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Note from NCPEA Publications Director, Brad Bizzell

The International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation is NCPEA's contribution to the Open Education Resources (OER) movement. This contribution to OER will be permanent.

In August, 2005, NCPEA partnered with Rice University and the Connexions Project, to publish our IJELP as open and free to all who had access to the Internet. Currently, there are over 400 peer-reviewed research manuscripts in the NCPEA/Connexions database. The purpose of the NCPEA/Knowledge Base Connexions Project is to "add to the knowledge base of the educational administration profession" and "aid in the improvement of administrative theory and practice, as well as administrative preparation programs." Our partnership continues but a new door has opened for NCPEA Publications to join the OER movement in a more substantive and direct way. In March 2013, NCPEA Publications and the NCPEA Executive Board committed the IJELP to the OER movement.

What are Open Educational Resources (OER)?

Open Educational Resources (OER) are teaching and learning materials that you may freely use, adapt and reuse, without charge. Open Educational Resources are different from other resources an educator may use in that OER have been given limited licensing rights. That means they have been authored or created by an individual or organization that chooses to provide access to all, at no charge. NCPEA Publications is committed to providing access to all, while assuring author/s of full attribution as others use the material.

The worldwide OER movement is rooted in the idea that equitable access to high-quality education is a global imperative. To NCPEA, this is a moral/ethical responsibility and issue of social justice. Open Educational Resources offer opportunities for systemic change in teaching and learning through accessible content, and importantly, through embedding participatory processes and effective technologies for engaging with learning. The OER Commons project aims to grow a sustainable culture of sharing among educators at all levels.

What is the OER Commons?

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What NCPEA OER is Not!

NCPEA open educational resources are not an open door at the NCPEA Publications submission

and review stages. We have always insisted on and will continue to require very thorough peer reviews (double and often triple-blind). NCPEA Publications is fortunate to have a cadre of professional reviewers (university professors), numbering over 300. Topic Editors first consider a submitted manuscript, and if appropriate, selects/assigns two reviewers who also have the expertise/interest in the manuscript's specific topic. This process assures that reviewers will read an author's manuscript with expertise/experience in that area.

The "openness" of the IJELP OER comes at publication stage. Once the issues are published, they are formatted/published in an open access website, indexed by Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), catalogued as a "commendable journal" in the Cabell's Directory, and provided to the Open Educational Resource database. The IJELP is currently viewed and read by educators from over 72 countries (many 3rd World) and all 50 U.S. States (data provided by Google Analytics).

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The manuscripts in Volume 10, Number 2 (Fall 2015) have been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration as significant contributions to the scholarship and practice of school administration and PK-12 education.

Contents

Does leadership matter? Examining the Relationship Among Transformational Leadership, School Climate, and Student Achievement

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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The purpose of this correlational study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, school climate, and student mathematics and reading achievement. Survey data were collected from a purposeful sample of elementary school principals and a convenience sample of his or her respective teachers located in a small suburban school district in southeast Texas. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X) was used to measure the degree to which a principal displays the factors of a transformational leader based on teacher perceptions and was used by the principals surveyed to self-assess. The School Climate Inventory-Revised (SCI-R) survey was used to measure teacher perceptions of school climate. Findings indicated a positive relationship between transformational leadership and school climate. However, a relationship was not found to exist between transformational leadership and student achievement nor between school climate and student achievement. When determining whether a relationship existed between the campus principal's perceptions of their own transformational leadership qualities and his/her teachers' perceptions of those same qualities, only two out of the 25 correlations were found to be statistically significant.

Keywords: correlational, school climate, student achievement, transformational leadership

Introduction

Calls for reform of the educational system in the United States (U.S.) have cycled regularly since the establishment of compulsory education in the early 20th Century. The latest round of school improvement efforts came in 2001 with the passage of *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB); an amendment to the *Elementary and Secondary Education* Act of 1965. This legislation holds school districts accountable for meeting federal guidelines based on Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) as measured by student performance on standardized assessments. With the recent addition of President Obama's *Race to the Top* initiative, additional pressure has been placed on public school administrators and teachers to achieve more rigorous and challenging standards (Bird, Wang, Watson, & Murray, 2009). As a result, school staff are continuously searching for ways to improve student learning so they can successfully meet the goals set forth by both federal and state requirements (Bevans, Bradshaw, Miech, & Leaf, 2007).

Schools in the improvement process often examine the various leadership factors that play a substantial role in school effectiveness (Bruggencate, Luyten, Scheerens, & Sleegers, 2012). Transformational leadership is one style that has been advocated for success in the school improvement process. Burns (1978) defined transformational leadership as a person's ability to engage others for the purpose of building motivation. Given that transformational leaders generally have staff members who are committed to a shared goal or vision and are more satisfied in their positions, this type of leadership has the potential to greatly impact the organizational climate of a campus (Bass & Riggio, 2006). As a result, there is also the potential to effect student achievement, as intermediate outcomes, such as teacher job satisfaction and school and classroom climate have been found to impact the student outcomes required by federal and state guidelines (Brown, Anfara, & Roney, 2004). School districts that are searching for research-based methods of school improvement should begin by examining campus leadership styles and taking note of their effect on the school climate and student achievement.

The school leader is considered one of the most influential factors in the development of the quality and character of a school (Cohen, McCabe, Michelli, & Pickeral, 2009). Much of the current research demonstrates that a principal's leadership style and skills impact a variety of teacher characteristics, from job satisfaction and efficacy to engagement levels and academic emphasis (Bird et al., 2009). With additional focus being placed on closing the achievement gaps between the various sub-populations, more researchers are attempting to identify school factors that affect student achievement that are also within the scope of a school administrator's control (McGuigan & Hoy, 2006). Even though it has been observed that a principal's leadership skills may not have a direct impact on student outcomes, these skills can impact the principal's relationship with his or her teachers (Cotton, 2003). Given that many of a campus's basic organizational structures are controlled and greatly influenced by the principal, assessing the impact of an individual leader on his or her school's climate and student achievement levels has become a crucial area of focus (McGuigan & Hoy; Cohen et al., 2009).

In today's age of increased accountability, the learning environment of students has become a more significant educational issue (Frieberg & Stein, 1999). School climate, which usually refers to a teacher's perceptions of his or her work environment (Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp, 1991), has therefore become an attractive factor to study in the search for components that promote school effectiveness (Hoy, 1990). School climate is often considered the "heart and soul" of a campus (Freiberg & Stein, 1999, p. 11). According to Hoy (1990), climate is a particularly useful construct for studying the characteristics of schools that positively impact

student achievement; however, the connections between the qualities of a healthy school and student and teacher outcomes is an area for further research. These findings have important consequences for campus leaders, who often seek to create learning environments that promote shared decision-making among campus stakeholders and lend themselves to further research on the impact of school climate on student achievement (Pepper, 2010).

More rigorous standards for student achievement have led many school districts to look for research-based methods that will positively affect student scores on standardized assessments. With a lack of research examining the relationship between a school leader's traits, school climate, and student achievement (Bulach & Lunenberg, 1995; Mackey, Pitcher, & Decman, 2006) and the belief that there is a disparity between the research on school climate and actual school practice (Cohen et al., 2009), there is a definitive need for more research in this area in order to constructively impact student outcomes. As a result, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among transformational leadership, school climate, and student mathematics and reading achievement.

Theoretical Perspective and Related Literature

Transformational Leadership

Burns' (1978) pioneering work, *Leadership*, not only provided a comprehensive assessment of its power and purpose, but also distinguished between varieties of leadership styles. He acknowledged the existence of two common types of leadership: (a) transactional and (b) transformational. The relationships between most leaders and followers are transactional, where the main purpose of the relationship is for an exchange of things that are valued. This style of leadership is generally acceptable when attempting to maintain the status quo (Moolenaar, Daly, & Sleegers, 2010). Transactional leadership is contrasted with transformational leadership, which emphasizes a leader's ability to recognize the potential skills of an employee and engage the complete person and not just particular traits.

Transformational leadership is one of the most prominent contemporary theories regarding leadership (Moolenaar et al., 2010). Stewart (2006) claimed that leadership is an important area of focus for researchers, especially given the current emphasis on school accountability. School leaders generally set the atmosphere of a campus establishing various norms for the behavior that staff members follow (Cohen et al., 2009). Burns (1978) stated that a transformational leader was typically focused on the end product, uniting staff in the pursuit of goals that match the leader's vision, while finding ways to excite even the most uninterested employee. In addition, Sergiovanni (2007) claimed that a transformational leader practices purposing, provides a clear and concise goal focus uniting the organization, and encourages commitment. When a principal provides evidence that he or she understands the need to empower teachers, there is increased motivation and commitment towards campus goals (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Marks & Printy, 2003; Sergiovanni, 2007).

Transformational leadership has also been found to have an impact on teachers' perceptions of school conditions, their individual commitment to change, and organizational learning and student outcomes (Hallinger & Heck, 1998). Finnigan and Stewart (2009) found that transformational leadership behaviors were most frequently evident in high performing schools, lending credence to the belief that transformational leadership is the most effective form of leadership. Additionally, Goff, Goldring, and Bickman (2014) studied the extent to which a

principal's self-assessment of leadership characteristics matched his or her teachers' perceptions of the same characteristics discovering an often large, measurable gap between the two sets of perceptions; suggesting that teachers see and interpret various leadership characteristics differently than their principals.

School Climate

While the relationship is a complicated one, the influence of transformational leadership qualities on "follower" outcomes and the development of a positive working environment is an important one to note. Cohen et al. (2009) stated there is no universally agreed-upon definition; school climate, in a broad sense, encompasses teachers' shared perceptions of their overall work environment to include the internal features that distinguish one campus from another and its impact on the behavior of its staff members (Hoy, 1990; Hoy & Tarter, 1992; Owens, 2004; Stolp & Smith, 1995). Leadership is a key component in the development and sustainment of school climate (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1978). Owens (2004) and Vos, van der Westhuizen, Mentz, and Ellis (2012) found that the behavior of principals was especially influential on school climate, as the specific strategies used to manage the campus influence the experience of the teachers and the overall work atmosphere. In addition, Bird et al. (2009) discovered that teachers' reported engagement levels were strongly related to their level of trust in the school, their colleagues, and their principal.

Moolenaar et al. (2010) learned that transformational leadership was positively related to teachers' perceptions of their school's climate of innovation. However, they also determined that teachers who were performing administrative tasks in support of the principal, in addition to their teaching tasks, perceived their school's climate as less innovative than those teachers who were not assigned additional administrative tasks. Regarding the lack of significance, Bulach and Lunenberg (1995) discovered that there were no statistically significant differences in school climate as a result of principal leadership styles; implying that any leadership style could lead to the development of a positive school climate, especially when the staff is experienced.

Teacher perceptions of a principal's leadership style can also influence school climate. Rhodes, Camic, Milburn, and Lowe (2009) found that principals can improve teachers' perceptions of school climate by exhibiting collaborative decision-making and attempting to remove obstacles that prohibit teachers from focusing on instruction. As a teacher's perception of leadership improves, he or she becomes more effective in the classroom. This implies that principals who want to positively impact school climate should focus on providing teachers with the necessary support and resources.

According to Vos et al. (2012), an unhealthy school climate can lead to ineffectiveness. Discovering the climate of a school is an important component for developing strategies for management and improvement of an organization's overall health. Given that the overall climate of a campus has a significant effect on the job satisfaction levels of staff members, it is especially important to evaluate organizational health to maintain positive work performance (Vos et al., 2012). Lastly, a sustainable, positive school climate encourages the development and learning necessary for students to become productive contributors to a democratic society (Cohen et al., 1999). In conclusion, Hoy (1990) claims organizational health and climate, as a whole, can be an important factor in effective change efforts.

Student Achievement

The current focus on monitoring student achievement levels, as defined by the state and federal government, has led many educational researchers to study the factors within a school and a school district that impact student outcomes on standardized assessments. Brookover et al. (1982) wrote that school learning climates are often characterized by the degree to which they effectively produce desired student learning outcomes and student achievement is often the primary factor to consider when measuring the climate of a school. This idea was furthered by studies that show that academic emphasis is an integral component of a healthy school (Goddard et al., 2000; Hoy & Tarter, 1992). It is also imperative to note the impact of leadership on academic emphasis. An effective administrator promotes academic learning by actively encouraging high expectations for students and by promoting effective instruction in each classroom (Stockard & Mayberry, 1992). Transformational leaders can then contribute to this factor by aligning the objectives and goals of all stakeholders in the organization (Bass & Riggio, 1996).

Research has determined that principal leadership can have a significant, yet indirect, impact on student outcomes (Braughton & Riley, 1991; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005; Robinson, Lloyd, & Rows, 2008). Finnigan and Stewart (2009) specifically studied transformational leadership and found that this specific style had an indirect influence on student achievement. Heck and Hallinger (1996) and Hallinger (2005) also noted that a principal can impact classroom instruction, but indirectly through the development of school climate rather than through direct supervision of classroom practices. Given that a principal is generally not involved in the direct delivery of instruction, the behavior of the principal, especially when supportive, collegial, and not overly restrictive, can have a positive impact on student achievement through the impact this behavior has on school climate and thus his or her teachers (Tschannen-Moran & Tschannen-Moran, 2011).

When the campus leader develops a strong, clear, shared vision, and focuses resources and attention on the overall improvement of the organization, the results are positive changes in student outcomes (Finnigan & Stewart, 2009). Hallinger (2005) found that principals who developed strategies and activities that aligned with the school's mission and kept an academic emphasis were more effective in leading staff and saw more improvement in student outcomes. In addition, Onorato (2013) stated that effective principals have a great effect on student achievement when they are more attuned to the specific behaviors that influence teachers. Principals who pay attention to building organizational capacity as a whole in ways that are culturally appropriate can also positively influence student achievement (Jacobson, Johnson, Ylimaki, & Giles, 2005; Mulford et al., 2008; Murakami-Ramalho, Garza, & Merchant, 2010). Principals who exhibit transformational characteristics play a major role in the fostering of conditions for school improvement by stimulating teachers' engagement in professional learning activities, which can impact student achievement.

Johnson and Stevens (2006) found a statistically significant relationship between teachers' perceptions of school climate and student achievement. This indicates that school climate is a factor that should be considered when attempting to understand student achievement. Teachers who perceived a positive school climate had higher levels of student achievement. The authors state, however, that there are a number of factors that could influence this, including specific student characteristics, and that school climate could conversely be influenced by

student achievement. Contrary to previously mentioned research, Shouppe and Pate (2010) found there was not a relationship between school climate and student achievement.

One important area of study for the present and future lives of many students is mathematics achievement (Choi & Chang, 2011). Choi and Change (2011) discovered that school climate had a significant impact on mathema tics achievement. For example, when classroom teachers perceived the school climate as positive and healthy, the mathematics achievement of the students improved. Webster and Fisher (2002) concluded that the methods used by teachers to present mathematics curriculum were directly influenced by the teachers' perceptions of school climate. In addition, the achievement outcomes of the students were influenced by the teachers' instructional strategies and students in classrooms that were more teacher-directed had better attitudes towards mathematics, which influenced their achievement levels in the subject matter. Concerning reading achievement, Silva, White, and Yoshida (2011) found that when principals engaged in discussions with students concerning their potential achievement on a standardized reading assessment, the student exhibited more motivation to do well on the exam. In addition, those students met the established target goal for their scores on the state assessment.

While it is impossible to provide a single image of a school leader that would be appropriate for all schools, studying the complimentary relationship between a principal's transformational leadership qualities, school climate, and student achievement could provide useful information to any school district regarding best practices for school improvement. While the relationship may not always be a direct one, the results of focusing on strong leadership and the development of a positive school climate will benefit student engagement and bring about a rise in the levels of student achievement.

Methods

Participants

Data were collected from a purposeful sample of elementary principals governing six campuses located in a small suburban school district in southeast Texas. Female participants composed the majority of the responses in the study with 83.3% (n = 5), while male participants represented 16.7% (n = 1). A majority of the participants self-identified as White with 83.3% (n = 5) and 66.7% (n = 4) reported they had been administrators for 11 to 15 years. A convenience sample of teacher participants (n = 55; 72.4% response rate) working within the six elementary schools yielded the following demographics. Female participants composed the majority of the responses in the study with 96.4% (n = 53), while male participants represented 3.6% (n = 2). A majority of the participants self-identified as White with 78.2% (n = 43), while the next largest group self-identified as Hispanic with 14.5% (n = 8). For the number of years in the teaching profession, 25.5% (n = 14) reported that they had been teaching 11 to 15 years and another 25.5% (n = 14) reported that they had been teaching for more than 20 years.

Instrumentation

Transformational leadership. The *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* (MLQ-5X), developed by Bass and Avolio (1995), is an existing survey which assesses the frequency of various transformational leadership behaviors based on the perceptions of teachers. The MLQ-

5X is a 36-item survey that measures five areas of transformational leadership: (a) idealized attributes (α = .83), (b) idealized behaviors (α = .83), (c) inspirational motivation (α = .82), (d) intellectual stimulation (α = .88), and (e) individual consideration (α = .78). Participants were asked to rate leadership characteristics using a 5-point Likert scale (0 = *Not at all*, 1 = *Once in a while*, 2 = *Sometimes*, 3 = *Fairly often*, 4 = *Frequently, if not always*). The larger the score, the more a person is perceived as being a transformational leader.

School climate. School climate was measured using the *School Climate Inventory-Revised* (SCI-R). It was developed by an expert panel at the Center for Research in Educational Policy at the University of Memphis to assess teacher and administrator perceptions of school climate. The SCI-R has been validated at both the elementary and secondary school levels (CREP, 2002). The SCI-R is a 49-item survey that measures seven areas of school climate: (a) order (α = .78), (b) leadership (α = .77), (c) environment (α = .83), (d) involvement (α = .79), (e) instruction (α = 81), (f) expectations (α = .80), and (g) collaboration (α = .86). Participants were asked to rate school climate characteristics using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly disagree*, 2 = *Disagree*, 3 = *Neutral*, 4 = *Agree*, 5 = *Strongly agree*). The larger the score the more positive the school climate.

Student achievement. In Texas, the STAAR (State of Texas Assessment of Academic Readiness) assessment is used to measure student achievement levels. The purpose of the STAAR test is to determine whether or not a student has mastered specific knowledge of a core subject at the grade levels tested and is ready to enter the next grade level (TEA, 2014b). Launched in 2012, the STAAR test is given to students at the end of grades 3-8 in reading and mathematics and to high school students in Algebra I, English I, English II, Biology, and U.S. History. For purposes of this study, only mathematics and reading scores for grades 3-5 were examined.

In grades 3-5, the test is composed of 43-47 multiple choice items, with three items containing a "grid-able" response. These items provide an opportunity for an open-ended response, which allows the student the opportunity to derive an answer independently (TEA, 2010c). For the reading portion of the STAAR test, greater emphasis is given to the critical analysis of a reading passage, rather than to a student's literal understanding (TEA, 2010b). In grade 3, the reading test is composed of 4-5 single selections for a total of 40 multiple choice items. The genres assessed include fiction, literary nonfiction, poetry, media literacy, expository, and procedural. The total reading load is approximately 2,700 words. In grades 4-5, the STAAR reading test includes 3-4 single selections and a paired selection for a total of 44-46 items. The total reading load is approximately 3,100-3,300 words.

Data Collection Procedures

Following IRB approval, the elementary school principals were contacted by email with information regarding the purpose of the study and the process for collecting the surveys. The researcher made arrangements with a district representative for the dissemination of the surveys to all of the elementary teachers through the use of SurveyMonkey. The purpose of the study, voluntary participation in the study, and the timeframe for taking the survey, along with confidentiality requirements were communicated to the teachers through a survey cover letter. A follow-up reminder was sent by email approximately two weeks after the first letter.

Data Analysis

Given that the teachers (Level 1) in this study were nested within six schools (Level 2), a methodological dilemma concerning the unit of analysis was created. To address this issue, initially a multilevel data analysis technique, hierarchical linear modeling (HLM), was utilized. To justify the use of a multi-level analysis, unexplained variation in school climate and student achievement were examined across each campus. To do this, a one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) with random effects model (unconditional model) was used. The one-way ANOVA model contained only an outcome variable and no Level 1 or Level 2 predictors. Given that unexplained variation was not found to exist ($p > .05$), a single level analysis, such as Pearson's product moment correlations and simple linear regression, was used to analyze the data. All variables (transformational leadership, school climate, and school achievement) were of continuous measurement.

Findings

Transformational Leadership and School Climate

Sufficient evidence was found to justify the rejection of the null hypothesis and thus accept the alternative (research) hypothesis. Findings indicated a statistically significant positive relationship ($p < .05$) between the five factors of transformational leadership (idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration) and the seven dimensions of school climate (order, leadership, environment, involvement, instruction, expectation, and collaboration).

Idealized attributes. Results indicated that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between the idealized attributes of a leader and the school climate dimensions: (a) Order, $F(1, 53) = 20.16$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .262$, (b) Leadership, $F(1, 53) = 53.55$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .493$, (c) Environment, $F(1, 53) = 91.79$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .627$, (d) Involvement, $F(1, 53) = 11.46$, $p = <.001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .162$, (e) Instruction, $F(1, 53) = 23.39$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .293$, (f) Expectations, $F(1, 53) = 47.57$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .463$, and (g) Collaboration, $F(1, 53) = 42.19$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .433$. These findings suggest that a principal's ability to develop respect, exhibit power, and focus on what is best for the group influences teacher perceptions of the overall school climate. The factor of idealized attributes can explain the variation in dimensions of school climate 26.2%, 49.3%, 62.7%, 16.2%, 29.3%, 46.3%, and 43.3% respectively. Table 1 depicts the summary of the regression analysis.

