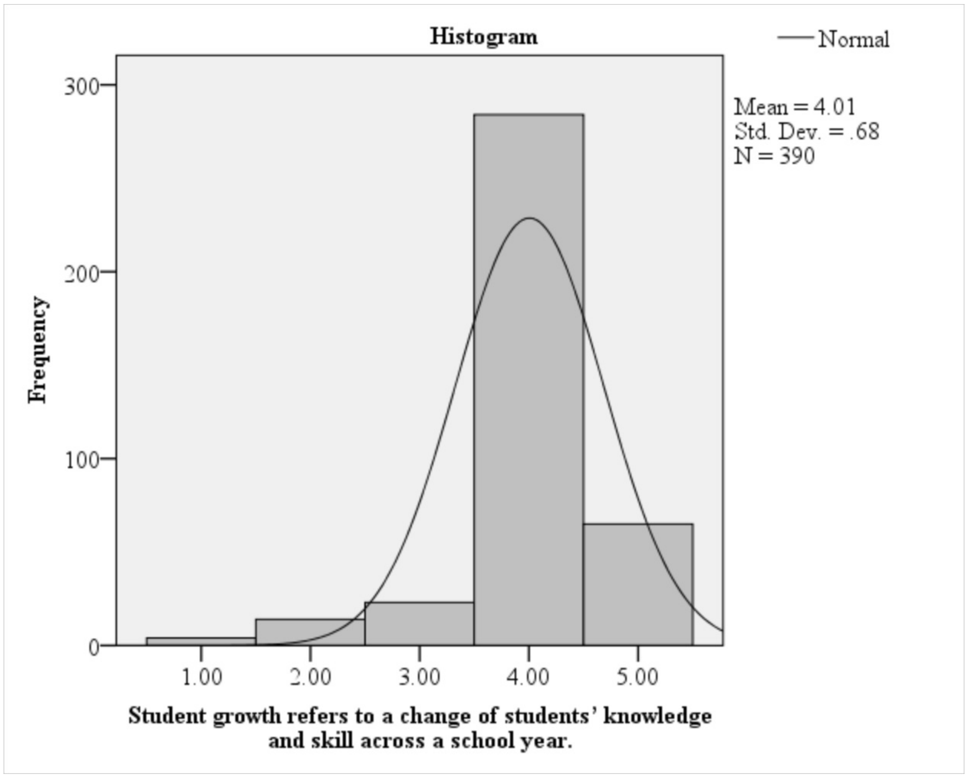
Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
If a teacher earns an ineffective rating, he/she has the right to request a review by the superintendent, intermediate superintendent or the chief operating officer.	Mean		3.3683	.05191
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.2662	
		Upper Bound	3.4704	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.4092	
	Median		4.0000	
	Variance		1.054	
	Std. Deviation		1.02653	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		1.00	
	Skewness		-.714	.123
	Kurtosis		-.435	.246



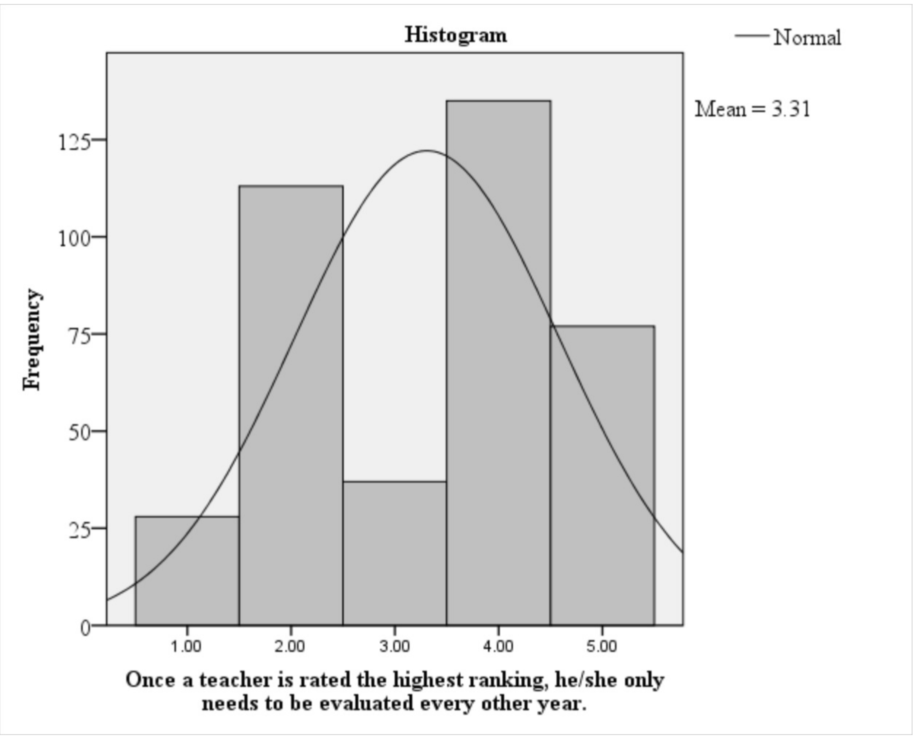
Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
Student growth refers to a change of students' knowledge and skill across a school year.	Mean		4.0051	.03444
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.9374	
		Upper Bound	4.0728	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.0684	
	Median		4.0000	
	Variance		.463	
	Std. Deviation		.68022	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		.00	
	Skewness		-1.484	.124
	Kurtosis		4.777	.247



Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
Once a teacher is rated the highest ranking, he/she only needs to be evaluated every other year.	Mean		3.3077	.06450
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.1809	
		Upper Bound	3.4345	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.3419	
	Median		4.0000	
	Variance		1.622	
	Std. Deviation		1.27370	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		2.00	
	Skewness		-.225	.124
	Kurtosis		-1.250	.247

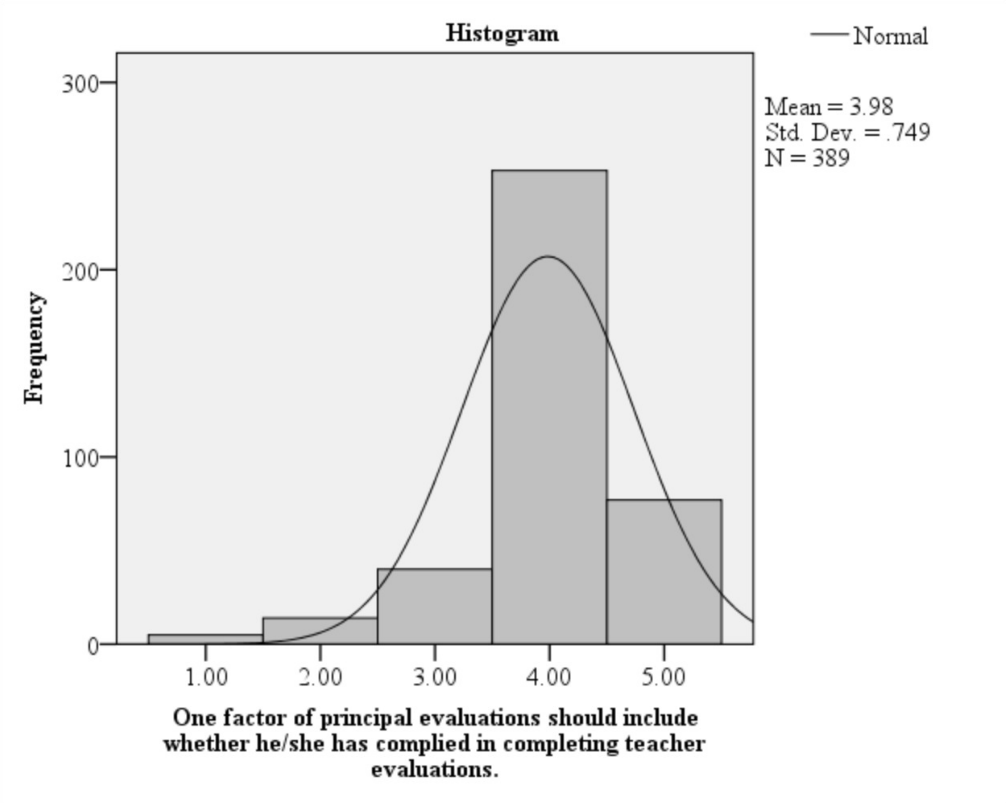


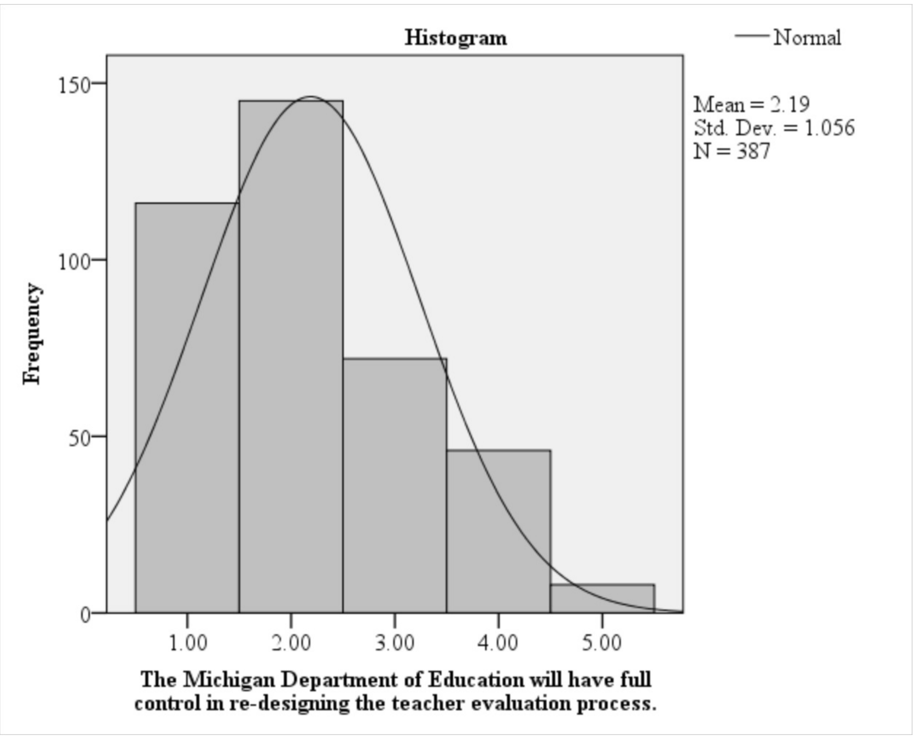
Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
One factor of principal evaluations should include whether he/she has complied in completing teacher evaluations.	Mean		3.9846	.03800
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.9099	
		Upper Bound	4.0593	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.0514	
	Median		4.0000	
	Variance		.562	
	Std. Deviation		.74941	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		.00	
	Skewness		-1.231	.124
	Kurtosis		3.062	.247

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
The Michigan Department of Education will have full control in re-designing the teacher evaluation process.	Mean		2.1860	.05369
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.0805	
		Upper Bound	2.2916	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.1282	
	Median		2.0000	
	Variance		1.116	
	Std. Deviation		1.05620	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		2.00	
	Skewness		.657	.124
	Kurtosis		-.357	.247





August 15, 2014
Crosstabs Chi-Square

Crosstab

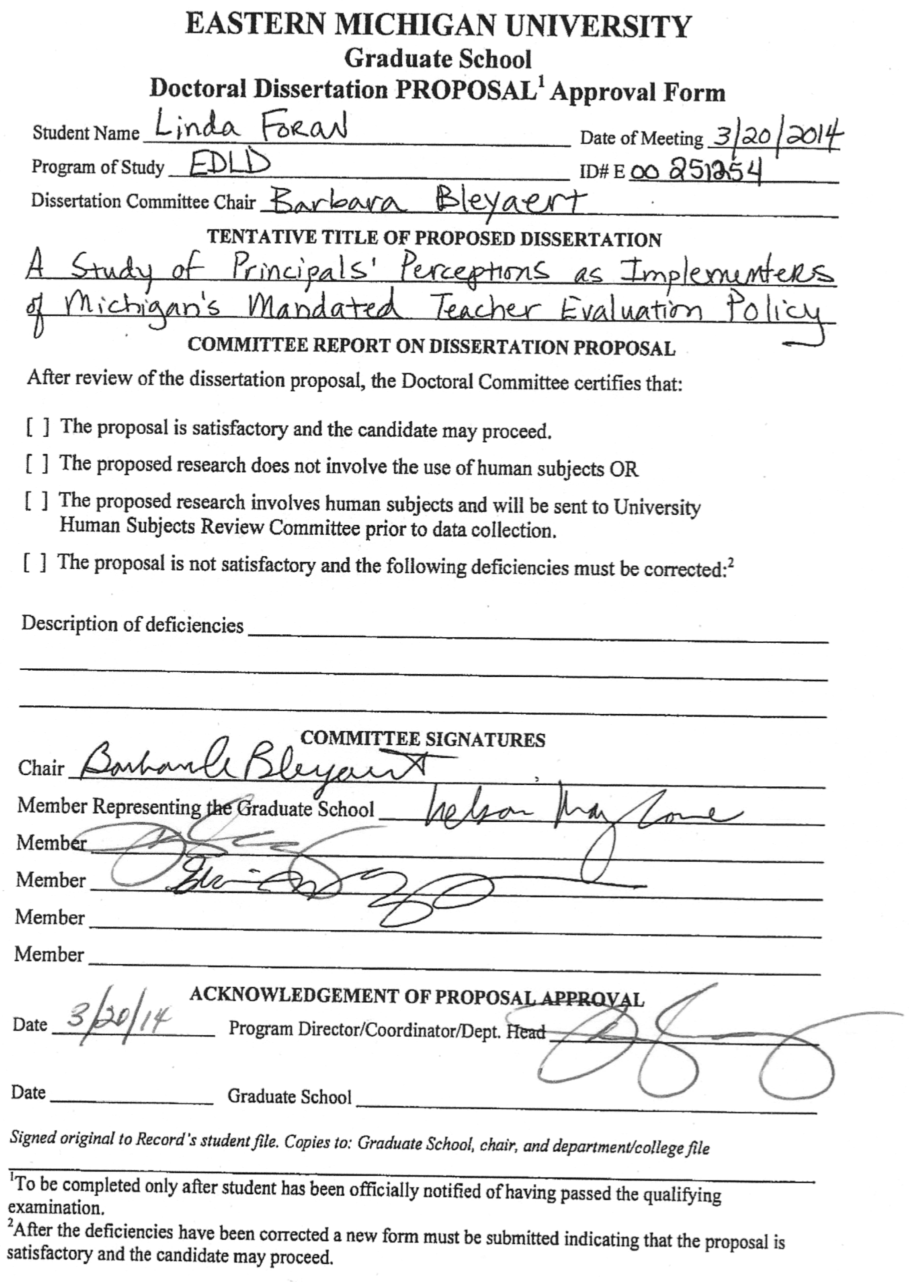
		race				Total
		Black	American Indian	Hispanic	White	
Evaluating teacher performance should include teacher practice and student growth.	Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	7	7
	Disagree	1	0	0	14	15
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	1	0	0	10	11
	Agree	10	2	0	185	197
	Strongly Agree	16	0	1	141	158
Total		28	2	1	357	388