Table 1
Model Summary of Correlations between Idealized Attributes (IA) and the Dimensions of School Climate

	N	F-value	*r*-value	adjusted-r^2	*p*-value
IA - Order	55	20.16	.525	.262	<.001*
IA – Leadership	55	53.55	.709	.493	<.001*
IA - Environment	55	91.79	.796	.627	<.001*
IA - Involvement	55	11.46	.422	.162	<.001*

IA - Instruction	55	23.39	.553	.293	<.001*
IA - Expectations	55	47.57	.688	.463	<.001*
IA - Collaboration	55	42.19	.666	.433	<.001*

*Statistically significant ($p < .05$)

Idealized behaviors. Results indicated that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between the idealized behaviors of a leader and the school climate dimensions: (a) Order, $F(1, 53) = 18.48$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .245$, (b) Leadership, $F(1, 53) = 34.29$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .381$, (c) Environment, $F(1, 53) = 54.16$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .496$, (d) Involvement, $F(1, 53) = 17.72$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .236$, (e) Instruction, $F(1, 53) = 21.09$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .271$, (f) Expectations, $F(1, 53) = 54.75$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .499$, and (g) Collaboration, $F(1, 53) = 44.34$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .445$. These findings suggest that a principal's sense of purpose, goal-focus, and moral and ethical behavior influences teacher perception of the overall school climate. The factor of idealized behaviors can explain the variation in dimensions of school climate 24.5%, 38.1%, 49.6%, 23.6%, 27.1%, 49.9%, and 44.5% respectively. Table 2 depicts the summary of the regression analysis.

Table 2
Model Summary of Correlation between Idealized Behaviors (IB) and the Dimensions of School Climate

	N	F-value	*r*-value	adjusted-r^2	*p*-value
IB - Order	55	18.48	.508	.245	<.001*
IB - Leadership	55	34.29	.627	.381	<.001*
IB - Environment	55	54.16	.711	.496	<.001*
IB - Involvement	55	17.72	.501	.236	<.001*
IB - Instruction	55	21.09	.534	.271	<.001*
IB - Expectations	55	54.75	.713	.499	<.001*
IB - Collaboration	55	44.34	.675	.445	<.001*

*Statistically significant ($p < .05$)

Inspirational motivation. Results indicated that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between the inspirational motivation of a leader and the school climate dimensions: (a) Order, $F(1, 53) = 29.68$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .347$, (b) Leadership, $F(1, 53) = 54.25$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .496$, (c) Environment, $F(1, 53) = 95.91$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .637$, (d) Involvement, $F(1, 53) = 18.67$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .247$, (e) Instruction, $F(1, 53) = 18.44$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .244$, (f) Expectations, $F(1, 53) = 48.20$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .466$, and (g) Collaboration, $F(1, 53) = 42.40$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .434$. These findings suggest that a principal's confidence, optimism, enthusiasm, and vision for the future influences teacher perception of the overall school climate. The factor of inspirational motivation can explain the variation in dimensions of school climate 34.7%, 49.6%, 63.7%, 24.7%, 24.4%, 46.6%, and 43.4% respectively. Table 3 depicts the summary of the regression analysis.

Table 3
Model Summary of Correlations between Inspirational Motivation (IM) and the Dimensions of School Climate

	N	F-value	*r*-value	adjusted-r^2	*p*-value
IM - Order	55	29.68	.599	.347	<.001*
IM - Leadership	55	54.25	.711	.496	<.001*
IM - Environment	55	95.91	.803	.637	<.001*
IM - Involvement	55	18.67	.510	.247	<.001*
IM - Instruction	55	18.44	.508	.244	<.001*
IM - Expectations	55	48.20	.690	.466	<.001*
IM - Collaboration	55	42.40	.667	.434	<.001*

*Statistically significant ($p < .05$)

Intellectual stimulation. Results indicated that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between the intellectual stimulation of a leader and the school climate dimensions: (a) Order, $F(1, 53) = 30.33$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .352$, (b) Leadership, $F(1, 53) = 34.61$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .384$, (c) Environment, $F(1, 53) = 71.60$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .567$, (d) Involvement, $F(1, 53) = 20.44$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .265$, (e) Instruction, $F(1, 53) = 29.19$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .343$, (f) Expectations, $F(1, 53) = 51.33$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .482$, and (g) Collaboration, $F(1, 53) = 58.51$, $p < .001$, adjusted-$r^2 = .516$. These data suggest that a principal's ability to solve problems and think creatively influences teacher perception of the overall school climate. The factor of intellectual stimulation can explain the variation in dimensions of school climate 35.2%, 38.4%, 56.7%, 26.5%, 34.3%, 48.2%, and 51.6% respectively. Table 4 depicts the summary of the regression analysis.

Table 4
Model Summary of Correlations between Intellectual Stimulation (IS) and the Dimensions of School Climate

	N	F-value	*r*-value	adjusted-r^2	*p*-value
IS - Order	55	30.33	.603	.352	<.001*
IS - Leadership	55	34.61	.629	.384	<.001*
IS - Environment	55	71.60	.758	.567	<.001*
IS - Involvement	55	20.44	.528	.265	<.001*
IS - Instruction	55	29.19	.596	.343	<.001*
IS - Expectations	55	51.33	.701	.482	<.001*
IS - Collaboration	55	58.51	.724	.516	<.001*

*Statistically significant ($p < .05$)

Individual consideration. Results indicated that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between the individual consideration of a leader and the school climate

dimensions: (a) Order, F(1, 53) = 23.53, $p < .001$, adjusted-r^2 = .294, (b) Leadership, F(1, 53) = 40.44, $p < .001$, adjusted-r^2 = .422, (c) Environment, F(1, 53) = 65.65, $p < .001$, adjusted-r^2 = .545, (d) Involvement, F(1, 53) = 17.49, $p < .001$, adjusted-r^2 = .234, (e) Instruction, F(1, 53) = 18.45, $p < .001$, adjusted-r^2 = .244, (f) Expectations, F(1, 53) = 30.55, $p < .001$, adjusted-r^2 = .354, and (g) Collaboration, F(1, 53) = 36.93, $p < .001$, adjusted-r^2 = .399. These findings suggest that a principal's mentoring skills and ability to recognize strengths in others influences teacher perceptions of the overall school climate. The factor of individual consideration can explain the variation in dimensions of school climate 29.4%, 42.2%, 54.5%, 23.4%, 24.4%, 35.4%, and 39.9% respectively. Table 5 depicts the summary of the regression analysis.

Table 5
Model Summary of Correlations between Individual Consideration (IC) and the Dimensions of School Climate

	N	F-value	*r*-value	adjusted-r^2	*p*-value
IC - Order	55	23.53	.554	.294	<.001*
IC - Leadership	55	40.44	.658	.422	<.001*
IC - Environment	55	65.65	.744	.545	<.001*
IC - Involvement	55	17.49	.498	.234	<.001*
IC - Instruction	55	18.45	.508	.244	<.001*
IC - Expectations	55	30.55	.605	.354	<.001*
IC - Collaboration	55	36.93	.641	.399	<.001*

*Statistically significant (p < .05)

Transformational Leadership and Student Achievement

Mathematics achievement. Results indicated that there was not a statistically significant positive relationship (p > .05) between the five transformational leadership characteristics of a principal and mathematics achievement: (a) Idealized Attributes, F(1,24) = 0.58, $p = .454$, (b) Idealized Behavior, F(1, 24) = 0.78, $p = .387$, (c) Inspirational Motivation, F(1, 24) = 0.66, $p = .426$, (d) Intellectual Stimulation, F(1, 24) = 1.26, $p = .272$, and (e) Individual Consideration, F(1, 24) = 0.36, $p = .556$. These findings suggest that a principal's leadership characteristics do not influence student achievement in mathematics. Table 6 depicts the summary of the regression analysis.

Table 6
Model Summary of Correlations between Transformational Leadership and Mathematics Achievement

	N	F-value	*p*-value
IA – Mathematics	26	0.58	.454
IB – Mathematics	26	.078	.387
IM – Mathematics	26	0.66	.426

IS - Mathematics	26	1.26	.272
IC - Mathematics	26	0.36	.556

*Statistically significant (p < .05)

Reading achievement. Results indicated that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between one of the transformational leadership characteristics, inspirational motivation, and reading achievement, F(1, 23) = 4.83, p = .038, adjusted-r^2 = 0.156. These findings suggest that a principal's confidence, optimism, enthusiasm, and vision for the future has a positive influence on student reading achievement. Approximately 16.0% of the variation in reading achievement can be attributed to the principal's inspirational motivation. However, there was not a statistically significant positive relationship (p > .05) between the other four transformational leadership characteristics of a principal and reading achievement: (a) Idealized Attributes, F(1, 23) = 0.08, p = .783, (b) Idealized behavior, F(1, 23) = 2578, p = .620, (c) Inspirational Motivation, F(1, 23) = 4.83, p = .038, (d) Intellectual Stimulation, F(1, 23) = 1.93, p = .178, and (e) Individual Consideration, F(1, 23) = 1.33, p = .261. Table 7 depicts the summary of the regression analysis.

Table 7
Model Summary of Correlations between Transformational Leadership and Reading Achievement

	N	F-value	p-value
IA – Reading	25	0.78	.783
IB – Reading	25	0.25	.620
IM – Reading	25	4.83	.038*
IS - Reading	25	1.93	.178
IC - Reading	25	1.33	.261

*Statistically significant (p < .05)

School Climate and Student Achievement

Mathematics achievement. Results indicated that there was not a statistically significant relationship (p > .05) between the dimensions of school climate and mathematics achievement: (a) Order, F(1, 24) = 1.19, p = .286, (b) Leadership, F(1, 24) = 0.12, p = .733, (c) Environment, F(1, 24) = 0.85, p = .365, (d) Involvement, F(1, 24) = 0.13, p = .720, (e) Instruction, F(1, 24) = 0.88, p = .358, (f) Expectations, F(1, 24) = 0.18, p = .672, and (g) Collaboration, F(1, 24) = 0.63, p = .435. These findings suggest that school climate does not influence student mathematics achievement. Table 8 depicts the summary of the regression analysis.

Table 8
Model Summary of Correlations between School Climate and Mathematics Achievement

	N	F-value	*p*-value
Order - Mathematics	26	1.19	.286
Leadership – Mathematics	26	0.12	.733
Environment - Mathematics	26	0.85	.365
Involvement - Mathematics	26	0.13	.720
Instruction - Mathematics	26	0.88	.358
Expectations - Mathematics	26	0.18	.672
Collaboration - Mathematics	26	0.63	.435

*Statistically significant ($p < .05$)

Reading achievement. Results indicated that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between two of the dimensions of school climate, order and involvement, and reading achievement, $F(1, 23) = 4.38$, $p = .048$, adjusted-$r^2 = 0.138$. These findings suggest that an environment in which there is order and appropriate student behavior, along with parental and community involvement, can positively influence student reading achievement. Approximately 14.0% of the variation in reading achievement can be attributed to the school's climate. However, there was not a statistically significant relationship ($p > .05$) between the other five school climate dimensions and reading achievement: (a) Order, $F(1, 23) = 4.38$, $p = .048$, (b) Leadership, $F(1, 23) = 1.34$, $p = .258$, (c) Environment, $F(1, 23) = 2.01$, $p = .170$, (d) Involvement, $F(1, 23) = 4.42$, $p = .047$, (e) Instruction, $F(1, 23) = 1.29$, $p = .268$, (f) Expectations, $F(1, 23) = 2.64$, $p = .118$, and (g) Collaboration, $F(1, 23) = 2.13$, $p = .158$. Table 9 depicts the summary of the regression analysis.

Table 9
Model Summary of Correlations between School Climate and Reading Achievement

	N	F-value	*p*-value
Order - Reading	25	4.38	.048*
Leadership – Reading	25	1.34	.258
Environment – Reading	25	2.01	.170
Involvement - Reading	25	4.42	.047*
Instruction - Reading	25	1.29	.268
Expectations - Reading	25	2.6	.118
Collaboration – Reading	25	2.13	.158

*Statistically significant ($p < .05$)

Transformational Leadership Qualities of the Campus Principal

Pearson's product moment correlation coefficients were computed among the five transformational leadership factors for both the principal's self-assessment and his or her teachers' assessment. Only two out of the 25 correlations were found to be statistically significant. Results indicated that a correlation existed between the teacher's perception of his or her principal's inspirational motivation and the principal's perception of his or her own inspirational motivation, $r = .95$, $p = .012$, $r^2 = .90$. These findings suggest that a principal's optimism, enthusiasm, and vision influence the teacher's perceptions of those characteristics. Ninety percent of the variation found in a teacher's perception of the principal's "inspirational motivation" can be explained by the principal's perception of his or her "inspirational motivation".

Results also indicated that a correlation existed between the teacher's perception of his or her principal's idealized attributes and the principal's perception of his or her own inspirational motivation, $r = .89$, $p = .043$, $r^2 = .79$. These findings suggest that a principal's perception of his or her optimism, enthusiasm, and vision influence a teacher's perception of the principal's ability to instill pride in staff and focus in doing what is best for the campus. Seventy-nine percent of the variation found in a teacher's perception of the principal's "idealized attributes" can be explained by the principal's perception of his or her "inspirational motivation". Table 10 depicts the summary of the correlations.

Table 10
Correlations among Transformational Leadership Factors: Principals vs. Teachers

	Principal's IA	Principal's IB	Principal's IM	Principal's IS	Principal's IC
Teacher's IA	.45	.44	.89*	.49	.84
Teacher's IB	.62	.65	.81	.40	.75
Teacher's IM	.41	.45	.95*	.40	.79
Teacher's IS	.45	.76	.76	.38	.70
Teacher's IC	-.55	-.67	-.48	.00	-.26

*Statistically significant ($p < .05$)

Discussion

Transformational Leadership and School Climate

Leadership is a key component in the success of a campus. Transformational leaders have great potential to impact a school's climate (Bass & Riggio, 2006). In this study, all five factors of transformational leadership (idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) exhibited significant positive relationships with the seven dimensions of school climate, highlighting the importance of leadership on a campus. The perceptions of a principal's idealized attributes influence the overall perception of school climate. The results presented in this study were consistent with the findings of Hallinger and Heck (1998), who found that transformational leaders have an impact on teachers' perception of school climate. As supported by previous research (Bird et al., 2009; Rhodes et al., 2009) a teacher's perception of school climate was strongly related to his or her perceptions of the principal's idealized attributes. When teachers believe their principal exhibit a high level of idealized attributes, they identify better with their leader and thus leads them to feel more positive about the overall climate of the campus.

Idealized behaviors were similar to those of Owens (2004) and Vos et al. (2012), whereas the teachers' perceptions of the school climate was influenced by the behavior of the principals. A leader who is a role model for staff and behaves in accordance with the values he or she promotes can easily build commitment to the campus and its goals, which can lead teachers to perceive the school climate as a positive one. However, this study disagreed with Bulach and Lunenberg (1995), who found there were no significant differences in school climate perceptions as a result of principal leadership behaviors. One possible explanation for this difference could be the different survey instruments that were used. The current study used an instrument that focused specifically on transformational leadership characteristics, while Bulach and Lunenberg used a survey that simply defined leadership style.

The findings associated with inspirational motivation were consistent with findings reported by previous research (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Marks & Printy, 2003); principals who motivate and empower teachers can positively influence school climate. When a principal is excited about a particular initiative and displays optimism that campus goals can be accomplished, the teachers will share that enthusiasm and be more dedicated to the process. Principals who exhibit high levels of inspirational motivation also excite staff and encourage support for future plans, which has a positive influence on the teachers' perception of school climate.

The findings in this study for intellectual stimulation were consistent with the previous research completed by Leithwood (1994) and Moolenaar et al. (2010). Intellectual stimulation indicates that transformational leaders inspire their staff to be innovative and creative, while refraining from being critical of their mistakes (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Principals who encourage the development of teacher strengths can motivate teachers to try new instructional strategies. In addition, when teachers believe that the principal will support new initiatives and will help them work through problems, they are more willing to try something new. This level of support from the principal will positively influence a teacher's perception of school climate.

In this study the individualized consideration of the leader and the seven dimensions of school climate were similar to the previous research of Hauserman et al. (2013) and Leithwood and Jantzi (2005). Successful principals recognize that one of the most important components in

student success is the teacher. Teachers felt more positive about their school environment when their principal values them as a partner in the school program, and not just as a staff member. In addition, leaders who demonstrate individualized consideration exhibit more confidence in the abilities of their staff members, which positively influences school climate. Principals who provide professional development opportunities and a supportive climate will particularly influence the school climate dimensions of environment and collaboration. In addition, administrators can impact school climate when they choose to build trusting, cooperative relationships with teachers, particularly when they recognize the individual needs and desires of their staff.

Transformational Leadership and Student Achievement

In the current study there was insufficient evidence of a direct influence of transformational leadership on student achievement in the areas of mathematics and reading. These findings suggest that principals should examine their interactions with both students and teachers in an attempt to find more opportunities to impact student achievement. This is consistent with the findings of Heck and Hallinger (1996, 2005), Finnigan and Stewart (2009), Jacobson et al. (2005), Mulford et al. (2008), and Murakami-Ramalho et al. (2010) that a principal's transformational leadership characteristics do not have a direct influence on student achievement. Nevertheless, previous research (Braughton & Riley, 1991; Finnigan & Stewart, 2009; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Robinson et al., 2008) has determined that leadership, particularly transformational leadership, has an indirect influence on student achievement. When a leader builds trust with teachers and treats them as professionals, teachers excel in the campus environment and will have the opportunity to use their expertise to provide exceptional instruction to all students.

Conversely, Silva et al. (2011) determined that principals who engaged in discussions with students about their potential reading achievement met their established target goal on the state assessment. This suggests that principals who model the skills needed to be successful readers and who encourage the development of critical thinking strategies set a positive example for students, which can influence their level of reading achievement. Similar to mathematics achievement, as suggested by previous research (Braughton & Riley, 1991; Finnigan & Stewart, 2009; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Robinson et al., 2008), when a leader demonstrates trust in a teacher's skills and encourages the development of creative instructional strategies, reading achievement can be influenced, albeit indirectly.

School Climate and Student Achievement

There was not a significant relationship between the school climate dimensions and mathematics and reading achievement, consistent with the research of Shouppe and Pate (2010). This suggests that a teacher's perceptions of the overall climate of the campus does not influence the level of student achievement in mathematics and reading. Conversely, Choi and Chang (2011) determined that school climate had a significant effect on mathematics achievement. One explanation for the difference in results could be that Choi and Chang surveyed students as part of their data collection and the current study did not. In addition, Webster and Fisher (2002) discovered that the achievement outcomes of students in mathematics classes were influenced by the teachers' instructional strategies, which was a reflection of the perceptions of school climate.

In their study, Webster and Fisher not only examined student beliefs and attitudes about mathematics, but researched the teaching methods used in the classrooms. The inclusion of those factors could explain the differences between their study and the current one.

In the campuses studied, there was clear evidence of positive school climate based on the answers provided by teachers on the SCI-R. When teachers are more satisfied with their careers and feel connected to other staff and their students, they often provide better instruction to their students. While students may not recognize this as a factor in their success, school personnel understand that their satisfaction with their abilities to teach reading impacts the achievement levels of their students.

Transformational Leadership Qualities of the Campus Principal

When examining the relationship between a principal's self-assessment of the five transformational leadership factors and the teacher's perceptions of those same qualities, there was a correlation between inspirational motivation and idealized behaviors. Leaders use inspirational motivation to develop commitment among staff to a mission or goal (Bass & Riggio, 2006). This is similar to the research of Goff et al. (2014) suggesting that a principal's self-assessment of his or her leadership characteristics matched their teachers' perceptions of the same characteristics.

In this study, there was a positive relationship between the idealized behaviors of a leader and the seven dimensions of school climate. Similar to the findings of Owens (2004) and Vos et al. (2012), the teachers' perceptions of the school climate were influenced by the behavior of principals. A leader who is a role model for staff and behaves in accordance with the values he or she promotes can easily build commitment to the campus and its goals, which can lead teachers to perceive the school climate as a positive one. Conversely, Bulach and Lunenberg (1995) established that there were no significant differences in school climate perceptions as a result of principal leadership behaviors. One possible explanation for this difference could be the different survey instruments that were used. The current study used an instrument that focused specifically on transformational leadership characteristics, while Bulach and Lunenberg used a survey that simply defined leadership style.

Transformational leaders motivate and inspire those around them by valuing the work of a teacher and challenging staff to achieve more (Bass & Riggio, 2006). In this study, a significant positive relationship was discovered between the inspirational motivation of a leader and the seven dimensions of school climate. This is consistent with previous research (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Marks & Printy, 2003) in that principals who motivate and empower teachers can positively influence school climate. When a principal is excited about a particular initiative and displays optimism that campus goals can be accomplished, the teachers will share that enthusiasm and be more dedicated to the process. Principals who exhibit high levels of inspirational motivation also excite staff and encourage support for future plans, which has a positive influence on the teachers' perception of school climate.

The current study revealed a positive relationship between the intellectual stimulation characteristic of a leader and the school climate dimensions. This is consistent with the previous research completed by Leithwood (1993) and Moolenaar et al. (2010). Principals who encourage the development of teacher strengths can motivate teachers to try new instructional strategies. In addition, when teachers believe the principal will support new initiatives and will help them

work through problems, they are more willing to try something new. This level of support from the principal will positively influence a teacher's view of the school climate.

In this study there was also a positive relationship between the individualized consideration of the leader and the seven dimensions of school climate, similar to the previous research of Hauserman et al. (2013) and Leithwood and Jantzi (2005). Successful principals recognize that one of the most important components in student success is the teacher. Teachers felt more positive about their school environment when their principal values them as a partner in the school program, and not just as a staff member. In addition, leaders who demonstrate individualized consideration exhibit more confidence in the abilities of their staff members, which positively influences school climate. Principals who provide professional development opportunities and a supportive climate will particularly influence the school climate dimensions of environment and collaboration. In addition, administrators can impact school climate when they choose to build trusting, cooperative relationships with teachers, particularly when they recognize the individual needs and desires of their staff.

Implications

The findings of this study can be utilized by school administrators and teachers to improve school climate by addressing campus strengths and weaknesses. It is also important for any district to remember that while an individual school can develop a specific climate independently of the district as a whole, any changes in school culture or climate at the district level can affect school climate at the campus level (Tableman, 2004). While making positive changes in school climate can motivate staff and students to improve, long-term improvement will not be possible without the support of district-level staff. The district should also be concerned with providing professional development opportunities that can strengthen the transformational leadership characteristics of their campus leaders and build the efficacy of their teachers.

Given the importance of transformational leadership as a contributing factor to school climate, it would be reasonable to conclude that regular evaluation of a principal's leadership characteristics should be conducted. When feedback is then provided in a timely manner, campus leaders can ensure they are providing appropriate leadership to their staff and can make changes or improvements if needed. In addition, administrators who wish to improve students' work ethic and emphasis on academics should be fully aware of any school-level factors that could help or hinder student outcomes (Bevans et al., 2007). In addition, principals can work on developing their transformational leadership skills in an effort to positively impact school climate. Another area of focus for a district should be on the hiring process. District personnel should be conscious of the leadership style of potential candidates to guarantee that a principal is chosen who exhibits the transformational leadership characteristics that will impact school climate the most. The MLQ-5X could be administered to potential hires as a means of determining the transformational leadership characteristics that person will exhibit.

Given the connection between transformational leadership and student achievement is an indirect one, it would be helpful for school administrators to assess their evaluation procedures of teachers and the instructional strategies being used in the classroom. In addition, principals should encourage professional development in an effort to build a toolbox of teaching methods that are effective in engaging students and promoting the critical thinking skills needed for many of the standardized tests students are expected to take.

Brookover et al. (1982) wrote that one of the most important concepts related to school climate is that it can be changed. With increasing pressure and incentives to become more innovative and to create more effective learning environments, educational systems are constantly seeking new ideas and practices for the purpose of improving performance (Moolenaar et al., 2010). Therefore, the findings of the current study could be used by school administrators and teachers to improve school climate. Schools with effective learning climates have been found to meet high achievement levels regardless of the type of community served by the school (Brookover et al., 1982). This study did not find a significant relationship between transformational leadership and student achievement, nor did it find a significant relationship between school climate and student achievement at the elementary level. This suggests that school administrators and teachers need to examine other potential factors when addressing school achievement for the purpose of improvement.

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Developing a Survey to Determine Student Perceptions of Readiness at the Beginning of an Educational Leadership Program

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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In this study, researchers developed a survey to determine student perceptions of readiness prior to entering an educational leadership program. The researchers analyzed and established the reliability and validity of the survey created to understand student readiness as they enter the program. The information garnered from this survey will help faculty in the program make instructional decisions based on the student feedback and will be used to provide suggestions to the faculty for program improvement. The results will also be used to contribute to program accreditation through the Council for Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP).

This study identified how trustworthy and dependable the instrument is in determining student perceptions of readiness for educational leadership based on present knowledge levels. A panel of experts from areas outside of the research population was used to establish content and face validity of the instrument. Internal consistency and reliability was measured using Cronbach's alpha. Fifty-one survey scores were used from students enrolled in the educational leadership program across the Commonwealth of Virginia. The survey was given in July of this year.

Keywords: Assessment Reliability, Program Accreditation, CAEP, Program Improvement, School Leadership Preparation.

The role of a school principal has drastically changed over the past 15 years. As educational leadership preparation programs work to provide the timeliest and most relevant information to their students, it is important for faculty to understand how well prepared our students are as they enter the program. In order to best meet our students' needs, faculty must understand the students' levels of competency in a variety of areas related to the area of educational leadership. Knowing students' needs at the beginning of their Educational Leadership Program will allow professors in those programs to tailor instruction accordingly so that students exit programs with full mastery of state and national standards in the area of educational leadership. To this end, one of the most effective ways to gain this information is through the use of a valid and reliable survey.

In addition, having baseline data of students' perceptions of knowledge will allow faculty in the program to track and measure student growth as they exit the program. Pre and post-assessment of student perceptions is critical when working to improve program content and offerings in the future.

The process the researchers underwent in this study will be useful to both professors and students in other programs of educational leadership as it will provide a concrete example of how to tailor course curriculum to the expressed needs of the students, much like doctors diagnose maladies and provide treatments specific to patients' needs. The information gained from the study will also help the program meet the continuous improvement expectations of the Council for Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP), as explained below.

Literature Review

Definition of terms

Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency of a measure or instrument. If we attain the same result repeatedly the measure is considered reliable. For example, "if an assessment is designed to measure a trait (such as introversion), then each time the assessment is administered to a subject, the results should be approximately the same" (Cherry, 2013, p. 1).

Face Validity

Anastasi (1988) defines face validity ".. pertains to whether the test "looks valid" to the examinees who take it, the administrative personnel who decide on its use, and other technically untrained observers (p.144)."

Content Validity

Clause (2015) defines content validity as "…how accurately an assessment or measurement tool taps into the various aspects of the specific construct in question. In other words, do the questions really assess the construct in question, or are the responses by the person answering the questions influenced by other factors?"

Cronbach's Alpha

"Cronbach's alpha is a model of internal consistency reliability based on the average inter-item correlation of an instrument" (Rovai, Baker, and Ponton, 2014, p. 545).

Current Literature

One of the primary purposes for starting this study was to find ways to demonstrate the educational leadership program is meeting the needs of the students as evidenced through student

perceptions and demonstrated growth. This information is not only useful to the faculty as a whole, but is also a requirement of national accrediting agencies such as the Council for Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP). One of the primary focuses of CAEP is demonstrated student growth; CAEP wants to ensure programs it accredits "… advance excellence in educator preparation through evidence-based accreditation that assures quality and supports continuous improvement to strengthen P-12 student learning." (CAEP, 2015).

CAEP (2015) has advanced standards for Educational Leadership preparation programs. Three CAEP standards buttress the importance of this study. Pertinent CAEP "Advanced Program Components" are as follows:

- **Satisfaction of Completers 4.4:** The provider demonstrates, using measures that result in valid and reliable data, that advanced program completers perceive their preparation as relevant to the responsibilities they confront on the job, and that the preparation was effective.
- **Quality and Strategic Evaluation 5.1**: The provider's quality assurance system is comprised of multiple measures that can monitor advanced program candidate progress, advanced completer achievements, and provider operational effectiveness. Evidence demonstrates that the provider satisfies all CAEP standards.
- **Continuous Improvement 5.3**: The provider regularly and systematically assesses performance against its goals and relevant standards, tracks results over time, tests innovations and the effects of selection criteria on subsequent progress and completion, and uses results to improve program elements and processes (CAEP, 2015).

In order to measure the satisfaction of those who complete an educational leadership program, it is helpful to know students' perceptions of readiness at the beginning of the program. But few studies have been done to measure the satisfaction of completers of educational leadership programs. Orr & Orphanos (2011) found that little is known about the impact of innovative programs and their components on principal behavior, and most important, on how those behaviors influence teaching and learning. Moreover, for the research that does exist, "evidence" is commonly based upon the self-reported perceptions of principals or the perceptions of various school stakeholders rather than measurable data of school and student outcomes (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007).

A study completed by the Stanford Educational Leadership Institute examined several kinds of evidence about program outcomes: candidates' and graduates' perceptions about their preparedness for various aspects of the principalship, self-reports of practices in key areas known to be related to effectiveness, and entry and plans to remain in the principalship, compared to a national sample; perceptions of employers about graduates' capacities; observations of graduates' practices on the job; and data about student achievement trajectories in graduates' schools, but did not study students' satisfaction with the educational leadership program preparedness. (Davis & Darling-Hammond, 2012). In "Student Satisfaction of Online Courses for Educational Leadership" authors Pauline Sampson, John Leonard, Julia Ballenger, and Craig Coleman (2009) examined students' satisfaction of online courses in a principal and superintendent certification program in the online Educational Leadership program at Stephen F. Austin University. The study "explored the students' satisfaction of course components: instruction, communication, assessment, leadership, teamwork, professionalism, and respect/diversity. The most recent group of students (2009) with a totally online delivery format

completed the survey and showed an overall positive satisfaction with overall means between 3.77 and 4.30 on a five point Likert-scale with a 5 meaning strong agreement with satisfaction."

In March of 2008, Douglas Summer, a doctoral student at Baker University completed his dissertation entitled **"**A Measurement Of Student Satisfaction Levels As A Means Of Program Evaluation: An Examination Of Baker University's Educational Leadership Doctoral Program," concluding, "there was general satisfaction expressed by the participants in the study across all of the program design but… a need for improved efforts in the area of student advising."

More has been written about the quality and strategic evaluation of educational leadership programs but not necessarily as those program evaluations pertain to the satisfaction of program completers. Most notably the UCEA Center for the Evaluation of Educational Leadership Preparation and Practice (CELP, 2015) "…makes available valid and reliable evaluation research tools, methods and training materials and strategies for leadership preparation programs. Through this center, UCEA (2015) fosters:

1. The collection and analysis of survey evaluation research data for program benchmarking and in-depth multi-program analysis of program features and graduate career and leadership practices outcomes.
2. The creation of a systematic process for collecting and analyzing state data on degrees and certification by institution, and career advancement and school progress by graduates and institutions.
3. The provision of evaluation training provides technical assistance and support for leadership preparation programs and establishes regional train-the-trainer opportunities to increase evaluation technical assistance capacity locally.
4. The creation of a sustainable system for on-going evaluation research to support the on-going evaluation and improvement of leadership preparation programs."

Similarly, many educational leadership programs strive for continuous improvement but there is little or no literature to verify that such improvement has been based upon student perceptions of readiness at the beginning of a program. Rather, improvements have been founded on principles set by national and state standards. In 1996 the Council of Chief State School Officers promulgated the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC standards); these standards have been updated several times over the past nineteen years, the latest update is currently in progress. Those six standards specify attributes and qualities school leaders throughout the nation must possess and therefore, form the basis for most educational leadership preparation programs in general. It is significant to note that Chief State School Officers established these standards as desirable attributes of school administrators throughout the nation--not in response to students' perceptions.

The ISLLC standards were followed by the Educational Leadership Consortium Council Standards (ELCC) in 2011. These standards specify attributes for "institutions undergoing NCATE Accreditation and ELCC Program Review for Advanced Programs at the Master, Specialist, or Doctoral level that prepare Assistant Principals, Principals, Curriculum Directors, Supervisors, and other educational leaders in a school building environment." Accordingly, educational leadership programs follow those seven standards to produce graduates whose skills are in compliance with those national standards and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, but not in response to students' perceptions of educational leadership preparation programs.

Another example of a national organization setting standards that educational leadership programs throughout the nation pay heed to is the *Quality Principles for Educational Leadership Programs* specified by the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC, 2014). "TEAC's principles and standards are compatible with the standards promulgated by many states and professional educational organizations, for example, the six standards of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) and the seven standards of the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA, 2015)."

Some states have personalized those national standards to their states such as:

"*The William Cecil Golden School Leadership Development Program* was established by the 2006 Florida Legislature to provide a high quality, competency-based, customized, comprehensive and coordinated statewide professional development system for current and emerging school leaders. The program is aligned with and supports Florida's *Principal Leadership Standards*, the standards of the National Staff Development Council, the Florida Professional Development Protocol Standards and NCLB requirements for high quality professional development (Florida Department of Education, 2015)."

California has also established the California Professional Standards for Educational Leaders. "These standards were adapted from the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards for School Leaders (1996). Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers. Adaptations were made for the California Professional Standards for Educational Leaders (2001) by representatives from the California School Leadership Academy, as well as the Association of California School Administrators, California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, California Department of Education, and California colleges and universities. (California Department of Education, 2015)." Connecticut developed its own *School Leadership Standards*, which serve "…as the foundation for a variety of state functions, including leadership preparation program accreditation, licensure assessment, school administrator evaluation and professional development from induction through the professional certificate…by adapting the national Interstate School Leadership Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards for use in Connecticut (Connecticut Department of Education, 2012)."

Thus, the paucity of literature related to the perception of students' impact upon educational leadership programs substantiates the importance of this study. Furthermore the CAEP requirements to "regularly and systematically assess performance against its goals and relevant standards, track results over time, test innovations and the effects … on subsequent progress and completion, and use results to improve program elements and processes" further demonstrates the significance of this study.

Methodology

This research study was conducted in July of 2015. The survey was administered to new students who will begin their educational leadership program this fall in one educational leadership program in the Commonwealth of Virginia. The analysis of the responses was conducted in late July 2015 in time for reporting during the NCPEA conference.

Instrument

The survey instrument being used in this study was created based on the 38 internship objectives developed by members of the faculty in the Educational Leadership Program at Virginia Tech.

The objectives were formulated through a review of the most recent ISLLC standards, as well as the standards outlined by the Virginia Department of Education (VDOE). Each of the internship objectives is aligned directly to one of the seven current ELCC standards as well as standards for the VDOE.

The instrument has been divided into six distinct sections, with each section containing four statements for the students to respond to. The six broad sections are:

1. Knowledge of leadership and change functions
2. Knowledge of student services
3. Knowledge of school operations
4. Knowledge of school board policies
5. Knowledge of human resource functions
6. Knowledge of curriculum and instructional supervision

Not all of the 38 internship objectives were included in the survey. Some were omitted as the objective was based on an activity rather than garnering specific knowledge. In total, 24 of the 38 objectives were converted into survey items for this study. There is also a final section of the survey that allows students to make general comments regarding their knowledge levels, as well as any other area of interest or concern.

Population

Fifty-one students from five different Virginia Tech satellite sites across the Commonwealth were surveyed for this study. This represents approximately 92% of the total population. These sites include: Hampton Roads, Richmond, Northern Virginia, Abingdon, and Roanoke. Each student is about to begin his/her first term as a graduate student in the Principal Preparation Program within the Educational Leadership Program at Virginia Tech beginning in the fall of 2015. All students are current practicing teachers, or central office personnel. Data from each site was analyzed independently, as well as collectively to provide information to individual faculty members, as well as the faculty as a whole.

Data Collection and Statistical Analysis

Data collection. Data was collected through the students' completion of the *Students' Perceptions of Knowledge Related to School Leadership* survey via Qualtrics Survey Software™. A welcome email was sent to all participants during the second week of July informing them of the reason for the survey, as well as providing students a link to access the instrument. Students were asked to complete the survey as part of the program. The final date for collection of data was July 25, 2015. Data was then organized into an Excel spreadsheet entered into the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS) for analysis.

Validity. After the initial development of the survey in the spring of 2015, the assessment was then pilot-tested with several faculty members to help establish content and face validity. The feedback from the faculty was reviewed, and adjustments to the instrument were made as needed.

The items and the instrument were next reviewed for content and face validity via an online focus group of current school and central office administrators in the Hampton Roads area during the month of May of 2015. Educational focus groups that provide feedback on an instrument help confirm its content validity since participants were practicing experts in the field

(Cannizzaro, 2007). Clause (2015) noted "content validity is most often measured by relying on the knowledge of people who are familiar with the construct being measured. These subject-matter experts are usually provided with access to the measurement tool and are asked to provide feedback on how well each question measures the construct in question." As such, feedback from this group provided an effective method to establish both face and content validity, and resulted in additional adjustments to the instrument. One adjustment was to reorder several of the categories to improve the flow of the survey. Other adjustments were minor in nature, including words, punctuation and typos.

Reliability. Rovai, et. al. (2012) recommends measuring internal consistency and reliability using Cronbach's alpha. After the data collection has been completed, each of the six distinct categories based on the internship objectives was individually tested for reliability based on the responses to the four sub-questions under each category. As a final measure, the entire response set was tested to determine overall reliability. Reliability tests resulting in an alpha of .7 are generally accepted as having high reliability (Rovai, Baker & Ponton, 2012, p. 385). Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient generally ranges between 0 and 1. However, there is actually no lower limit to the coefficient. The closer Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0 the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale. George and Mallery (2003) provide the following rules of thumb: "_ > .9 – Excellent, _ > .8 – Good, _ > .7 – Acceptable, _ > .6 – Questionable, _ > .5 – Poor, and_ < .5 – Unacceptable" (p. 231).

Findings

Knowledge of Leadership and Change Functions

For responses to the intern's performance related to *Knowledge of leadership and change functions*, 48 cases of the possible 51 were included in the analysis (Table 1). Students who did not have a complete data set were excluded. Cronbach's alpha for the 48 of 51 items was .632 (Table 2), which represents a questionable correlation between items. The instrument for *Knowledge of leadership and change functions* can be deemed somewhat reliable.

Table 1
Knowledge of leadership and change functions case summary

Cases	N	%
Valid	48	94.1
Excluded[a]	3	5.9
Total	51	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Table 2
Knowledge of leadership and change functions

Reliability statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	α	N
Group 1	.632	4

Knowledge of Student Services

For responses to the intern's performance related to *Knowledge of student services*, 48 cases of the possible 51 were included in the analysis (Table 3). Students who did not have a complete data set were excluded. Cronbach's alpha for the 48 of 51 items was .804 (Table 4), which represents a good correlation between items. The instrument for *Knowledge of student services* can be deemed reliable.

Table 3
Knowledge of student services case summary

Cases	N	%
Valid	48	94.1
Excluded[a]	3	5.9
Total	51	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Table 4
Knowledge of student services

Reliability statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	α	N
Group 1	.804	4

Knowledge of School Operations

For responses to the intern's performance related to *Knowledge of school operations,* 48 cases of the possible 51 were included in the analysis (Table 5). Students who did not have a complete data set were excluded. Cronbach's alpha for the 48 of 51 items was .850 (Table 6), which represents a good correlation between items. The instrument for *Knowledge of school operations* can be deemed reliable.

Table 5
Knowledge of school operations case summary

Cases	N	%
Valid	48	94.1
Excluded[a]	3	5.9
Total	51	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Table 6
Knowledge of school operations

Reliability statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	α	N
Group 1	.850	4

Knowledge of School Board Policies

For responses to the intern's performance related to *Knowledge of school board policies*, 48 cases of the possible 51 were included in the analysis (Table 7). Students who did not have a complete data set were excluded. Cronbach's alpha for the 48 of 51 items was .896 (Table 8), which represents an excellent correlation between items. The instrument for *Knowledge of school board policies* can be deemed highly reliable.

Table 7
Knowledge of school board policies case summary

Cases	N	%
Valid	48	94.1
Excluded[a]	3	5.9
Total	51	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Table 8
Knowledge of school board policies

Reliability statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	α	N
Group 1	.896	4

Knowledge of Human Resource Functions

Knowledge of human resource functions, 48 cases of the possible 51 were included in the analysis (Table 9). Students who did not have a complete data set were excluded. Cronbach's alpha for the 48 of 51 items was .627 (Table 10), which represents a questionable correlation between items. The instrument for *Knowledge of human resource functions* can be deemed somewhat reliable.

Table 9
Knowledge of human resource functions case summary

Cases	N	%
Valid	48	94.1
Excluded[a]	3	5.9
Total	51	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Table 10
Knowledge of human resource functions

Reliability statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	α	N
Group 1	.627	4

Knowledge of Curriculum and Instructional Supervision

For responses to the intern's performance related to *Knowledge of curriculum and instructional supervision*, 48 cases of the possible 51 were included in the analysis (Table 11). Students who did not have a complete data set were excluded. Cronbach's alpha for the 48 of 51 items was .872 (Table 12), which represents an good correlation between items. The instrument for *Knowledge of curriculum and instructional supervision* can be deemed highly reliable.

Table 11
Knowledge of curriculum and instructional supervision case summary

Cases	N	%
Valid	48	94.1
Excluded[a]	3	5.9
Total	51	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Table 12
Knowledge of curriculum and instructional supervision

Reliability statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	α	N
Group 1	.872	4

Reliability of Complete Survey

For the final analysis conducted, the researchers tested all survey items combined to determine the overall reliability of the instrument. 48 cases of the possible 51 were included in the analysis (Table 13). Students who did not have a complete data set were excluded. Cronbach's alpha for the 48 of 51 items was .927 (Table 14), which represents an excellent correlation between items. The instrument overall can be deemed highly reliable.

Table 13
Overall instrument case summary

Cases	N	%
Valid	48	94.1
Excluded[a]	3	5.9
Total	51	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Table 14
Overall instrument reliability

Reliability statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	α	N
Group 1	.927	24

Conclusions and Future Study

This research study has helped to determine that the instrument created for the purpose of determining student perceptions of readiness at the beginning of the educational leadership program is both valid and reliable. Multiple measures were used to determine both face validity as well as content validity, including using a panel of experts in the field. The reliability of the instrument appears to be good overall. When the six independent groups were evaluated, Alpha ratings ranged from .627 (questionable) to .896 (excellent), but when the instrument was evaluated in totality it yielded an Alpha rating of .927 (excellent). For these reasons the researchers deem the instrument reliable.

Recommendations for future study

The researchers are aware that the *n* value used in this study is low, though it does represent the entire population of the study group at this time. It is recommended that this study be conducted again when the next cohort begins, and combine the two groups to increase the *n* value, thus improving the reliability.

It is also recommended that the data collected through this research be used by the educational leadership faculty to make changes to their course content. A qualitative study could be conducted to determine the level of changes made by the faculty to determine if the research is contributing to overall program improvement.

Finally, it is recommended that the study population be given the survey again upon completion of the educational leadership program. This will allow the faculty to determine the level of growth attained by students in the program in the areas of focus. Further changes to program content could be determined after this additional study.

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Strengthening a Principal Preparation Internship by Focusing on Diversity Issues

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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This study discusses East Carolina University's (ECU) preparation program and its emphasis on the study and application of diversity throughout the internship. ECU's comprehensive internship provided candidates time to apply theory and knowledge about school leadership and diversity topics addressed on a monthly basis at internship seminars. A qualitative analysis of interns' reflections about their learning and experiences suggested that the focus on diversity was beneficial. Findings indicated learning about diversity throughout the internship opened opportunities for interns to work with students, parents and staff with a new found knowledge of diversity learned by attending lectures by scholars in various diversity topics and engaging in dialogue with principals about diversity topics. Principal preparation faculty realized the importance of selecting engaging presenters to encourage interns to embrace learning about a topic and the need for continual learning about diversity issues that affect the university's service region.