Crosstab

Count

		race				Total
		Blacl	American Indian	Hispanic	White	
Evaluating teacher performance should include teacher practice and student growth.	Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	7	7
	Disagree	1	0	0	14	15
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	1	0	0	10	11
	Agree	10	2	0	185	197
	Strongly Agree	16	0	1	141	158
Total		28	2	1	357	388

Appendix L
Signed Proposal Approval Form



EASTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY
Graduate School
Doctoral Dissertation PROPOSAL[1] Approval Form

Student Name Linda Foran Date of Meeting 3/20/2014
Program of Study EDLD ID# E 00 251254
Dissertation Committee Chair Barbara Bleyaert

TENTATIVE TITLE OF PROPOSED DISSERTATION

A Study of Principals' Perceptions as Implementers of Michigan's Mandated Teacher Evaluation Policy

COMMITTEE REPORT ON DISSERTATION PROPOSAL

After review of the dissertation proposal, the Doctoral Committee certifies that:

☐ The proposal is satisfactory and the candidate may proceed.

☐ The proposed research does not involve the use of human subjects OR

☐ The proposed research involves human subjects and will be sent to University Human Subjects Review Committee prior to data collection.

☐ The proposal is not satisfactory and the following deficiencies must be corrected:[2]

Description of deficiencies ______

COMMITTEE SIGNATURES

Chair Barbara Bleyaert
Member Representing the Graduate School Nelson Maylone
Member
Member
Member
Member

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT OF PROPOSAL APPROVAL

Date 3/20/14 Program Director/Coordinator/Dept. Head
Date ______ Graduate School ______

Signed original to Record's student file. Copies to: Graduate School, chair, and department/college file