Introduction

The job of today's school principal is increasingly challenging. School leaders are tasked with improving student achievement for *all* students, rethinking how their schools are organized to promote teaching and learning, expanding the expectations held by all those within the building, and ensuring that policies and practices support student progress for all students (McKenzie & Scheurich, 2004). Research suggests that principals' beliefs form the basis for their perceptions, judgments, expectations and their practice (Brown, 2004). In order for them to serve increasingly diverse students, staff and communities, principals need to be culturally aware and responsive; they need to develop the beliefs and capabilities to lead all stakeholders effectively and positively (Gao & Mager, 2011).

Principals generally obtain a master of school administration degree to develop their leadership skills increasingly in programs with a commitment to diversity (Howard, 2006; Howard, 2010). It is becoming imperative that universities establish exemplary preparation programs that cultivate principals who feel prepared and who demonstrate competency in those practices associated with strong leadership that can create schools where all students, including the economically, racially and ethnically diverse ones, can be successful (Darling-Hammond, Meyerson, LaPointe, & Orr, 2010; McKenzie & Scheurich, 2004). The purpose of this paper is to examine how one principal preparation program was modified to better prepare candidates to communicate, interact, and work positively with individuals from diverse cultural groups.

Literature Review

Preparing Principals: Cultural Competence

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) mandated that schools be responsible for meeting learning standards for *all* students; disaggregated data is used to prove this point. As increasingly diverse students populate classrooms, the pressure to increase the achievement of all of these students' demands principals use effective methods, including supporting and developing effective teachers and implementing valuable organizational processes (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). Schools must educate students who vary in race and ethnicity, language, cultural background, religion, socio-economic status, sexual orientation and abilities. Schools must create environments that welcome and support *all* students irrespective of their differences (Heraldo, Brown, & Forde, 2007). At the same time, while student populations are increasingly diverse, teacher populations are increasingly homogeneous – white, middle class and cloistered away from the communities in which they teach (Feistritzer, 2011; Howard, 2006). Teachers often must meet the challenge to educate students whose community members they may never have met; that they may know little about; and whose race and ethnicity, culture and social backgrounds are significant contributors to the kinds of students they are and the ways in which they learn. In order for principals to support teachers they may need to help develop teachers' understanding, positive beliefs and expectations about their students, communities and school families.

Principals are also a key to the required restructuring and rethinking that schools must undergo (McKenzie & Scheurich, 2004). In order for principals to lead this effort they must be made aware of diversity (Howard, 2006), must come to understand the urgency of becoming culturally competent (Samuels, 2014), and must be critically reflective in how they will do this

(Orr & Orphanos, 2011; Wisniewski, 2015). McKenzie's and Scheurich's (2004) research focuses on barriers principals face in developing schools that ensure quality learning for all students, including patterns in their own thinking and behavior that act as traps for creating equitable schools for diverse students. In their research they find that the onus of developing school leaders who can be reflective and capable of leading school reform towards equity, is on universities that prepare future principals. Universities are tasked with helping future principals understand and recognize equity traps and the kinds of deficit thinking that can be incessant in the lives of the most vulnerable children. Principals must then learn to recognize these traps in themselves before they can be effective in their schools. University preparation programs can advance this process and provide workable and proven ways to reshape deficit thinking thereby removing equity traps so that schools can be fair for all children (McKenzie & Scheurich, 2004).

Preparing Principals: An Internship Model

One of the ways that has been researched and proven effective for university principal preparation programs is a well-designed and supervised internship (Darling-Hammond et al., 2010). Internships have the potential to link theoretical understanding of diversity with practical school experiences (Wilmore & Bratlien, 2005). When principal interns are reflective about the way that their classroom learning informs their leadership skills, they can work through equity traps that they encounter. Even when principal interns are unable to make the changes they understand are necessary, the process helps them to consider ways in which they will address these traps once they are working principals.

Cross disciplinary studies on experiential learning show that exposure to concrete elements of real-world practice can increase a leader's ability to contemplate, analyze, and systematically plan strategies for action (Butler, 2008). Internships provide authentic experiences to bridge the gap between theory and practice when students work in schools addressing daily school issues with the support of a school based supervisor (Cunningham, 2007). This is especially true for principal interns who may not have had experience with diversity.

In this era of accountability for all students, principal interns need to learn to not only manage a school but also to transform it. To be agents of change, principal preparation programs need to provide interns with an internship experience that is broad, varied and authentic in the areas of instructional leadership, school improvement and student achievement (Anast-May, Buckner, & Greer, 2011; Cunningham & Sherman, 2008). These experiences must include professional mentor principals who can help transition the intern from classroom teacher to school leader. Good mentors provide feedback on a day-to-day basis, structure opportunities for interns to problem solve important school issues and help interns develop personal beliefs that will drive their leadership (Gray & SREB Team, 2007).

A robust internship that spans an academic school year experience is essential to principal preparation because students get to learn extensive cultural aspects of school leadership. In addition to experiencing varied situations, the students have the opportunity to build relationships over time, which is helpful in implementing change. Gray (2001) a principal intern wrote about her robust internship experiences and strongly suggested that integrating the intern into the school is an essential component when preparing schools for the intern. The mentoring principal and the intern should develop a relationship and in turn build relationships with other members in the building. It is important that interns meet the other team members and

get to know them on a professional and personal level. As a result of building these relationships the staff is more likely to view the intern as a leader in the building.

In many principal preparation programs interns are provided a mentor to serve as a guide in the process of becoming an effective administrator (Darling-Hammond et al., 2010; Gray & SREB Team, 2007). Well-designed programs include extensive mentored internships that integrate theory and practice and progressively develop administrative competencies through a range of practical experiences (Ringler, Rouse, & St. Clair, 2012; Risen & Tripses, 2008). The internship phase of educational leadership preparation programs should provide the core of the experience for graduate students, providing students with opportunities to serve as apprentice administrators and solve real school problems (Pounder, Reitzug, & Young, 2002).

Preparing Principals: A Professional Development Model

Effective professional development should be ongoing so that the learning may be transferred into practice (Joyce & Showers, 2002; Zepeda, Parylo, & Bengtson, 2014). Through professional development, teachers and principals continue improving their knowledge and skills and keep abreast of the research and best practices in education. The Learning Forward Association, formerly known as The National Staff Development Council, developed standards to identify effective professional development (Learning Forward Association, 2014). These professional development standards are based on research that provides a framework that focuses on engaging educators in their own learning. These standards outline the importance of engaging in ongoing meaningful learning intertwined with specific contexts. More detailed information on the Standards for Professional Learning can be accessed at the Professional Learning website (Learning Forward Association, 2014) http://www.learningforward.org/standards/standards.cfm.

Standards for professional development apply to principals as well. Principal preparation programs should incorporate research-based professional development processes to impact interns' leadership skills. Joyce's and Showers' (2002) seminal research indicates that follow up processes such as coaching, study groups, or peer observations enable adults to acquire new knowledge and skills and to transfer that knowledge and those skills to active practice. A principal preparation program accomplishes the follow up processes by incorporating coaching, study groups, and observation in the entire program's coursework, but especially in the internships and field experiences (Orr & Barber, 2005). To implement this principle, principal preparation programs should facilitate learning situations that integrate new ideas into existing knowledge. Secondly, it is important that principal preparation programs assess specific needs of individuals and groups and address the needs of the learners (Joyce & Showers, 2002). To do so, principal preparation programs should facilitate activities that build success incrementally and helped learners become more effective and competent over time. Finally, principal preparation programs must involve learners in situations that are practical and relevant. To achieve this, research suggests that applying the new learning to the context in which the adult works is beneficial (Tennant & Pogson, 1995).

According to Learning Forward Association (2014) there are three essential prongs to professional development: content, context, and process. Together these help ensure meaningful learning of concepts and skills for educators. The content of any professional development should be research-based and appropriate to promote educators' learning. Delivering content alone, devoid of understanding the context, undermines the relevancy to the audience. The context refers to creating a learning environment that is relevant and more likely to be conducive

to learning. In addition, context addresses the audience's learning needs by incorporating examples and strategies that are germane to a specific site. Finally, the process of a professional development from introduction to follow up should focus on learning outcomes, including an evaluation of its effectiveness.

Preparing Principals: Framework for Evaluating Professional Development

Before any professional development is initiated, it is essential to plan for the intended outcomes and the evaluation of the effectiveness of these outcomes. Thomas Guskey (2000) proposes a framework for evaluating professional development for K-12 educators that assesses and evaluates five different levels; initial training; participant learning; organizational support; implementation of new learning; and finally impact on K-12 student learning outcomes. He further recommends that the levels be used for planning professional development and thus consider which assessment data will be collected for evaluation at each of the five critical levels.

Guskey's (2000) framework for evaluating professional development presents five levels that build on each other; consequently success at level one is requisite for success at higher levels. The first level of assessment looks at the participants' reactions to the professional development experience. This level determines participants' initial satisfaction with their professional development and provides data to determine not only how to improve this professional development but also indicates participants' willingness to continue on this learning path. The second level of assessment determines what participants learned from professional development. The second level focuses on measuring the knowledge and skills participants gained. Data obtained to evaluate this level may be used to improve the content, format, and organization of a professional development.

This third level of evaluation focuses on the organization and its support of the professional development opportunity. At this level, the assessment determines if the professional development promoted changes compatible with the mission of the school or district. The data gathered at this level is used to document and improve organizational support and to inform future change efforts. The fourth level of assessment determines both degree and quality of implementation of the new knowledge and skills. Sufficient time must pass to allow participants to adapt the new ideas and practices to their own setting. The fifth level of assessment measures the effect of a professional development on student learning (Guskey, 2000). This final level of assessment is complex because there are many external factors that affect student learning in addition to teacher instruction. Researchers are not able to determine a direct link between teacher professional development and their students' learning outcomes. Yoon, Duncan, Lee, Scarloss, and Shapley (2007) conducted a comprehensive meta-analysis analysis of 1,343 studies focused on kindergarten through high school between 1986 and 2003 and only nine studies met the criteria for credible evidence set by the *What Works Clearinghouse*, a U.S. Department of Education (2013) resource that provides educators with scientific evidence about professional development programs that affect student learning.

The Context of This Study: Focusing on Diversity during the Internship

The principal preparation program at East Carolina University (ECU) is structured to provide students with key features of exemplary programs. Programs differ in emphasis, however, important features are replicated in myriad programs: recruitment and selection of teacher-

leaders; focus on instructional leadership and school improvement; integration of coursework and fieldwork; cohort models; and robust internships (Anast-May et al., 2011; Cunningham, 2007; Davis et al., 2005). ECU is developing an MSA program that comprises many of these features including a robust internship that requires candidates to complete one thousand hours of field experiences working with licensed and practicing school principals. Due to the intensity of the internship requirement, school district leaders and ECU faculty communicate continually about regional needs and interns' learning experiences. Through this ongoing dialogue it became clear to school leaders and university faculty that changing demographics are reshaping many schools in North Carolina and it is requisite that school leadership be prepared to work with increased diversity in staff and students. As a result, ECU enhanced the internship by adding a focus on diversity to help interns understand how the changes in race, ethnicity, religion and language in eastern North Carolina affects the way school leaders must work. This study explores ECU's emphasis on cultural diversity through the use of a monthly diversity seminar conducted during the internship year and its effect on principal candidates' learning and skills.

Methodology

Design of Study

In this study, professional development about diversity topics was included on a monthly basis at internship seminars, after which interns focused on each month's topic while completing their internship experiences at their various schools. At the end of each month, interns critically reflected (Wisniewski, 2015) on their learning about the diversity topic of the month. This process was designed for interns to have the opportunity to learn one diversity topic at a time and to be critically observant of how this newfound knowledge of diversity manifested itself at their internship site. For this reason, it was important to evaluate principal interns' learning about each diversity topic.

The overall research question that guided this study was: Did the addition of diversity topics to the internship have an influence on students' leadership skills? This research question was studied by using the first two levels of Guskey's (2000) framework for evaluating professional development: assessing the principal interns' satisfaction with the monthly professional development activities and principal interns' perceptions of how prepared they were to communicate, interact, and work positively with individuals from diverse cultural groups.

Analysis of participants' reactions to the monthly lecture on diversity and its lecturer were defined by Guskey's (2000) in the first level in his framework for evaluating professional development. Data were gathered through questionnaires given at the end of each month's training session (see Appendix A). These critical reflections were analyzed to determine initial satisfaction with the professional development experience. The information gathered was used to improve program design and delivery of professional development (Guskey, 2000).

Analysis of participants' perceived learning outcomes on diversity were defined by Guskey's (2000) in the second level in his framework for evaluating professional development. Data were gathered from a written reflection document (see Appendix B) that elicited participants' perceived learning about diversity. The final reflection asked students to rate presenters, presentations, and reflect on the impact of the topics on their learning and leadership skills. Data that were gathered were used to demonstrate the overall impact of the monthly diversity seminars.

For this study, the sample included all principal candidates (n=62) completing their 2012-2013 internship; 58 students completed the final reflection by the required due date for a response rate of 82%. The remaining 4 students' reflections were submitted past the due date for various reasons and therefore were not included in this study.

Data Analysis

A qualitative analysis was conducted on written monthly reflections and a final overall reflection using a grounded theory approach to determine patterns of responses (Glasser & Strauss, 1967). When reviewing responses the researchers read all the documents first to determine general themes that emerged by diversity topic. Researchers then read the written responses for a second time and coded the broader feedback into several themes within diversity topics. Additional readings focused coding on developing themes by candidates' reactions to the presenter of each diversity topic.

Limits of the Study

This study is delimited by several factors. First, the data only represents intern perceptions of the first year of implementation of this program. The findings of the program were used for program improvements and since we continue to collect data it will eventually allow for longitudinal analysis of impact. Second, the results are limited to the context of predominately rural eastern North Carolina and therefore the findings cannot be generalized, but must be contextualized to other locations. Finally, there is a need to gather additional quantitative data that informs of interns' initial and final self-assessments to determine changes in their sense of efficacy and beliefs about cultural competency.

Findings

All interns commented on the overall value of the seminars and all recommended continuation of the program based on four themes. Sixty percent (n=35) of interns stated that the seminars helped them be more open minded and accepting of diversity. Seventy percent (n=40) also became aware of the dimensions of diversity found in their school community. Sixty-two percent (n=36) learned strategies for helping K-12 students embrace their own diversity. Finally, although there were only 14 comments (24%), the topic of poverty was considered the most immediately applicable seminar among respondents because interns recognized the relevance of this topic to their own school community and learning how to address the needs of children in poverty would significantly impact their school culture and student learning.

Initial Satisfaction with Seminar

Candidates ranked seminar diversity topics and reflected on their satisfaction with each (see Table 1 for rankings). Candidates' satisfaction often reflected their opinion of the presentation or their own position on the content presented. Principal candidates were explicitly asked which topic challenged their prevailing beliefs the most. In addition, implicit in their ranking of topics from most to least useful is that those topics that they considered least useful were the ones that they considered to be the most controversial. The most common response was that the seminar

Table 1
Ranking

Diversity Topics	Avg. Topic Rank Score 5 - Most beneficial to 1 - least beneficial	Presenter	Avg. Presenter Rating 3 - "excellent presenter"-to 1 - "not so great presenter"
Teaching Children of Poverty	4.2	Francis Marion University Professor and Director of the Center for Children of Poverty. Center provides professional development for teachers. Presenter utilized visuals and videos, facilitated group discussions, and varied presentations to include lecture and discussions.	2.9
Dialects & Linguistic Diversity	3.2	ECU Linguistics Instructor. Professional developer of the Sheltered Instruction Observation Model (SIOP). Presenter utilized visuals and videos, facilitated group discussions, and varied presentations to include lecture and discussions.	2.9
Cultural Diversity	2.7	ECU professor of Sociology. Professor identified with Native American heritage. Presenter lectured and shared personal stories.	2.4
Gender and Sexual Orientation	2.6	ECU Directors of LGBT Resource office. Presenter lectured about LGBT topics relative to undergraduates at the university who are graduates of local public schools. She also explained resources available at the university.	2.4 (presenter1) 2.3(presenter2)
Religious Diversity	2.5	ECU professor of religious study. Lectured about the various religious groups in eastern North Carolina. Presented lecture and shared research study and results.	1.9

on gender and sexual orientation was the most exacting because it disrupted candidates' long-standing religious traditions and beliefs. One student who lives in a small, rural and conservative town struggled with the concepts presented in the sexual orientation seminar. "The topic of gender and sexual orientation was the most challenging for me because I was raised to believe that Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender (LGBT) are not the norm and people in my community tend to frown upon people living with gender and sexual orientation that is

different." While students may have respected the presenter of this topic they were uncomfortable with the content. One intern affirmed, "This is a topic that is scary to a lot of educational professionals. I feel this is a very important topic." Another student mentioned his conflicting personal and professional views, "I would have to say the LGBT were the most challenging. I have mixed feelings when dealing with this group of people. I personally think it's wrong for this type of behavior to be allowed on school property. I feel at times that I am forcing my beliefs on those who think differently. But at the same time, I correct heterosexual conduct also." Another student expressed the very personal and deep-rooted nature of the topic:

> "I will have to admit that the one that challenged me the most was the Gender and Sexual Orientation. I think the root of this is due to my own background of being raised in a Southern Baptist home. I was always taught that this was an abomination to God and against the bible. However, I also always thought of it as an "adult" choice. I never imagined how many young students are struggling with their identity on a daily basis and how that affects their self-esteem. I was saddened to hear of the cases of bullying and eventual suicide. As irony would have it, I just found out today that one of my Navy buddies committed suicide last night. There was a group of us that were very close when we were activated as a result of 9/11. He had just found out that he was HIV positive on Friday and killed himself on Sunday. I am saddened that he did not feel like he could have confided in me. I truly think it was because he knew my religious beliefs and did not think I would accept him the way he was. That doesn't say a lot for me as a friend and I definitely have regrets. However, as an administrator, I know I must put my own personal beliefs aside. I will make sure I treat those students NO differently, and provide the same support, protection, and compassion to them that I would any other student."

North Carolina is conservative when it comes to LGBT issues and principal candidates rated this seminar comparatively poorly; some students suggested limiting or reducing the seminar. However, LGBT prominence and issues are increasingly visible, relevant and important for school leadership. As one intern stated,

> "I think the one-diversity topic that challenged me the most was the discussions from the ladies on LGBT in schools. As an elementary teacher, and even as an eastern North Carolinian, my exposure to these groups is limited. As an administrator I'm going to have to make sure to pay attention to these issues in my school and have good research based solution when the problems arise. Usually, these students are more subjected to bullying and I have to be prepared to handle these incidences…"

The seminar on religious diversity taxed students hand in glove with the LGBT presentation. A 2012 Gallup poll revealed that nearly 70% of Americans are very or moderately religious (Newport, 2012). In North Carolina that number is closer to 80% (Pew Research Center, 2015). At the same time, interns realized that their religious understanding was limited to a narrow definition of Christianity and this caused them some tension and opened up areas for potential misconceptions in schools where students are likely from varied religious and non-religious backgrounds. One intern aptly expressed this tension:

> "The most challenging topic for me was the LGBT topic. This topic goes against all of my religious values and beliefs. My religion does not accept LGBT values

and beliefs and it is difficult to treat everyone the same. But, regardless of my personal beliefs, I must recognize all people as the same and all religions and beliefs as the same."

Interns' Perception of the Impact of Topics on Their Learning and Leadership

Interns indicated that they learned strategies to help students embrace their diversity and be successful in schools and to help staff expand their awareness. Candidates went beyond analyzing their school community through the lens of diversity and actually implemented change strategies. They implemented these in different ways depending on their building needs and instructional contexts and hoped that by trying new things they could make an impact on their school community. One intern indicated that he sought to share his new understanding with educators at his school in order that pedagogy could be influenced

> "With each topic, I was searching for ways to share with staff members at my school. This helped me to apply what was learned in the workshop and pass the teachings from the presentation with others. Hopefully, this will cause a chain reaction of developing more "teacher thinkers" in the school."

Another candidate described how he looks at instructional strategies differently as a result of the seminars and what he has done in an effort to elicit instructional change at his school.

> "The poverty lecture influenced my leadership skills the most because I now focus on looking for those 20 strategies in classrooms. I sent them to all the teachers and explained that they were things I should always see because they are best practices. My thinking on what is "good instruction" has been influenced by those strategies."

One candidate, who works in a small rural elementary school, shared that when she spoke with parents of children who struggled in reading, she was disappointed because parents often were silent and accepting of her comments, yet she did not see changes in their student's reading habits. She explained specific changes she has made to her communication style in order to increase understanding among her varied audiences.

> "The diversity topic that influenced my leadership skills the most was the dialect and linguistics topic. I realize that you have to talk with your audience and speak in a manner in which they can understand. For example, when talking with some parents, I don't use acronyms or educational jargon without explaining what it means and breaking it down to them so they can understand. This is very important in administration because you have to be able to get your point across without being patronizing or condescending."

This citation captures the intended effect of this diversity focus for the final year of the principal internship.

> 'Prior to the presentation of these topics, I would have said that I was not a prejudice person and did not reinforce common stereotypes; unfortunately I discovered that this was not true. Through these discussions and the research that I conducted, I was forced to confront many of the stereotypes that I had. Although this was difficult, I feel that recognizing these issues will make me a better administrator because I will be more informed and more accepting of individual differences (of students, parents and staff). I will also be less likely to

inadvertently say something related to one of the diversity topics that others may find offensive because I have had to look at issues from all sides."

Diversity topics either simmered with interns for a time or were immediately applied in their schools. Depending on their students', staff and communities' needs, interns reconsidered their beliefs and expectations and applied new strategies.

Conclusion

Principal's self-efficacy beliefs determine to a large extent whether they will implement the diversity concepts they are learning (Siwatu, 2009). ECU's diversity seminars require candidates to: be keenly aware of each diversity theme manifest in their schools; deliberate; implement strategies, or determine how they might implement them if they were in charge, pinpoint key principles in their schools; and purposefully and critically reflect on their experience. Students practice and they appraise their understanding and application of each month's topic thereby allowing them to build their sense of efficacy, while they have the opportunity to garner support from university supervisors and classmates.

The seminar lasts a school year and therefore allows diversity topics to be iterative; students continue to reflect on themes as they transpire in schools and university supervisors can continue to support and instruct candidates in their self-development process. Providing time for students to reflect and look for specific instances of each topic in their schools, and then providing time during the seminar for students to discuss these instances in smaller groups, enables future leaders to envision ways to make changes now or when they have their own schools. Diversity awareness progresses through stages (Cruz, Ellerbrock, Vasquez, & Howes, 2014; Samuels, 2014) and students vary in the ways and rates at which they progress in their understanding. Structuring a program with sufficient time to permit development is fundamental if change in behavior is a goal.

Principal interns are required to conduct various needs assessments at their field placements. Collecting and examining data is a critical step as candidates learn to recognize inequities and develop approaches for serving in their communities. Seminars are most relevant to students when they can directly observe diversity topics and implement strategies for improvement.

Furthermore, seminar presenters matter a great deal and may determine how well candidates will internalize topics. While university financial resources are at a premium and often constrain options for selecting presenters, there are many local professionals who are willing, passionate and able to address issues of diversity. It is critical to find ones who can engage and connect their topic to the interns. Obtaining student feedback is an important way to continuously improve seminar presentations. At the same time, university supervisors play a vital role in the diversity development of their students as they guide discussions and respond to reflections. It is critical that these supervisors have expertise, competence and see the urgency in developing culturally responsiveness interns.

Finally, as we mentioned, American teachers consist primarily of White middle class females and while ECU's principal preparation program includes people of color, many of the educators have had few interactions or little experience with people who are not of their ethnic and racial or cultural background. Principal interns often live in isolation from their students, which means that preparation programs must recognize this disconnect and consider how it

affects student achievement (Wood, 2009). The diversity seminar is one way that ECU attempts to redress this issue.

Recommendations and Implications

In an effort to introduce future leaders to relevant and critical diversity themes East Carolina University implemented a seminar that currently serves as an introduction and awareness of the issues germane to each theme. While this is a sound beginning, more is needed. Principal candidates are sometimes unaware of their own or others' biases. Once they become more aware, they need assistance in developing their self-awareness as they seek for meaningful ways to apply culturally relevant practices in their leadership. The seminar, and the presenters must advocate for this kind of change.

Candidates must also be provided examples of culturally responsive mentor principals and university supervisors who successfully work with diverse populations. Students need to engage with leaders who are committed to culturally responsive education and addressing inequities in schools because they are often influenced by them (Wood, 2009). "Professors with relevant experiences with diversity have a wealth of knowledge, examples and anecdotes" (Siwatu, 2009, p. 127). When they share these, it helps future principals understand cultural responsiveness better and informs candidates how to handle the complexities of leading in diverse learning communities. Program coordinators must be able to use reliable instruments to accurately assess mentors' and supervisors' commitment to diversity and inequity (Samuels, 2014).

At the same time, it may be necessary for universities to provide professional development to mentors and/or supervisors. Researchers affirm that it is difficult to make substantive changes to a principal preparation program if faculty and mentors do not prescribe to and endorse these changes (Wood, 2009). Part of these changes would require leaders to examine their own beliefs about diversity -- their own values, assumptions, stereotypes, bias and experiences (Samuels, 2014). Professional development can facilitate this process thus enabling principal candidates to have cultural knowledge be an integral part of their internship experience (Lindsey, Martinez, & Lindsey, 2007).

Furthermore, cultural competency requires that curriculum throughout the MSA be infused with diversity themes so that candidates understand their ubiquitous nature and the need for competent and committed leadership to advocate for them. When diversity topics are separated out of the coursework, it can lead students to view difference as disconnected from leaders' other work.

Finally, the context of this study is an important factor in the potential development of other principal programs. This study took place primarily in rural Eastern North Carolina. Consequently the recommendations and intern responses is particular to this area. At the same time, diversity is not a regional phenomenon; it is transforming cities and towns throughout the United States. And equally important, conversations about equity and diversity need to take place even in homogenous communities. Context is one of the 3 prongs in meaningful professional development and we recommend that university programs carefully examine their contexts as they design principal preparation programs with diversity in mind.

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APPENDIX A: MONTHLY DIVERSITY REFLECTION

Diversity topic of the month: _____ Month: _____
School:_____District: _____
MSA student's name:_____ Principal's name: _____
University Professor/ Supervisor: _____

1. Briefly summarize the diversity topic for the month and tell what you personally learned about the topic (1-2 paragraphs)**:**

2. Briefly describe your interactions with various cultural groups related to the topic of the month by describing what you saw, what you heard, and what you learned this month at your school site about this topic (1-2 paragraphs): Include how it relates to one or more of the following:

- Organization of the school—This includes the administrative structure and the way it relates to diversity, and the use of physical space in planning schools and arranging classrooms.
- School policies and procedures—This refers to those policies and practices that impact on the delivery of services to students from diverse backgrounds.
- Community involvement—This is concerned with the institutional approach to community involvement in which families and communities are expected to find ways to become involved in the school, rather than the school seeking connections with families and communities.

3. Briefly describe how, if you were the principal, you would address the issue to encourage cultural diversity in your school. (1-2 paragraphs)._ Explain in some detail strategies you would use. Elaborate on one or more of the strategies below:

- Examine how stereotypes are developed, barriers created, and misunderstandings magnified.
- Allow staff and students to examine their own bias and focus on how they perceive differences.
- Build awareness of how cultural differences can profoundly impact others.
- Motivate staff and students to change their behavior and attitude toward others.

APPENDIX B: FINAL DIVERSITY REFLECTION

Name: _____ Date: _____

After the seminar presentations, you were asked to be keenly aware of each diversity topic and write in depth reflections on the implications of the diversity topic on educational leadership. Now it is time to look back and do a final reflection on the impact of diversity on your practice.

Please respond to the following questions:

1. Reflect on the Diversity topics presented at the MSA internship seminars. Rank the topics from most beneficial to least beneficial. Rank the most beneficial=5 to least beneficial=1:
   ____ Teaching Children of Poverty
   ____ Dialects & Linguistic Diversity
   ____ Gender and Sexual Orientation
   ____ Religious Diversity
   ____ Cultural Diversity
   Comments: list pluses and deltas.
2. Reflect on the presenters of the diversity topics. Indicate for each presenter whether
   3 – Excellent presenter! Bring back for next year interns
   2- Great presenter but no need to bring back for next year interns
   1- Not so great presenter
   ____ Dr. AAA, Teaching Children of Poverty
   ____ Ms. BBB, Dialects & Linguistic Diversity
   ____ Dr. CCC, LGBT Diversity
   ____ Ms. DDD, LGBT Diversity
   ____ Dr. EEE, Religious Diversity
   ____ Dr. FFF, Cultural Diversity
   Comments: List pluses and deltas.
3. From all of the diversity topics discussed what did you learn?
4. What influenced your leadership skills the most? How did it influence your leadership skills?
5. Which of your diversity values or beliefs were the most challenged by any of the diversity topics? Why?

Mentoring Educational Leadership Doctoral Students: Using Methodological Diversification to Examine Gender and Identity Intersections

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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An essential component to learning and teaching in educational leadership is mentoring graduate students for successful transition to K-12 and higher education positions. This study integrates quantitative and qualitative datasets to examine doctoral students' experiences with mentoring from macro and micro perspectives. Findings show that students have varied perceptions on what constitutes quality mentoring and wide-ranging experiences in terms of the quantity and quality of mentoring experienced. Moreover, findings suggest that the ways students perceive and experience mentoring is related to their identity factors, especially gender. Findings have implications for strengthening this essential component of leadership preparation programs; and thus, recommendations for different strategies, programmatic supports, and structural changes within university departments and professional organizations are forwarded.

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A mentor is a person who works towards integrating a neophyte into a professional capacity, and this relationship is reciprocal and changes over time (Williams-Nickelson, 2009). The evolution of the mentor–mentee relationship is essential to professional and research preparation and the overall experience of a doctoral program. For doctoral students specifically mentoring helps them develop the skills necessary to "integrate their professional identities of researcher, teacher, and engaged public scholar" (Colbeck, 2008, p. 14). By the end of their formal training, doctoral students who receive quality mentoring have greater research productivity, higher quality training, and more extensive professional and networking opportunities compared to doctoral students without adequate mentoring (Kurtz-Costes et al., 2006).

While important work on mentoring has been conducted in schools of education (Creighton, Creighton, & Parks, 2010), research specific to educational leadership doctoral students' experiences with mentoring is relatively sparse (Mansfield, Welton, Lee, & Young,, 2010; Mullen, 2008). Educational leadership preparation programs vary depending on the institution, but usually consist of graduate-level programs that train students to become school principals, superintendents, policy analysts, higher education administrators, and future educational leadership professors (Young, 2015). Although there are ongoing discussions evaluating educational leadership preparation programmatic quality (Orr, 2012; Young, Murphy, Crow & Ogawa, 2009) especially pertaining to how, if at all, the program prepares students to be social justice oriented and anti-racist leaders (Diem & Carpenter, 2013; Welton, Mansfield, & Lee, 2015; Young, Gooden & O'Doherty, 2015), less attention has been dedicated to mentoring approaches specific to the preparation of future educational leadership faculty members (Mansfield et al., 2010; Sherman & Grogan, 2011; Young & Brooks, 2008). An increasing number of scholars, however, are calling for intentional conversations on this issue, many of which demonstrate a particular interest in gender identity and complex intersections--such as race, social class, age, sexuality, language, ability, and citizenship--within educational leadership preparation programs (Killingsworth, Cabezas, Kensler, & Brooks, 2010; O'Brien, 2014; Reddick, 2011; Rusch, 2004).

In addition to drawing attention to the need for more scholarship in this area, researchers have called for the diversification of the methodology used to research the experiences and progress of women in academe. For example, Paglis, Green, and Bauer (2006) argued that researchers should continue to move beyond the use of small, narrow samples, and examine the extent to which their results can be generalized to broad student populations. Moreover, the strong investment in qualitative approaches to explore mentoring women in academe has left many unanswered questions concerning quantitative differences between men and women's experiences in doctoral programs as well as between women from different groups (e.g., racial, socio-economic, religion, etc.).

Therefore, the purpose of this article is to employ a diverse set of methodological approaches to examine educational leadership doctoral students' gendered as well as relevant intersecting identity experiences with mentoring in their preparation programs. A diversification of methodology is important to gather doctoral students' perspectives on mentoring from various vantage points at the macro and micro level. Borrowing from the field of sociology, macro-level approaches examine the phenomena of study at the systems level, paying attention to large-scale patterns or trends (Patton, 2015). In contrast, micro-level approaches consider more face-to-face, small-scale interactions between individuals or within a group (Knorr-Cetina, 2015). For the purpose of this article we accomplish a diversification of macro and micro approaches by integrating datasets from two previous studies. The first study offers a micro-level perspective

through qualitative methodology, including an open- and close-ended questionnaire and collaborative focus groups to understand the challenges, opportunities and mentoring supports available to female graduate students in educational leadership departments. Whereas the second study lends a more macro-level perspective by using a 30-item web-based exploratory survey to examine quantitative differences between men and women's experiences with mentoring in educational leadership doctoral programs across the United States.

We integrate and re-analyze the original data collected through the above two prior studies to discover similarities and differences in participants' perceptions on mentoring, and in doing so; offer implications and recommendations for higher education policy, practice, and future research based on the new findings that emerged during reanalysis. The following research questions guided the present study:

1. How do graduate students in educational leadership define mentorship?
2. What specific mentorship activities do educational leadership graduate students experience?
3. Are there differences in experiences according to gender, race, and other identity complexities?

Literature Review

Perspectives on Mentoring

There is no one-size-fits all approach to mentoring, given the goals, context, and the relationship between the mentor and protégé changes over time (Schunk & Mullen, 2013; Mullen, 2008). Although a protégé's growth is the primary goal of mentoring, the mentor can equally benefit from the relationship. Given the variability of the nature of mentoring dynamic overtime, Mertz (2004) suggested that the relationship is actually more so a continuum in the form a pyramid where the involvement and intensity of each role increases from the base to the apex. For example, a *role model* would be at level one of the pyramid because its function is primarily to provide psychosocial development, a less involved endeavor. An *advisor*, which is located at the midpoint/level three of the pyramid, typically provides guidance and professional development, a responsibility that requires more engagement. However, a *mentor* sits at the apex of the pyramid because at this stage the relationship is largely geared toward brokering the protégé's career advancement, a duty that requires the highest and most intense level of involvement (Mertz, 2004).

Similar to differences in mentoring roles, there are also variances in how a mentor-protégé are selected and paired. More formal mentoring programs have specific selection criteria and interview processes for the mentor as well as the protégé. Even though mentoring can be a targeted effort where protégés are selected based on need, interests, and demographic and identity characteristics; there are some models where the protégé self-selects to participate and determines the type of mentoring dynamic they seek (Dawson, 2014). Either the mentor or the protégé can decide whom they will be matched with, and this is commonly based on similarities in academic discipline and interests, as well as identity factors (Dawson, 2014; Griffin & Reddick, 2011; Reddick, 2011, 2012; Reddick & Young, 2012; Young & Brooks, 2008).

There are various forms of mentoring and each type serves a different purpose. Mentoring involves providing the protégé with psychosocial and career-related supports that are either *formal* or *informal* (Mullen, 2008; Shunk & Mullen, 2013). Formal mentoring is typically

offered in a structured programmatic format that cultivates the protégé's professional learning and aspiration building. Informal mentoring is a relationship that develops naturally and occurs anywhere in society, such as an academic setting, the workplace, social, and even during family activities (Inzer & Crawford, 2005). Another similar distinction is *traditional* versus *alternative mentoring*. Traditional mentoring is more of a top down relationship where knowledge is transmitted from the mentor to the protégé and can result in censoring the protégé's voice. Whereas, alternative, or progressive, mentoring is when power is shared between the mentor and protégé, and the relationship aims to affront power hierarchies for a more democratic mentoring dynamic (Mullen, 2012). Another similar shared power arrangement is *peer mentoring*, where a person with similar status and experience mentors the protégé (Eshner et al., 2012). Finally, a *step-above mentor* is someone who is a level above the protégé in experience and professional progress (Eshner et al., 2012). No one mentoring type is more effective than another, as each mentoring relationship may prove useful to a protégé in different ways (Eshner et al., 2012).

Even academia has its own mentoring distinctions. *Academic mentoring*, as coined by Fletcher and Mullen (2012), consists of faculty, advisors, or supervisors involved in learning relationships that provide career and personal development for undergraduates, graduates, and junior faculty alike. Similarly, *mentoring* and *advising* are interconnected, which explains why the concepts are mistakenly used interchangeably (Jones, Wilder, & Osborne-Lampkin, 2013). For instance, *mentoring* is one key responsibility of an *academic advisor* in addition to providing students with academic guidance and supervision (Jones et al., 2013; Wao & Onwuegbuzie, 2011). However, Mertz (2004) would argue that mentoring calls for a higher level of commitment and trust than advising. An advisor can choose to simply serve as an administrative or informational resource, whereas, the mentor surpasses an advisor's level of commitment by using their networks to support the protégé's career advancement. Mentors are also more readily emotionally vulnerable in sharing their thoughts, hopes, and personal struggles, which in turn builds a more trusting relationship between the mentor and protégé (Mertz, 2004). Ultimately, the mentor and advisor, even with the variability and similarities between the two roles, are both in their own right connections that are essential to a doctoral student's academic and social integration (Jones et al., 2013).

Mentoring in Doctoral Education

Investing time and commitment to a doctoral program can be rewarding for a graduate student as s/he hones the skills necessary to ask questions related to society's gravest concerns, and work to transform their curiosities into innovative and impactful research. Moreover, doctoral studies can be particularly gratifying when one achieves their goals of entering the professoriate or other professional advancement. However, the means to this fruitful ends can be quite trying due to the high pressure academic environment as well as the mysteriousness involved when the unwritten codes for navigating the doctoral program fail to be communicated directly (Mullen, 2012; Young & Brooks, 2008). Hence, mentoring supports can be essential to getting the best out of what doctoral education can offer.

Given the academic intensity of a doctoral program, students may also need mentors for psychosocial support to help reduce stress and feelings of isolation that may arise during their studies. Although doctoral students can rely on their academic advisor for guidance on degree requirements and work closely with their dissertation advisor on refining research and writing skills, a mentor provides even more extensive personal and professional support that exceeds the

bounds of the doctoral program (Jairam & Kahl, 2012; Holley & Caldwell, 2012). It is important for mentors, regardless of their formal of informal position, to be mindful of the importance and impact of their communication style. As Jairam and Kahl (2012) in their survey of doctoral students found, if faculty mentors' communication with students is negative and even adversarial, they will both provide poor professional examples and hinder students' productivity.

Doctoral students frequently identify peers or "academic friends" as psychosocial support more so than faculty (Jairam & Kahl, 2012). In their study of a university sponsored doctoral mentoring program for underrepresented students (women, minorities, and first-generation college graduates), Holley and Caldwell (2012) found peers provided useful information just by simply sharing their experiences navigating the doctoral program, and these peer networks in general helped create a more inclusive community. Also, a mentor's psychosocial support can assist a doctoral protégé in mediating work-life-balance concerns. Work-life balance is especially important for doctoral students in the education fields as they are more likely to have previous professional experience in P-20 education and often continue this work full-time while pursuing their graduate studies; whereas, graduate students in the arts, sciences, and engineering are more likely to attend graduate school full-time (Shulman, Golde, Bueschel, & Garabedian, 2006).

Finally, doctoral students may also rely on mentoring resources external to the university and doctoral program. *External mentoring* is provided by a number of academic and professional organizations, associations, foundations, networks and clearinghouses. This form of mentoring focuses on developing mentoring connections that support research, scholarship, grant, and award opportunities. In comparison, *internal mentoring* may include any of the aforementioned mentoring formats, and is often dependent on the university and doctoral programmatic context and resources (Mullen, 2012). This constellation of mentoring (Ensher, Thomas, & Murphy, 2001), per receiving mentoring from a multitude of sources, creates the type of broad based network that will prove useful once the doctoral student is actively seeking a faculty position or any other professional position they desire.

Mentoring in Educational Leadership Preparation

Cohort mentoring is the most studied mentoring strategy in educational leadership doctoral programs and has been found to be particularly effective for scholar-practitioners (Preis, Grogan, Sherman, & Beaty, 2007, p. 6; Mullen & Tuten, 2010). These doctoral students enter programs with prior professional experience and a "larger frame of reference to draw from" as adult learners. The adult learning and cooperation requisite to a cohort structure mimics skills that will be required of educational leadership students in the workplace (Mullen, 2012; Mullen & Tuten, 2010). Cohort mentoring, also known as a *mentoring scaffold*, can be a peer driven or a faculty-student collaborative group that unceasingly supports educational processes and goals for doctoral students primarily, but can benefit academic mentors as well (Mullen, 2012; Mullen & Tuten, 2010). Preis et al. (2012) in their review of research on educational leadership preparation programs discuss how students in cohort models feel a strong sense of community, support, and develop lifelong relationships. However, doctoral cohorts are not the only source of formal cohort mentoring, as some of the most productive mentoring spaces are developed through informal student initiatives such as dissertation writing groups, etc. Furthermore, the Internet has generated a number of possibilities via online peer support groups for doctoral degree completion and academic career resources (Mullen, 2012)

Educational leadership programs are comprised mostly of students who are working full-

time as educators while pursing their doctoral studies part-time. Therefore, cohort mentoring provides the mutual support necessary to alleviate some of the challenges with achieving work-life balance while in a doctoral program (Mullen & Tuten, 2010). A cohort is also a learning community where members help one another resolve issues and deal with apprehension and feelings of doubt that may arise at times (Mullen & Tuten, 2010). Research has shown that doctoral students involved in a mentoring cohort feel a sense of accountability to the group, and the cohort plays a crucial role in students' academic progress, doctoral program retention and completion, and overall well being (Mullen, 2012; Mullen & Tuten, 2010).

The Role of Gender and Intersectional Perspectives

Although there are some consistencies in how mentoring is defined in the research, it is important to understand that the semantics may change when gender and various identity intersections such as race, social class, age, ability, sexuality, language, and citizenship status are added to the mentoring dynamic. Gender especially matters to how mentoring is defined, understood, and experienced. Female doctoral student representation in the United States has exceeded that of males (Aud et al., 2013; NCES, 2009). However, it is too soon to claim victory as gender politics and inequities still thrive in the academy. Despite the progress in female doctoral enrollment, few will feel the fulfillment of being hooded at the graduation ceremony, because attrition rates for female and racial minority doctoral students are significantly higher than White males (Aud et al., 2013; NCES, 2009). The inequities women face while pursuing the doctoral degree suggest that their experiences with mentoring may also be met with challenges. Bell-Ellison and Dedrick (2008) used the 34-item *Ideal Mentor Scale* to determine if there are gender differences in what doctoral students at one large state research university considered an ideal mentor. The researchers found there were more similarities than differences in how both men and women conceptualized their ideal mentor. However, female participants were more concerned about feelings of confirmation and acceptance from their mentor. In other words, female participants valued a mentor who believed in them.

Race also has considerable impact on a doctoral student's socialization (Felder, Stevenson, & Gasman, 2014). Hence, it is important for doctoral programs to acknowledge how racial experiences effect a student's mentoring connections, because ignoring the role of race only hinders, not supports, academic success and degree completion. Even still, doctoral programs do not function in a vacuum. The way in which mentoring is racialized at the doctoral programmatic level is a product of the university institutional culture and structures. For example, predominately white institutions (PWIs) can be considerably racially hostile, and for this reason they struggle to effectively recruit and retain both faculty and graduate students of color (Reddick & Young, 2012). PWIs have a well-documented history of racial exclusion that still creates institutional and structural barriers for racial minority access to higher education, especially at the doctoral level. Reddick and Young (2012) argue that a mentor should be candid with their protégé about the campus racial climate. This level of honesty about racism can only strengthen the mentoring relationship as students can be more prepared for what they may experience and strategic in navigating the campus as well as their doctoral program (Reddick & Young, 2012). As such, research on educational leadership preparation emphasizes effective race-conscious and ant-racist mentors who are not only forthcoming about issues of race, but also advocate for graduate students of color both "interpersonally and institutionally" (Reddick & Young, 2012; Young & Brooks, 2008, p. 408).