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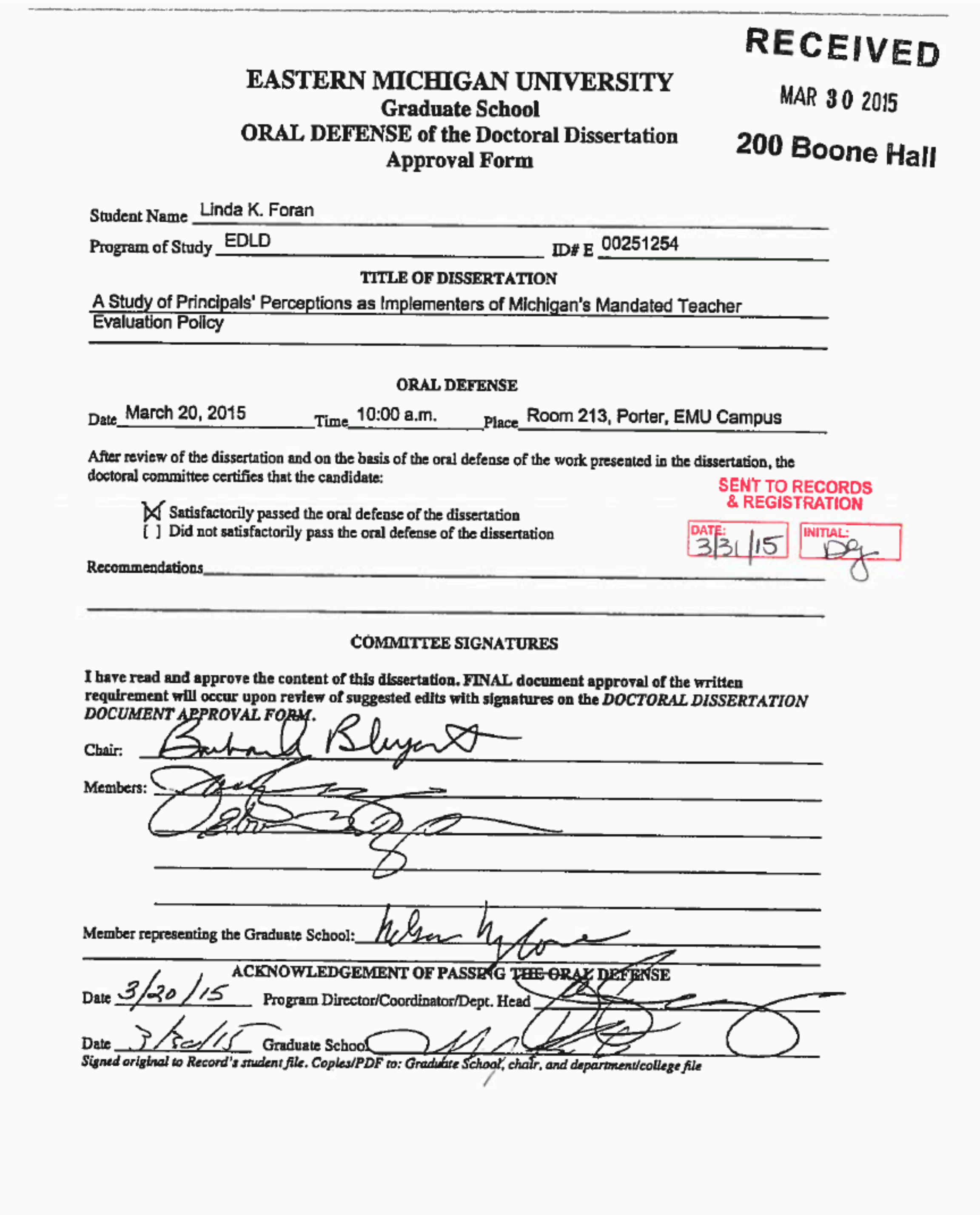
[1] To be completed only after student has been officially notified of having passed the qualifying examination.

[2] After the deficiencies have been corrected a new form must be submitted indicating that the proposal is satisfactory and the candidate may proceed.

Appendix M
Signed Doctoral Dissertation Oral Defense Approval Form



RECEIVED
MAR 30 2015
200 Boone Hall

EASTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY
Graduate School
ORAL DEFENSE of the Doctoral Dissertation
Approval Form

Student Name Linda K. Foran

Program of Study EDLD ID# E 00251254

TITLE OF DISSERTATION

A Study of Principals' Perceptions as Implementers of Michigan's Mandated Teacher Evaluation Policy

ORAL DEFENSE

Date March 20, 2015 Time 10:00 a.m. Place Room 213, Porter, EMU Campus

After review of the dissertation and on the basis of the oral defense of the work presented in the dissertation, the doctoral committee certifies that the candidate:

SENT TO RECORDS & REGISTRATION
DATE: 3/31/15 INITIAL:

☒ Satisfactorily passed the oral defense of the dissertation
☐ Did not satisfactorily pass the oral defense of the dissertation

Recommendations__________

COMMITTEE SIGNATURES

I have read and approve the content of this dissertation. FINAL document approval of the written requirement will occur upon review of suggested edits with signatures on the *DOCTORAL DISSERTATION DOCUMENT APPROVAL FORM*.

Chair:

Members:

Member representing the Graduate School:

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT OF PASSING THE ORAL DEFENSE

Date 3/20/15 Program Director/Coordinator/Dept. Head

Date 3/20/15 Graduate School

Signed original to Record's student file. Copies/PDF to: Graduate School, chair, and department/college file