Yet, achieving a doctoral degree is a complex journey and therefore, intersectional approaches to identity are necessary to understand the nuances of mentoring. For example, female doctoral students of color experience both racism and sexism, and alleviating this interlocking oppression would require both feminist and race-conscious approaches to mentoring. As one possible solution, Jones, Wilder, and Osborne-Lampkin (2013) used key concepts of Black Feminist Thought to develop a conceptual framework for advising responsibilities, which included helping Black female graduate students: 1) decode the hidden curriculum, 2) develop as researchers, and 3) develop as professionals.

Moreover, pairing the mentor-protégé based on similar race and cultural identities has proven beneficial; in fact, researchers have found that a number of intersecting identity factors are important to the mentoring relationship (Holley & Caldwell, 2012; Mansfield et al., 2010; Young & Brooks, 2008). Based on the context and circumstance, a doctoral protégé may find it is important to have a mentor who can speak to similar experiences related to gender, age, or family relationships (Holley & Caldwell, 2012). Consequently, a number of researchers on mentoring have found that women and racial minorities more heavily rely on a "diverse constellation of mentors who vary in organizational affiliation, status, and personal characteristics than White men" (Ensher, Thomas, & Murphy, 2001, p. 420). To date, the majority of mentoring research examines identity politics relative to gender and race, and while important, research should extend beyond this binary to explore how a multitude of mentoring intersections shape a doctoral student's mentoring dynamic.

Methods

Study One: Qualitative Analysis.

The purpose of study one was to explore and contribute to the meager body of research on the role of university educational leadership preparation programs in preparing women leaders. Educational leadership preparation research had yet to explore ways in which mentorship provides additional capital for female graduate students. Study one sought to understand the challenges facing and the opportunities available to female graduate students in educational leadership departments. The study used qualitative methods to explore the constructs of educational leadership preparation and mentorship of female graduate students. The following research questions guided collection efforts for study one:

1. What have been participant's gender-related experiences in their educational leadership doctoral programs?
2. What are their perceived needs for success as female educational leadership graduate students?
3. What is the nature of their experiences with mentorship?

For this study we employed a purposeful sampling of female graduate students enrolled in a PhD educational leadership program at a highly respected, research extensive public university, which was also a University Council of Educational Administration (UCEA) member institution. This sampling strategy resulted in a sample of 12 women who varied demographically. Qualitative methods were informed by the work of feminist theory and were used to explore participants' experiences and perceptions with the larger purpose of understanding the implications of their experiences for the development of strategies and programs intended to support female graduate students in educational leadership preparation

programs.

The 12 female participants completed a preliminary questionnaire to determine both individual demographic variation and the degree to which the students had received mentoring. The participants ranged in age from late 20s to late 50s, with one identifying as Black, two Asian, two Latina, and six identified as White. When asked their country and language of origin, a majority of the women (75%) were born in the United States, while other representative countries included Mexico, South Korea, and Taiwan. A majority of the women (75%) claimed English as their language of origin; while, three of twelve grew up speaking Spanish, Korean, or Mandarin in the home. A fourth woman stated that she grew up speaking both English and Spanish in the home while growing up. Of the twelve participants, five were single, five were married, one was divorced, and one was engaged. Five women were parenting, grand parenting, or taking care of elderly parents, or some combination of the three. Not all married participants had children and not all those parenting had partners. Eleven of twelve participants described their sexuality as, "hetero" or "straight" while one woman described herself as, "gay." Five of twelve participants were first-generation college graduates.

Additionally, we conducted a collaborative focus group interview with the 12 participants. As researchers we served as facilitators of the discussion, yet the focus group was collaborative given we wanted the participants to relate as much as comfortably feasible (see Ritchie, 2003). We split the participants into two focus groups, and met with each group for a total of approximately 6.5 hours.

Data analysis for the original study consisted of coding by teasing out themes, making clusters, and writing summaries, and we conducted member checking by sharing tentative conclusions with participants (Creswell, 2003; Wolcott, 1994). The following themes emerged from the participants' stories in the original study data: constraints within the organizational culture, personal and familial sacrifice, struggles with identity, questioning self, and experiences with mentoring. (Please, consult Authors, 2010 for additional details). The findings pointed to important implications for the roles that university leadership preparation program structures might play in supporting female graduate students and their career success. The conclusions offered recommendations for the development of mentoring programs for female graduate students. Limitations for study one included a small sample size that was not conducive to generalizability, as the purpose of the original study was to understand a particular case, rather than to make generalizations to the larger population of graduate students.

Study Two: Quantitative Analysis

Study two consisted of a descriptive statistical analysis of an exploratory survey. This study was exploratory in that we did not aim to draw conclusions; rather we hoped to investigate and further define a problem in need of additional study and greater clarity (Babbie, 2007). Typically exploratory studies involve smaller sample sizes and focused inquiry on a particular issue within an understudied population. Such studies are also focused on determining the suitability of methods employed in order to improve research designs for future studies (Babbie, 2007). The following research questions guided the development of the survey instrument and data interpretation for study two:

1. How do graduate students in educational leadership define mentorship?
2. What specific mentorship activities do educational leadership graduate students experience?

3. Are there differences in experiences according to gender?
4. How can the present study methodology be strengthened in future research endeavors?

The design of the survey for study two was based on the findings from study one. After completing study one we realized the need to expand our investigation to include a larger sample across a variety of institutions. Furthermore, the thematic qualitative analysis from study one helped us identify and determine constructs and related survey questions that should be explored in study two (e.g., the female doctoral students in study one articulated that there was a need for more formal and informal mentoring, and that this mentoring should begin as soon as they enroll in their doctoral program).

Subsequently, the survey instrument was developed with the assistance of a group of cross-generational female scholars who examined a draft of the survey instrument during planned work sessions at two major professional conferences—University Council of Educational Administration (UCEA) and American Educational Research Association (AERA)—during the 2009-2010 academic year. This group of over 20 women, who are noted research experts on gender equity in the field of educational leadership, shared constructive feedback to increase the validity of the instrument prior to administering the exploratory survey. Feedback from experts satisfied face and construct validity as this process merited the quality in the development of survey constructs, and ensured that survey questions corroborated and expanded upon existing research and would make an important contribution to the educational leadership preparation field (see Mertens, 2010).

This feedback process resulted in a 30-item web-based survey consisting of mostly closed- ended questions and a few open-ended questions—that included multi-item measures based on a Likert scale, and questions that required the participant to either report a frequency, answer yes or no, or select any responses from a list that apply (see Table 1). The survey consisted of a set of questions focused on the following six constructs: factors that accelerated or hindered the student's program progress, indicators of academic productivity, job- and funding-related issues, programmatic support to succeed in the field, perspectives on quality mentorship, and the nature of the mentor–mentee relationship.

The survey participants were selected with a combination of purposeful and random sampling. We focused on doctoral students enrolled in educational leadership preparation programs at 90 University Council of Educational Administration (UCEA) member institutions varying in size or total enrollment and type (e.g. public vs. private). Since participation was voluntary, only those willing to participate were included in the final sample of 78 survey participants. Our survey sample consisted of 52 women, which was more than twice that of men, 26. This sample distribution is on par with national trends, given in 2010 approximately 66.7% of students enrolled in doctoral programs in the education field were women (Gonzalez, Allum, & Sowell, 2013). The majority of the sample was White females. Among females in the sample, 73 % of participants identified as White, 12% Asian, 10% Black or African American, 2% were Hispanic, and 4% identified as multi-racial. Overall, the male students comprised: 62% White; 12 % Asian; 12% Black or African American; 8% Hispanic; 4% Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, and; 4% multi-racial. Participants were enrolled in the following educational leadership preparation programs: K-12 leadership studies (69% of male vs. 40% of female); educational policy studies (31% vs. 29%, respectively); higher education administration policy (19% vs. 23%, respectively); community college leadership (4% vs. 2%, respectively); superintendency preparation (12% vs. 2%, respectively) and; curriculum and instructional

leadership programs (19% vs. 17%, respectively).

In our analysis of the survey data we reported each of the set of questions as descriptive statistical analyses such as frequency, mean, standard deviation, and percentages in SPSS version 13. Demographic data were reported as percentages. All data were analyzed using frequency, crosstabs, or independent sample t-test (Table 1). Any statistically significant data were reported at either a p= .05 (*) or p= .01 (**) level of statistical significance.

One major limitation of conducting surveys is that the methodology is unable to measure contextual nuances and complexities that the participants experience with mentoring in their educational leadership preparation program (Patton, 2008). This is especially important given how a person identifies is typically complex, representing a number of fluid, intersectional identities, and unfortunately the categorical nature of survey items do not capture the extent of these nuances (Waikoo & Carter, 2009). Moreover, each educational leadership preparation program has its own context specific social, cultural, and political institutional and organizational attributes that fluctuate, and are challenging to fully signify in a single or longitudinal survey administration.

Table 1
List of questions and statistical analyses

Question topic	Types of questions	Reported as	Statistical Analysis
Factors accelerating program progress	Likert scale	Percentages	Crosstabs
Factors hindering student program progress	Likert scale	Percentages	Crosstabs
Publication and conference presentations	Frequency	Frequency, percentages	Crosstabs
Job and funding related issues	Yes or No	Frequency, percentages	Crosstabs
Program support for success in the field	Likert scale	Mean, standard deviation, Cohen's D effect size	Independent sample t-test
Students' perspectives of quality mentorship	Select applicable responses	Frequency, percentages	Crosstabs
Relationship between mentor & mentee, part 1	Yes or No, Select applicable response	Frequency, percentages	Crosstabs
Relationship between mentor & mentee, part 2	Likert scale	Mean, standard deviation, Cohen's D effect size	Independent sample t-test
Connections to mentors	Select applicable responses	Frequency, percentages	Crosstabs

Integrating the Two Studies

In accordance with mixed methods research methodology, the data for study one and two were collected in sequential timing, where the collection and analysis of one type of data occurs after the collection and analysis of another. As stated earlier the qualitative data for study one was collected first and informed the quantitative survey development for study two (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The point of interface, or the process where quantitative and qualitative research studies are integrated or mixed, occurred after the data was collected (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). We also, according to mixed methods approaches, mixed the quantitative and qualitative strands of research during interpretation, hence, we integrated and analyzed both sets of data after the data was collected. Therefore, the process of mixing the qualitative and quantitative data during interpretation "involves the researcher drawing conclusions or inference that reflect what was learned from the combination of results from the two strands of the study, as by comparing or synthesizing the results in discussion" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 67).

In conclusion, the overall integration of the two studies is representative of a *convergent parallel design*, the most widely known mixed methods approach (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The purpose of a convergent parallel design is to collect different, but related data on the same topic, as well as to use qualitative research strengths to compensate for quantitative research weaknesses, and vice versa. A convergent parallel design is also useful in triangulating findings by comparing and contrasting quantitative and qualitative results, in addition to developing a more complex and "complete understanding of a phenomenon, and comparing multiple levels within a system" (p. 77). As such in the presentation of the findings for the present study, the convergent parallel design enabled us to more complexly examine mentoring in educational leadership preparation by examining macro level perspectives of the phenomenon via quantitative methods and comparing this to more micro and contextual perspectives via qualitative methods. Figure 1 represents a visual flowchart of the procedures used for implementing the convergent parallel design for this present study.

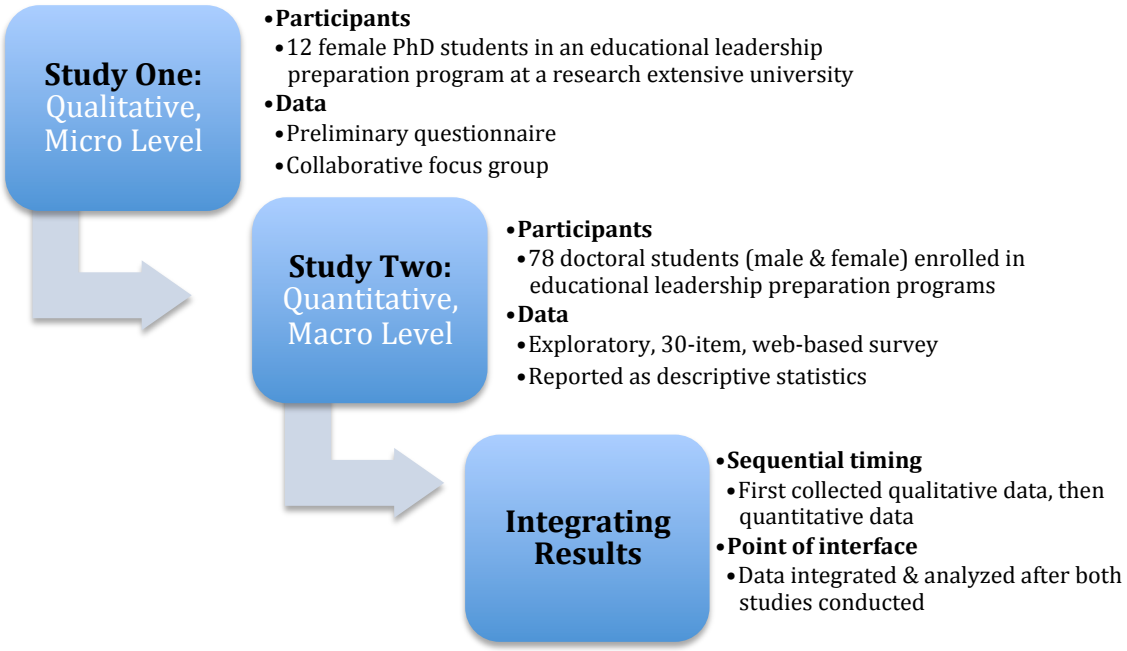

Figure 1. Integrating Study One and Two: A Convergent Parallel Design

Research Findings

Three major themes emerged upon re-analyzing the integrated quantitative and qualitative datasets from study one and two: 1) students' perceptions of quality mentoring, 2) experiences with mentoring activities, and 3) subsequent differences in experiences according to intersecting identity factors. Participants emphasized how professional and career development is essential to theme one, quality mentoring. While, three additional subthemes surfaced for the second and third major themes. For theme two, participants emphasized the importance of programmatic support for success in the field and how the dynamics of the mentor/mentee relationship, as well as the modes of connecting with a mentor weigh on their overall experiences with mentoring.

Lastly, for the third major theme, participants discussed how unwanted stereotypes associated with their various identities generated feelings of doubt, caused them to question their self-worth, and adversely affected their access to mentoring.

Students' Perceptions on Quality Mentorship

Quality mentorship emerged as a major category in participants' responses to many of the focus groups discussions and questionnaire. Quality mentoring was emphasized as an essential first step in setting a premise for successfully preparing scholastic *competence* in the field by a majority of the focus group participants. We followed up this major finding from our focus group data with a central question on the survey instrument that asked doctoral students to define mentorship as well as identify their perceptions of quality mentorship (Table 2). The total percentage for each option under this survey item added up to 100% because participants were allowed to choose as many options as applied to them in their educational leadership program. All survey participants agreed that a quality mentor should provide constructive feedback and critiques (92% male, 87% female), and almost equally as many participants indicated that quality mentors provide professional support and foster the development of research ideas (96% male, 98% female). However, leadership skills (62% male, 52% female), financial support (38%, 58%), and career counseling were to a somewhat lesser degree selected as necessary to mentoring.

Obtaining skills related to a career in academia were also denoted as key components of quality mentoring. For instance, close to three-fourths of survey participants indicated that mentoring should include guidance in grant writing and publishing (73% males, 75% females) and garner writing expertise (73% male, 68% female). At large, respondents reported a quality mentor provides moderate assistance in the development of leadership skills (%62 males, 54% females) as well as career counseling (%65 males, %60 females). Yet, 52% of female students in comparison to 73% of male students deemed it important that a mentor assist students with presentation skills.

The focus group respondents also articulated striking similarities in what constitutes quality mentoring. Respondents used descriptors such as *close*, *trusting*, *nurturing*, *supportive*, and *advice-giving* to signify a quality mentoring relationship. The mentor-mentee dynamic was also described as a learning exchange between a master-novice by which a junior scholar learns from the senior scholar skills such as conducting research and writing. Likewise, three focus group participants agreed a mentor should provide critical correction as needed. Whereas, two participants perceived learning how to navigate the politics and rules of the field—especially the "hidden and unhidden rules"--as an essential element to mentoring. Moreover, two participants saw mentoring as a potential lifetime commitment and a moral calling. For instance Margaret recognized that:

> The mentor is neither paid nor rewarded to do this work. It is usually something that is done to "pay it forward" because this person received the same kind of treatment and training and wishes to do likewise. (Or this person did NOT receive it and wishes they did and they recognize it is a necessary cycle or circle of knowledge to strengthen a profession).

However, one respondent highlighted that each student's mentoring needs vary:

> It depends. I think the "needs" change as the student scholar grows. I am also cognizant

of individual differences/needs. Also, I wonder if these definitions would fluctuate according to gender and age.

Even still, some focus group participants recognized that some faculty mentors in their department, especially female faculty, had little time to provide individualized, tailored mentoring specific to preparing for an academic career because they were already overly encumbered with professional responsibilities, such as a high advising and mentoring load. Dana noticed how a senior male faculty had formerly published with a few of his students in a high-ranking academic journal, but acknowledged that her own faculty mentor, a female, was professionally overextended, and therefore might not have the opportunity to publish with her. Dana lamented that, "When Dr. Duvall was here he made sure all his students were published, if you go back to the [journal title]. I'm sure if Dr. Hart [my mentor] had the time she would publish with me."

A few participants such as Chun Hei admitted that they do need a mentor who is a "psychological supporter." Similary, Marisela wanted a mentor who demonstrated care by showing an interest in her life outside of the academic setting. Marisela wanted,

> Someone who shows a caring interest by asking about my family and interests outside of academics. I say this because anyone who knows and listens to me will constantly hear me talking about my family. Finally, someone who doesn't mind greeting with a hug."

Contrary to the focus group responses, psychosocial and emotional related factors were the least indicated as important to quality mentoring by survey participants. Slightly over half of the survey participants felt that quality mentors provide personal care and support (54% males, 54% females) and work-related emotional support (50% males, 58% females). Approximately a third specified that it was necessary for a mentor to provide emotional support for personal issues (31% males, 27% females) and assist with resolving conflicts (31% males, 29% females). Whereas, focus group participants did regard learning conflict resolution skills from their mentor as vital, especially equity and social justice concerns. For example, focus group participant Jasmine expressed frustration with the lack of emphasis on other forms of oppression that intersected with gender such as race, which prompted her to question whether students would be prepared to effectively address racial conflicts in the workplace and even conduct their own future research on racial issues:

> People complain about folks talking about Black issues too much, but we are not even talking about Black issues. I feel like Dr. LaSalle is the first professor that has allowed me to talk about Black issues and poverty issues here. In fact, we can't even talk about poverty and race, so how can we even talk about these issues if we aren't ready to talk about gender?

Jasmine was seemingly frustrated that her value for being forthright about equity and social justice may not align with that of potential faculty mentors. Her sentiments reflect the majority of survey participants' responses, where three-fourths expect to have a faculty mentor who can model integrity and ethical behaviors.

Table 2
Students' Perspectives of Quality Mentorship

	Gender					
	Male			Female		
Quality Mentorship	*n*	Frequency	%	*n*	Frequency	%
Professional support	26	24	92	52	45	87
Constructive feedback & critiques	26	26	100	52	52	100
Development of research ideas	26	25	96	52	51	98
Development of leadership skills	26	16	62	52	28	54
Personal care & support	26	14	54	52	28	54
Work-related emotional support	26	13	50	52	30	58
Connections to financial support	26	10	38	52	30	58
Emotional support for personal issues	26	8	31	52	14	27
Provides career counseling	26	17	65	52	31	60
Networking	26	24	92	52	43	83
Grant writing & publishing	26	19	73	52	39	75
Develop writing expertise	26	19	73	52	35	68
Assists with presentation skills	26	19	73	52	27	52
Resolves conflict	26	8	31	52	15	29
Fosters integrity & ethical behaviors	26	20	77	52	37	71

Experiences with Mentoring Activities

Survey respondents were asked a series of questions regarding what mentoring services their doctoral program provided to enable them to succeed in the field, as well as questions that assessed the dynamic of the relationships they had with their mentors. Survey respondents were also asked to identify how they were connected to their mentors either formally, informally, or via a program external to the university. We then compared the quantitative survey responses to focus group participants' responses to a questionnaire, which asked specific questions about their experiences with mentoring.

Program support for success in the field. Survey participants reported what service their program provided to enable them to succeed in the field. Responses from male students are mostly consistent with female students' viewpoints (Table 3). Both male (μ = 2.38) and female (μ = 2.22) respondents, collectively, reported their educational leadership doctoral programs offered academic support, as well as opportunities to acquire advice and sharpen the skills, knowledge, and experiences necessary for success in the educational leadership field. Though, when it involved research and scholarship skills, such as preparing and writing publications and grant proposals (men μ = 2.15, women μ = 1.71), and guidance on conference and research presentations (men μ = 2.19, women μ= 1.63), students indicated that their programs provided a lesser degree of support and instruction (Table 3). Consistent with participants' lack of emphasis on the psychosocial and emotional facets of what may involve quality mentoring, all participants (men μ = 1.77, women μ = 1.68) reported that their doctoral program provided limited emotional support and showed limited interest in their personal lives. Furthermore, knowledge, training, and advocacy toward obtaining funding for their doctoral studies (men μ = 1.58, women μ =

1.51), as well as networking and building professional relationships (men μ = 2.08, women μ = 1.67), was insufficient to a certain extent for all respondents.

Table 3
Program Support for Success in the Field

	Gender							
	Male			Female				
Services of Leadership Preparation Programs	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*Cohen's D*	*Effect Size R*
Academic support & advice	26	2.38	0.804	50	2.22	0.679	0.215	0.107
Networking & building professional relationships	26	2.08*	0.686	52	1.67*	0.76	0.566	0.272
Advocacy toward funding my doctoral studies	26	1.58	0.809	51	1.51	0.784	0.088	0.044
Emotional support & interest in personal life	26	1.77	0.908	50	1.68	0.741	0.109	0.054
Instruction to prepare & write publications	26	2.15*	0.732	52	1.71*	0.936	0.524	0.253
Guidance on conference & research presentations	26	2.19*	0.749	52	1.63*	0.886	0.683	0.323
Opportunities to discuss skills & knowledge	26	2.19	0.801	52	1.98	0.804	0.262	0.13
Opportunities to gain skills, knowledge & experiences	26	2.27	0.724	52	1.92	0.813	0.455	0.222
Instruction on how to write grant proposals	26	0.92	0.891	52	0.83	0.678	0.114	0.057

Relationship between mentor and mentee. For all sub-items under the survey question assessing the relationship between mentor and mentee participants were able to select multiple responses, and the percentage of each option added up to 100% (see Table 4). According to the survey data 89% of male students and 67% of female students have informal or formal mentors. However, there was a noteworthy difference between where male versus females' faculty mentors were located, with 81% of male students reporting their mentors were at their universities, and 65% of female students had mentors at their institutions (Table 4). Additionally, there were differences in the frequency in which men and women met with their mentors. Over half, 54%, of male respondents and only 25% of female students reported meeting with their mentors monthly, whereas 15% of female and 13% of male students met with their respective

mentors weekly. All statistics affiliated with the sub-item *meets with the mentor once per year* were statistically significant.

Survey participants were then asked to rate their mentor-mentee relationship using a four-item Likert Scale (Table 5). We coded strongly agree as 3, agree as 2, disagree as 1, and strongly disagree as 0. Both males and females ratings of their mentor-mentee relationship were consistently similar. All participants alike reported fairly positive relationships with their mentor by strongly agreeing that their mentors helped them improve their work product; were supportive, encouraging, and motivating; and were accessible and able to provide constructive and useful critiques of their work. Also, male ($\mu = 2.48$) and female ($\mu = 2.57$) participants felt that their mentors demonstrated content expertise in their area of need. Still, focus group participants had quite the opposite response about their relationship with their mentor. Case in point, Meg was concerned there was minimal expertise in her program for her research interests. She criticized,

> There has to be someone here at the University that is interested in teacher quality policies, because the people at the capitol don't know what they are talking about. I don't feel the love from anybody, and I am begging, and I am looking for this artificial relationship.

Comparably, five of the focus group participants were concerned that they receive insufficient guidance on how to conduct research and prepare publications. Diana was worried because she needed "a research assistantship, cause I need something about the research process. I chose this university because I like research." Kayla expressed similar concerns that lack of mentoring may reflect poorly in the job search because, "There is competition for jobs, but mentorship in terms of research, and that is particularly frustrating because I don't want to be a professor, I want to do research. And I have no idea how to do that or where to do that."

It was clear that survey participants' relationships with their mentors primarily served academic and professional functions, not personal. Male and female doctoral students comparably on average marginally considered their mentors as friends, and thought their mentors were less effective in providing direction and guidance. Still, male students felt less comfortable sharing personal information with their mentors. Though, one inconsistency was that more females strongly agreed that their mentor demonstrated content expertise in an area of need. Definitively, all doctoral students, both survey and focus group respondents, desired more networking opportunities, with the hope that their mentors could help them make additional professional contacts. To articulate this point, focus group participant Jasmine felt that one of her professors made an effort get to know students personally. She felt one professor in particular, "Dr. Collins has done a lot for mentorship, he is probably the one person I talk to just to sit down and talk, and he knows nothing about what I am doing." Whereas, Grace had a different experience with her informal faculty member who she worked on several research projects with and as a teaching assistant. Grace said that her faculty mentor is, "certainly concerned with my progress as a student and researcher, [but] our interactions are more task-focused and not more generally focused on cultivating me as an academic." This dynamic with her faculty mentor worked for Grace as she could seek other mentoring needs from her parents because,

> both of my parents, who are professors, albeit of disciplines unrelated to my own, have also always served as my mentors. As individuals who understand academia and, of course, my own individual strengths and objectives, they have always proved invaluable in guiding me towards achieving my academic pursuits.

Table 4

Relationship Between Mentor and Mentee

	Gender					
	Male			Female		
	n	Frequency	%	*n*	Frequency	%
Currently have informal/formal mentor*	26	23	89	52	35	67
Mentor at same institution	26	21	81	52	35	65
Meet with mentor weekly	26	3	12	52	8	15
Meet with mentor monthly	26	14	54	52	13	25
Meet with mentor once per semester*	26	4	15	52	12	13
Meet with mentor once per year	26	1	4	52	1	2
Almost never meet with mentor	26	1	4	52	0	0

Table 5[1]

Relationship Between Mentor and Mentee

	Gender							
	Male			Female				
	n	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*Cohen's D*	*Effect Size R*
Mentor was accessible	23	2.52	0.665	35	2.46	0.561	0.1	0.05
Mentor demonstrated content expertise in area of need	23	2.48	0.79	35	2.57	0.558	0.131	0.066
Mentor supportive, encouraging, & motivating	23	2.61	0.583	35	2.46	0.657	0.241	0.12
Mentor helped improve work product	23	2.64	0.581	34	2.32	0.727	0.483	0.236
Mentor helped me network	22	2.22	0.736	35	1.97	1.243	0.245	0.121
Mentor helpful providing direction & guidance	23	2.35	0.775	35	2.03	0.857	0.392	0.192
I consider mentor a friend	23	2.13	0.92	35	1.94	0.802	0.22	0.11
Mentor provided constructive & useful critiques of work	23	2.57	0.59	35	2.42	0.657	0.24	0.12

[1] Most of the Cohen's D effect sizes for this set of questions are approximately at or below.2, indicating that the magnitude of the effect between the differences in men and women's responses is relatively small. The effect size for *my mentor was helpful in providing direction and guidance* is .392, which is between .2 and .5. However, the effect size for *my mentor helped me improve my work product* is .483, and when rounded up to. 5 indicates that the relationship between the differences in men and women's responses is in the medium range.

Connections to mentors. According to the survey data 38% of male students and 56% of female students were assigned doctoral program advisors (Table 6). However, all students reported formal mentoring programs were a rarity. In terms of making initial mentoring connections, 35% of male students and 21% of female students took the initiative to approach their mentors based on personal interests in their mentors' work. Approximately 11.5% of male and 17% of female students reported their mentors approached them to form a research or professional collaboration. Only 4% of both female and male students were introduced to their mentors by another individual, professional network, or organization.

Table 6
Connections to Mentors

	Gender					
	Male			Female		
	n	Frequency	%	*n*	Frequency	%
Mentor is assigned program advisor	26	10	38	52	29	56
Mentor assigned through formal mentoring program	26	3	12	52	1	2
I approached mentor due to interest in his/her work	26	11	42	52	12	23
Mentor approached me to begin research/professional collaboration	26	3	12	52	9	17
I was introduced to my mentor by individual or organization	26	1	4	52	2	4

For the questionnaire focus group participants were asked, "Do you now or have you ever had a formal/informal mentor in your current program? If so, please briefly explain." Two of twelve (17%) of respondents reported having strong informal and/or formal mentoring relationships with dissertation chairs or other professors with whom they conduct research. Marisela wrote, "I have been closely mentored during my two years at [Central University] by my advisor...I have had two professors within my program who have been informal mentors as well as multiple faculty from [another department]." Marisela worked consistently as a graduate assistant since entering the program.

Six of twelve (50%) students expressed that after "working at it" for two, three, or four years, they have either developed informal mentor/mentee relationships with at least one fellow student or professor or have developed a positive, but sometimes limited, relationship with their dissertation chair. Maria named eight different professors – female and male – who have checked in with her from time to time to gauge her progress, while two of those professors were named as confidants that she could share the "true challenges that I feel." Maria also named eight students– female and male – who have acted as encouragers. She adds: "By mentor, I mean someone who cares for my welfare. Since at this time I have informal mentors, I do not have specific times that I meet with anyone nor do I have set times to meet on a consistent basis."

Four of twelve (33%) participants reported having no formal or informal mentoring relationships now or in the past in their educational leadership doctoral program. Grace wrote that she has, "no formal mentor :(. I'm not even sure who my advisor is." Of all participants, nine of twelve (75%) believed they needed significant increases in the amount and type of mentoring they received in order to be successful as students and future academicians. Moreover, some

form of mentorship needed to begin as soon as they entered the program, when many felt especially vulnerable.

Experiences According to Intersecting Identities

Female survey and focus group participants alike revealed how unsolicited stereotypes based on their gender and other intersecting identities precipitated structural and emotional roadblocks in their doctoral studies. Consequently, female participants were burdened with a number of interlocking forms of oppressions—such as racism, sexism, classism, age-ism, xenophobia, and homophobia—that generated feelings of doubt and questioning of self. Sadly, participants experienced doctoral programmatic inequities, such as insufficient funding and employment opportunities, that were also deleterious to their self-worth. Moreover, work-life balance concerns, especially personal and familial sacrifices, could support and or hinder their academic progress. Subsequently, participants discuss how their complex intersection of identities impacted their mentoring opportunities and relationships.

Questioning self. Female survey respondents in particular reported their progression through the doctoral program was impeded by struggles with self-doubt and negative experiences with advising and mentoring (Table 7). Consistently, all survey participants (men $\mu = 1.77$ and women $\mu = 1.68$) reported that their doctoral program provided limited emotional support and displayed limited interest in their personal lives (Table 7).

Similarly, almost all women in the focus group expressed feeling that something was wrong with them due to unwanted stereotypes and difficulties they were facing as a result. Emma, Julie, and Margaret questioned their identities as "older women." Despite coming into the program with a wealth of experience, knowledge, and skills, each wondered aloud why they seemed to be passed over for research and assistantship opportunities: "What is wrong with me? Is it because I am a woman? Is it because I'm old?" All three expressed that they felt they were being looked at negatively because of their sex, age, and perceived body image.

It had been nearly thirteen years since Emma had last been in school and when she first began the PhD program. She admitted, "I am not the biggest whipper snapper." There were computer programs and new learning techniques that were not around when she was last in school and she felt it took her an inordinate amount of time to acclimate to being a student again. Emma felt that since she needed more time to complete assignments and understand new systems, some of her professors and peers were impatient with her; causing her to feel discriminated against because of her age. Emma avoided disclosing her age and seemed to have internalized the identity stereotypes that are placed on her because she was an "older woman" who never married or raised children:

> It's different when you are in your 40s and you have other things that pile on. I'm really sensitive about my age. That's why I don't try to broadcast. I could have taken the marrying and having kids route. Maybe something is wrong with me. Maybe I'm not attractive enough.

Emma described the unwanted identity stereotype "marking" her as a possible "lesbian" and/or "spinster." During the focus group other participants tried to support Emma by reminding her of her many accomplishments and assets, such as speaking multiple languages and experiences living in Latin American countries for many years. It seemed that even with all her success, the

additional weight of uninvited identities was becoming a part of her repertoire – a repertoire she fiercely resisted.

Margaret, a year ahead of Emma in the PhD process, felt uncomfortable about her age in the beginning of her graduate studies. But Margaret learned to be proud of her experiences and use her "old lady" identity to benefit her research agenda. Margaret celebrated her 20-plus years of professional experience in the education field, and though it had been painful at times, began to learn how to use her professional and life experiences to gain respect from professors and peers as well as benefit her present work on behalf of children. After she described some uncomfortable experiences dealing with sexual harassment and age discrimination, the group urged Margaret to remember that being a woman in her 40s has given her the life experiences to better negotiate and resolve conflicts with professors, unlike some students who could potentially be manipulated by professors and peers because of their inexperience. In addition, the women encouraged Margaret further by noting how being in her 40s gave her a context that others in her PhD cohort do not have that enhances her research lens. Emma agreed and said, "I remember the attempt to assassinate Reagan. I have a context to something."

As first-generation college graduates, five of twelve participants felt they learned the expectations of the academic world through trial and error. Without family members or peers affiliated with academe and middle-class life, they said they were unaware of the norms, rules, and mores of a PhD program. Jasmine often saw her low socioeconomic identity superseding her racial identity in the academic world. Jasmine said she felt out of place in academic settings not always because she is a Black woman, but because she grew up poor. Jasmine said, "Most professors assume that you know something or are connected to something. I feel that most professors come from a privileged background." Because of her Black, female, low socioeconomic identity Jasmine said, "I anticipate being judged, and someone is going to look at me and say, 'What are you doing here?'

Chun Hei and Zhen-Zhen, both international students, revisited their feelings of isolation because they are English language learners. Zhen-Zhen found it difficult to join study groups with her peers when she first started the program. When Zhen-Zhen started the PhD program most students already established study groups and she could not figure out how to join one, or she often felt that her peers avoided her or failed to invite her to be a part of their study group because she was an English Language Learner. Zhen-Zhen said if it was not for two female classmates who invited her to be a part of their group and, "took care of me," she would carry on in extreme isolation. Zhen-Zhen described an incident where two international students in one of her classes were excluded by her peers and were left to work by themselves for a class project. Zhen-Zhen asked the two international students why they were in a group of two and not with other students for support. The students replied, "I don't know, no one wanted to work with us."

Unequal job and funding issues. From the survey data, 14% of female students reported their program progress was to a great extent constrained by erratic funding, insecure funding, or lack of funding, while none of the male students reported funding issues. Similarly, 52% of women versus 31% of the men responded that they were engaged in time consuming graduate research assistantships or other employment that was irrelevant to their progress (Table 8). Moreover, when examining the rate students secured fellowships and grants, we found that 42% of male students received fellowships or grants in comparison to 31% of female students in the sample. Likewise, a higher proportion of male students, more than 73%, were employed by their institutions, while a lower proportion of female students, 44%, were employed by their

universities. Consequently, female students (29%) were more likely to hold a position outside of the university than male students (4%) did (Table 7).

The female survey participants' limited funding and job opportunities corroborates focus group responses. In the focus group discussion, all participants admitted that they at some point in time during their doctoral studies suffered from either being jobless, having insecure job offers, or lack of jobs related to their studies. Most aired a number of difficulties they endured navigating the organizational cultural and accessing institutional resources in their educational leadership department. Their apprehension stemmed from a lack of university and departmental clarity on how to secure financial assistance and employment. Karen, a single mother of three, was especially troubled by the insufficient information about available graduate assistantships and the selection criteria for any potential opportunities. The scarcity in job and funding prospects at times created an antagonistic and competitive environment. Karen went on to add that she embraced the competition at times, but not when funding and job calls failed to be clearly and fairly announced and posted. The women suspected that the inequities they faced were partly due to networks they were not privy to since positions were seemingly offered to male students who had developed social relationships with their professors. Female participants shared examples of how their male classmates often socialized with male professors while playing basketball or going out for drinks. Although these social settings were unassociated with graduate studies, they still garnered privileges for male students that advanced their academic careers.

Zhen-Zhen was the only international student in her cohort. Both Chun Hei and Zhen-Zhen described the political complexities of being international students. Zhen-Zhen said, "I am not qualified for student loans because I am an international student." Chun Hei shared the financial struggles of being an international student. She did not have a research assistantship, and without an assistantship she had to pay the more expensive international student tuition rate versus the in-state rate guaranteed to international students who are awarded research assistantships. Chun Hei described how the overlapping forms of oppressions she endured made it difficult to access job and research opportunities in her PhD program:

> I am not only a second language learner student, but I am also an international student. And I am Asian, and there are few Asian students in our department. Most of the international students do not have any jobs…There are no mentorship programs for international students.

Chun Hei also felt discriminated against in the research assistant hiring process because she is an English language learner. Chun Hei was not afraid to reveal the pain she felt as a female international student:

> I just need to share my agony. I have been searching for a job a long time. The only thing I am qualified for is the Division of Dining services as a waitress. I am a doctoral student. I do not have a mentor. I need mentorship and networks. I am very lonely. At least if I had a mentor and support I would feel much better. I am feeling isolated like an island. I am glad to share my difficulty.

Still, not all was loss. On occasion individual professors would provide helpful information about financial assistance, such as conducting volunteer work in order to receive discounted rates for major conferences. Nevertheless, participants pronounced that their female classmates provided the most rewarding mentoring. Melanie appreciated how, "We have learned

to look out for each other. Us women. We all search the internet for fellowships and calls for papers and so on. We e-mail them to each other. We read each other's papers . . . Our stuff is often rejected because we don't have anyone but each other for guidance. Ultimately, the women relied heavily on their female peer networks to compensate for what formal mentoring was lacking. Their female peer networks produced some of the most nurturing and rewarding mentoring relationships. Unfortunately, despite their reliance on each other Melanie added that even though women are proactive "not just sitting around and complaining… it's hard not to get discouraged. It's like we're spinning our wheels and going nowhere."

Personal and familial sacrifice. Among the survey respondents, specifically 12% of female students and none of the male students reported to a great extent marital or family problems constrained their program progress (Table 7). While only a smaller portion of the female survey respondents made personal and familial sacrifices during their doctoral studies, several focus groups participants had children and/or devoted their time to caring for aging parents. During discussions the women exhibited vulnerability by opening up about intense moments when time devoted to doctoral studies encumbered upon their family life. A few participants, such as Karen, worked fulltime while pursuing their doctoral studies. Karen worked as an assistant principal while taking two doctoral courses a semester. This level of work placed stress and strain on her family life, especially with her children, who were struggling in school. Karen said her children would often "tease" her about the limited time she spent at home and say, "Where is my real mom? You are not my real mom!"

Notwithstanding the stress and sacrifice, being a dutiful caregiver was instinctive to the women's identities. This sacrifice was especially so for women who were first-generation college graduates, as their families relied on them for financial support. Though caring for others at times exacerbated imbalances in the women's doctoral studies, these same caring relationships provided essential affective support. For instance, Gabriella's adult daughter often proofread Maria's papers and "help[ed] raise" her teenage son. Thus, identities linked to added stress and strain would occasionally be the greatest source of support.

Table 7
Factors Hindering Student Program Progress

	Gender							
	Male				Female			
	n	Not At All	Some Extent	Great Extent	*n*	Not At All	Some Extent	Great Extent
Doubts or uncertainties about ability to earn a doctoral degree	26	58	38	4	51	60	27	13
Erratic funding insecure funding or lack of funding	26	46	54	0	52	46	40	14
Child care responsibilities*	26	50	42	8	52	75	13	12
Caring for parent other family members are not your own children	26	73	27	0	51	75	21	4

Marital or family obstacles/problems**	26	50	50	0	51	73	15	12
Personal illnesses or injuries	25	85	12	0	52	81	17	2
Poor or inattentive advising or mentoring services	26	73	23	4	50	67	21	12
Not finding the right mentor advisor early enough	26	62	27	11	50	60	31	9
Few or no productive research experiences opportunities	26	50	42	8	51	64	21	14
Time consuming research appointments irrelevant to progress	26	65	35	0	52	71	21	8
Time consuming outside employment irrelevant to progress	26	31	42	27	52	52	29	19

Results reported as percentages

Table 8

Job and Funding Related Issues

	Gender					
	Male			Female		
	n	Frequency	%	*n*	Frequency	%
Have you received any fellowships grants?	26	11	42	52	16	31
Do you currently or have you ever held an assistantship?	26	11	42	52	28	54
Did you have an internship or practicum experience?	26	8	31	52	13	25
Did you work in a full time 30 hour a week job at anytime?	26	20	77	52	38	73
Held position inside of university**	26	19	73	52	23	44
Held position outside of university**	26	1	4	52	15	29
Did you interrupt your doctoral studies during a Fall or Spring semester?	26	4	15	52	6	12

Discussion and Recommendations

Using a diversification of methodological approaches that are both quantitative and qualitative helped us understand how mentoring in educational leadership preparation could be viewed at a macro level to examine issues systemically across the field, while also focusing in on the nuances that occur at the micro level within a specific context. Researchers have shown how both mentors and protégés experience tension in the mentoring process (Mullen, 2012; Griffin & Reddick, 2011). Either party faces institutional and structural challenges that can strain the mentoring relationship. This suggests that the mentoring dynamic is not only influenced by the individuals involved, the mentor and protégé, but also by larger systemic forces that are indicative of the department, university, and even the field of educational leadership. Thus, more research is needed that examines mentoring more complexly, holistically, and systemically.

Although the integrated studies we presented were conducted separately and we cannot form causal relationships between the two studies, together the two studies offers complimentary perspectives from different vantage points on mentoring that are useful to drafting recommendations for improving mentoring structures, practices and opportunities in educational leadership preparation, as well as suggestions for future research on the subject. Specifically, our analysis identified three major set of findings: 1) students' perceptions of quality mentoring, 2) experiences with mentoring activities, and 3) differences in experiences according to intersecting identity factors. Below, we discuss our findings and recommendations for policy and practice in relation to each of these themes.

In our research, participants emphasized how professional and career development were essential to quality mentoring. Both survey and focus group participants identified training and guidance on research and writing and opportunities to build professional networks as two key mentoring supports, which were often lacking in their educational leadership doctoral programs. The salience of these themes in both studies could suggest that mentoring insufficiency is not just an issue of an individual institution, department, or academic program, but could be indicative of a wider deficit in educational leadership programs in the United States.

In our previous research on mentoring in educational leadership preparation, we suggested that interventions for academic development expand to the broader field (Welton et al., 2015). This is especially important for doctoral students interested in a career in the professoriate, who will need to be skilled in research and writing to thrive. Academic development consists of cultivating a doctoral student's writing and research skills and providing an introduction to scholarly networks that would be beneficial to the student's potential academic career (Grant & Simmons, 2008). We strongly recommend that organizations with significant influence on the field, such as the University Council of Educational Administration (UCEA) and the National Council of Professors in Educational Administration (NCPEA) collectively work to support the *academic development* of doctoral students in educational leadership.

In addition to the emphasis participants placed on programmatic support for academic success in the field, participants also highlighted the importance of the mentor/mentee relationship and how this relationship impacted their overall experiences with mentoring. Importantly, the majority of survey participants reported that their educational leadership preparation programs did not provide emotional support and showed limited interest in their personal lives. Whether participants felt they needed emotional support, however, was more mixed. While focus group participants reported that they need more emotional support to contend with the subjugation they faced from a number of identity stereotypes as well as the

stress of work-academia-life balance concerns, only a limited number of survey respondents felt that they needed "psychological" and emotional support. One possible inference from survey participants' responses is that "you don't know, what you don't know," meaning that if they did not receive psychosocial and emotional support from their programs, they may not have recognized it as a desired resource. Regardless, the fact that some students were able to articulate their need for mentoring support that extended beyond advising and developing academic skills implies the importance of having such supports available.

However, in developing any mentoring program it is essential that higher education institutions ensure that the program is adequately resourced, consistently applied and implemented by all faculty members who work with doctoral students. The latter is particularly important given that research on mentoring demonstrates that both faculty of color and female faculty already tend to carry an extra burden of service duties (e.g., diversity related service, committee work, and academic housekeeping and higher mentoring and advising loads) (Reddick, 2011; Reddick & Young, 2012). Moreover, additional service, especially service that is associated with the "emotive" side of academic growth, is often assigned to female or racial minority faculty in the department. This has been referred to in the research as *mothering work* for female faculty and *identity taxation* for faculty of color (Ford, 2011; Griffin & Reddick, 2011; Reddick & Young, 2012) and can distract faculty from other critical areas of tenure, especially research. We recommend that institutions take care not to overburden female faculty and faculty of color. Instead we suggest searching for solutions that acknowledge that the inequities in mentoring are indeed institutionalized and systemic, and therefore should be approached as such.

With regard to our third major theme, participants discussed how unwanted stereotypes associated with their various identities generated feelings of doubt, caused them to question their self-worth, and adversely affected their access to mentoring. The focus group method, used in study one, provided participants an open forum to disclose the number of intersecting oppressions they faced with mentoring in their doctoral program and in general. However, the questioning of self and feelings of self-doubt associated with multiple and intersecting identities, was evident in the data collected through both study one and two.

Respondents articulated how they faced oppression for not just one aspect of their identity, but multiple; and this compounded oppression often happened simultaneously. Focus group participants were deeply concerned about how they would survive and whether they could thrive in their doctoral program due to the number of microaggressions they experienced in the process. Microaggression is typically a term to describe "incessant, subtle, yet stunning racial assaults" that students of color contend with on a daily basis (Yosso, Smith, Ceja, Solorzano, 2009, p. 360). The unwanted racial stress associated with microagressions, leads to chronic mental, emotional, and physical trauma also known as racial battle fatigue (Smith, 2004; Yosso et al., 2009). Unfortunately, the violence our focus group participants experienced on the battlefield was not just racism and sexism, but also interlocked with xenophobia, ageism, classism, and even linguicism. Given the powerful impact of oppression, particularly multiple and intersecting oppressions, we recommend that mentoring approaches be intersectional and address the complexity of doctoral students' identities.

Currently, the field of educational administration offers mentoring through individual institutions as well as through professional associations. The above recommendations have focused primarily on the actions that universities can take as they seek to provide quality mentoring. Professional associations currently offer national programs such as the David L.

Clark scholars program, jointly sponsored by American Educational Research Association's (AERA) Divisions A (Administration), L (Policy), and UCEA; the *Mentoring Mosaic* sponsored by National Council of Professors in Educational Administration (NCPEA); the William L. Boyd National Educational Politics Workshop sponsored by the Politics of Education Association and UCEA, and the Barbara L. Jackson scholars sponsored by UCEA. These programs are instrumental in preparing hundreds of educational leadership doctoral students for the professoriate, the fourth program providing mentoring for doctoral students of color (see Grant, 2009; Reddick & Young, 2012; Simmons & Grant, 2008; Young & Brooks, 2008). Yet, based on our research, we urge these programs to take an intersectional identity approach to mentoring so participants can be prepared for the reality of the identity politics they will face once they are professionals in educational leadership. We also challenge ourselves and other researchers to expand and deepen the research base on mentoring needs in educational leadership to incorporate an intersectional identity perspective, and to seek ways to both quantitatively and qualitatively represent the full breadth of educational leadership doctoral students' experiences and needs as they prepare for success in their future careers.

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The Teaching of the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices for Texas Educator Preparation Programs

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

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The purpose of this descriptive quantitative research study was to answer three basic informational questions: (1) To what extent ethics training, as stipulated in Texas Administrative Code Chapter 247, was included in the EPP curriculum; (2) To what extent Texas public universities with approved EPP programs provided faculty opportunities for and/or required faculty to obtain ethics training; and (3) To what extent EPP professors included information regarding the consequences of unethical behavior and information on professional and ethical decision making. A short, concise electronically delivered survey provided the necessary data to answer the informational questions regarding the training received and the delivery of Texas Administrator Code Chapter 247, Educators' Code of Ethics. As such, this descriptive quantitative research study investigated the extent Texas Education Agency (TEA) approved state universities addressed these criteria of teaching the code of ethics in their EPP curricula. The study found that the overall picture shows a majority of the TEA approved EPP professors included this criterion in their curriculum. The study also found that specific training opportunities were minimal, although there was considerable interest in training opportunities from the participants. The study showed a consensus among the participants regarding the inclusion of specific information about consequences for unethical behavior and information regarding professional and ethical decision-making.

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Introduction

The concept of ethics training in education has traditionally evolved slowly. Intrinsically, ethical behavior by educators is considered an axiom of the position. However, as current research reveals, the effort to improve ethical behavior through normative training has developed at a rapid pace (Rowland, 2009; Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2011). According to Rowland (2009), this trend has been fueled by findings that revealed "incidents of cheating, corruption, dishonesty, fraud, and ethical violations both in the workplace and in higher and professional education were pervasive and being increasingly reported in the mainstream media and via the Internet" (p.324). Unlike other professions (e.g., lawyers, doctors, dentists, and businesses) that require students to complete at least one course in ethics prior to graduation, collectively teachers lack a rationally and empirically based ethics education with the focus of improving ethical behavior (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2011).

Although codes of ethics have not played a significant role in teacher preparation programs in the past, as Shapiro and Stefkovich (2011) noted, "the world had become more unstable due to terrorism, wars, and financial uncertainty" (p. xi). Furthermore, as America's public schools have become more culturally diverse, school administrators and classroom teachers must now confront societal changes impacted by the increasing use of social media and advancements in technology, escalating violence and sexual promiscuity among youth, and the impact of different cultures and religions on ideology (Benninga, 2003; Voltz, Sims, & Nelson, 2010; Karp 2013/14; Lazarin, 2014; Blad, 2015). Amidst these changes, the idea that leaders of educational institutions should be ethical is not new.

Historically, it was assumed that leaders of educational institutions represented the highest moral standards of society (Beck, Murphy & Associates, 1997). "However, recent scandals occurring in some of society's leading institutions [have] raised awareness for the importance of professional ethics; and increasingly graduate education programs worldwide are responding with more explicit instruction in ethical decision-making" (Walker & Green, 2006, n.p.). Conversely, Levine (2006) explained that many stakeholder groups, including school districts, universities, colleges, private companies, education service centers, and nonprofit organizations could be approved to train prospective educators in ethical behaviors. Nonetheless, the National Council on Teacher Quality (2010) reported that critical attention was needed to develop a system of accountability for educator preparation programs (EPPs). Ensuring programs meet minimum standards and adhere to research-based best practices is a crucial element in the comprehensive approach to improved educational quality (Steiner and Rozen, 2004).

In Texas, the State Board for Educator Certification (SBEC) requires EPPs to include in their curricula the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices for Texas Educators (19 TAC §228.30 [1999]). This code addresses educators' "professional ethical conduct, practices, and performance; ethical conduct toward professional colleagues; and ethical conduct toward students" (19 TAC §247.2 [1998]). The importance of including training in personal ethics goes beyond just the educators' interactions with students, it also includes their interactions with professional colleagues and professional conduct outside the classroom. Consequently, it has become imperative that experiences be incorporated into current EPP curricula that shape not only school administrators' and classroom teachers' thoughts, but also their perceptions, beliefs, assumptions and commitments.

Furthermore, the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (2008) identified ethics as one of the competencies necessary for school administrators and classroom teachers;

however, research findings have indicated a gap between what was proposed and what is currently practiced (Shapiro & Stefkovich 2011). Even though the State Board for Educator Certification (SBEC) requires the inclusion of the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices in the curriculum, there are no specific guidelines as to how it should be taught or assessed (M. A. Davenport, personal communication, February 25, 2014). Rather, the Texas Administrative Code states, "the curriculum for each educator preparation program be based on scientifically-based research to ensure teacher effectiveness and that it be aligned with the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS)" (19 TAC §228.30 [1999]). This descriptive quantitative research study was designed to answer informational questions regarding gaps between what was proposed by the State Board for Educator Certification (SBEC) and what is in practice by Texas Education Agency (TEA) approved state university Educator Preparation Programs (EPPs).

Statement of the Problem

Educators lack a national standard that governs their behaviors. Further compounding the issues of a corporate understanding of ethics and personal responsibility is the lack of cultural mores or understandings that are widely accepted and practiced within communities. While the State Board of Educator Certification (SBEC), pursuant to Chapter 247 of the Texas Administrative Code, requires each Educator Preparation Program (EPP) to include in its curricula the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices for Texas Educators, the vagueness regarding the implementation and assessment of ethics training is as ambivalent as the collective moral compasses of the society charged with interpreting meanings and actions that define a singular understanding of culture. Texas Administrative Code Rule 228.50 states: "during the period of preparation, the educator preparation entity shall ensure that the individuals preparing candidates and the candidates themselves demonstrate adherence to Chapter 247 of this title (relating to Educators' Code of Ethics)" (19 TAC §228.50 [1999]). Adherence to this code includes the teachers' "professional ethical conduct, practices and performance; ethical conduct toward professional colleagues; and ethical conduct toward students" (19 TAC §247.2 [1998]), and the same applies for the individuals preparing the candidates. This requires both EPP professors and educator certification candidates to understand the importance of the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this descriptive quantitative research study was to answer three basic informational questions: (1) To what extent ethics training, as stipulated in Texas Administrative Code Chapter 247, was included in the EPP curriculum; (2) To what extent Texas public universities with approved EPP programs provided their faculty opportunities for and/or required them to obtain ethics training; and (3) To what extent the EPP professions included information regarding the consequences of unethical behavior and information on professional and ethical decision-making. This study was in concert with Texas SBEC Chapter 228: Requirement for Educator Preparation Program, Rule 228.40: Assessment and Evaluation of Candidates for Certification and Program Improvement, Section C, which states: "For the purposes of educator preparation program improvement, an entity shall continuously evaluate the design and delivery of the educator preparation curriculum based on performance data, scientifically-based research practices, and the results of internal and external assessments" (19 TAC §228.40 [1999]).

Research Questions

The informational questions guiding this descriptive quantitative research study were the following:

1. To what extent do TEA approved state university EPP professors include instruction on Texas Administrative Code Chapter 247 Rule 247.2: Code of Ethics and Standard Practices to certification candidates in the curricula?
2. How do TEA approved state university EPP professors include instruction on the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices to certification candidates in their EPP curriculum?
3. To what extent are TEA approved state university EPP professors provided opportunities for training on Texas Administrative Code Chapter 247 Rule 247.2?

These research questions provided information about how EPP professors shared instruction over the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices in their courses. The research questions also investigated the training opportunities provided to EPP professors. The final questions provided information about the extent EPP professors provided information about the consequences of unethical behavior and professional and ethical decision-making in their curriculum because the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices were enforceable standards for certified educators in Texas.

Significance of the Study

Ethics training is an important part of the process of educating administrators and teachers to ensure they are adequately prepared to make professional decisions (Beck & Murphy, 1994b; Hutchings, 2009). Educators should be trained to give conscious consideration to their personal biases and how they apply ethical principles in the decision-making processes (Winston, 2007). EPPs should also teach practical application and knowledge about ethics so that classroom teachers can make ethical and wise choices in their classroom practices. According to Leonard (2007), the position of schoolteacher has become more complex and challenging due to social changes, the increase in accountability by federal and state agencies, and many new expectations such as addressing the needs of multicultural students, economically disadvantaged students, and special needs students. Knight, Shapiro, and Stefkovich (2001) noted that educators (i.e., administrators and teachers) relied too much on their emotions when hey were required to make professional decisions. Educators must not render professional decisions based on their emotions or personal biases. For example, Soskolne (1985) stated that "codes could provide a practical guide to members of the profession who might be experiencing a moral or ethical dilemma concerning their professional conduct in a particular circumstance" (p. 173).

The existence of a code provides the basis of a profession's ethics program of activity, and is designed to instill ethical standards among its membership (Gellermann, Frankel, & Ladenson 1990; Hall 1993). Educational training should include specific instruction in the practice of making ethical decisions based on the educators' code of ethics. Regardless, codes provide no substitute for legal liability dimensions of conduct, for which the government has enacted laws to protect public interest (Cohen, 1982). At any rate, teaching the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices in EPPs must prepare educators to be ethically, morally, and legally responsible (Hutchings, 2009). Hutchings continued, "the implementation of a required course at

the foundational level that included specific learning objectives in ethics, professional conduct and teacher law [is] recommended and especially helpful to those encountering the challenges found [in schools]" (p. 154). Three components in ethics training have been identified as necessary:

1. internship experiences under seasoned mentors that modeled the best practices needed for the position,
2. ongoing professional development with specific training within the context of all other human activities and human responsibilities, and
3. the development of a literature base that supported knowledge of ethical leadership challenges, developments, and best practices. (Rebore, 2001, p. 23)

This descriptive quantitative research seeks to add to the body of emergent literature regarding the misconnect between theory and practice regarding the delivery of instruction in TEA approved EPPs. The results of this study could potentially provide a framework for teaching ethics to educators in Texas, and on the national stage, establishing a national standard for educator conduct.

Theoretical Framework

Ethical Leadership Theory

Because ethics training is an important part of the process of educating administrators and teachers, an understanding of how ethical leadership theory influences leadership behavior and outcomes of organizations provides the foundation for this study. Northouse (2013), who traces ethics back to Plato and Aristotle, defines ethics as the moral compass that frames character or conduct based on morals, the behavior of a person; or virtues, the quality of a person. Likewise, Chitpin and Evers (2014), posit how ethical values and morals guide actions or conduct based on coherent, generally accepted principles that define right from wrong. Resultantly, ethical leadership is leadership that is grounded in ethical beliefs and values and for the dignity and rights of others (Brown, Trevino, & Harrison (2005).

Furthermore, Monahan (2012) suggests that ethical leadership is one's influence upon others to do the right thing. Darcy (2010) notes that ethical leadership is a way of being in order to make the right choice. Conversely, Yukl (2012) contends that the ethics of the leader shapes the behavior of the followers either positively or negatively. Therefore, ethical leadership ultimately determines the ethical climate that will be developed in an organization.

Understanding that different cultures and traditions may define doing what is right in different ways, ethical leadership for professional educators is mandated by a specific code of ethics, which all teachers and administrators are expected to follow. In the State of Texas, ethical leadership is grounded in the Texas Code of Ethics and Standard Practices, a set of enforceable standards mandated by Texas Education Code to be taught in every Educator Preparation Program. As ethical leadership is consider the theoretical framework, it results in the preparation of educational leaders to be ethically, morally, and legally responsible. Therefore, ethical leadership serves as the overarching theory for this study.

Method

Lunenburg and Irby (2008) stated, "Descriptive [quantitative] research is one of the most basic forms of research. This type of research includes the description of phenomena in our world. Descriptive [quantitative] research tends to answer informational questions" (pp. 30-31). Descriptive quantitative research looks at phenomena as basic information from the perspective of the researcher, rather than examining how phenomena functions (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008).In this study, using Likert-type items provided informational data on the extent the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices, consequences for unethical behavior, and professional and ethical decision-making were included in EPP curriculum. This allowed for analysis to answer informational questions from descriptive quantitative research. "The traditional way to report on a Likert scale is to sum the values of each selected option and create a score for each respondent. This score is then used to represent a particular trait" (Vanek, 2012). For this reason, Likert-type items were utilized because there was no value in creating a score for each respondent. Multiple choice/answer questions offered participants an opportunity to expound on the practices that they utilized in delivering the curriculum and their opportunities for training in the subject of ethics.

According to Sue and Ritter (2007), because of the schedules of TEA approved state university EPP professors, a short, concise, electronically-delivered survey (12 questions) was utilized to gather the data necessary to describe activity occurring in TEA approved EPP programs sponsored by Texas state universities. The survey instrument utilized for this study was a custom-designed set of questions that collected information about the EPP curricula and staff training. The survey was an online, self-administered questionnaire delivered using SurveyMonkey Inc., a web-based system. This study required collecting data from TEA approved state EPP professors utilizing a survey instrument with Likert type items and multiple choice/answer survey questions. The choice of a descriptive quantitative research study provided the best method for answering the informational research questions.

Selection of Sample

Each of the 36 Texas universities' websites was accessed for a listing of their faculty and their email contact information. Isolating the faculty contact information for the college of education, a list was created of potential participants. The initial sample size included 1013 selected professors listed as working in the education department. Utilizing SurveyMonkey, Inc., a Participant Cover Letter and Consent Agreement for the online survey was delivered to each potential participant. Participants were invited from all 36 Texas state universities with a TEA approved EPP. If professors chose to respond, they volunteered to participate in the study and, by accessing the provided link, received access to an electronic copy of the survey questionnaire on the SurveyMonkey, Inc. website. Participants had the option to be removed from the study as well. The demographics of this sample were not a required collection item, and professors voluntarily responded to the survey demographics portion. The invitation to participate was emailed five more times over the next eight weeks before it was closed.

Collection of Data

The survey instrument utilized for this study reflected a custom-designed set of questions that addressed the curriculum utilized and training opportunities for professors in Texas EPPs. A pilot

study was conducted to establish the reliability of the survey instrument prior to the beginning of the study. As Lund and Lund (2012) stated in their SPSS software tutorial:

> To insure that the specific research questions lead to a clear definition of study aim and objectives that set out the construct and how it will be measured, the pilot utilizes [professors from private universities rather than state universities] to provide content validity. (p. 1)

Lund and Lund (2012) further stated that Cronbach's alpha was the common measure of internal consistency (reliability). "It is commonly used when the researcher has multiple Likert-type items in a survey/questionnaire that form an interval, and he/she wishes to determine if the interval is reliable" (Lund & Lund, 2012, p. 1). Researchers Lund and Lund (2012) noted that Cronbach's alpha was used to establish reliability among the eight Likert-type items by showing what effect removing each question has on the end result. Cronbach's alpha simply provided an overall reliability coefficient for a set of variables. For this study, a panel of four experts that included current and retired professors from TEA approved EPP private universities was utilized to establish the content validity of the survey questions by ensuring the purpose was measured properly. After establishing the survey instrument's reliability and validity, the study began.

The survey results reflected a total of 213 completed surveys, one incomplete survey, 18 bounced emails, 52 opted-out, and 510 did not respond at all. Participants' privacy and confidentiality were maintained at all times. The researchers did not know participants' Internet Protocol (IP) or computers' addresses when they responded to this Internet survey. Furthermore, the researchers did not share with anyone other than the advisory committee that participants were in this study, or what information was collected about participants in particular. Participants' responses were stored in a secure server monitored by SurveyMonkey Inc. These servers are protected by high-end firewall systems, and vulnerability scans are performed regularly. Complete penetration tests are performed yearly. All servers have quick failover points and redundant hardware, and complete backups are performed nightly. SurveyMonkey Inc. uses Transport Layer Security encryption (also known as HTTPS) for all transmitted data. Surveys were also protected with passwords and HTTP referrer checking. The data was hosted by third party data centers that are SSAE-16 SOC II-certified. All data at rest are encrypted, and data on deprecated hard drives are destroyed by U.S. Department of Defense methods and delivered to a third-party data destruction service. The researchers were the only persons authorized to view and access the survey data. All data will be destroyed after three years.

Treatment of the Data

This section includes a detailed discussion of the applied descriptive quantitative research methodology utilized in this study. Exporting to IBM SPSS 22.0 from SurveyMonkey Inc. and utilizing the analysis programs within SurveyMonkey, Inc. were the best options because this could easily be read in IBM SPSS, Microsoft Excel, and many other software packages. The raw data received from the electronic survey providers was analyzed and exported into IBM SPSS for statistical analysis. The record of the number of members of the sample who did and did not return the survey was reported in a response summary so a percent for participation could be determined. Non-respondents received electronic reminders with additional time provided to allow them to respond to the survey. This occurred five times from August 27, 2014 to October 12, 2014.The results of the survey data were grouped to discuss the informational question

results, showing: (a) the extent the Code of Ethics was taught in the curriculum, (b) how instruction on the Code of Ethics was being provided, (c) the training of EPP professors on the Code of Ethics, (d) the extent to which EPP professors provided instruction over the consequences of misconduct, and (e) the extent to which EPP professors provided instruction over professional and ethical decision-making in their curriculum.

Summary of the Study

Discussion of the Findings

The data showed that the Code of Ethics was taught in the curriculum by a majority (94.37%) of EPP respondents. Of these EPP respondents, 82.1% were never provided or occasionally provided opportunities for training covering the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices. While many EPP respondents showed an interest in training opportunities, nearly 50% 99 are responsible for their own training. Consequences for unethical behavior was reviewed by 75.6% of EPP respondents either Occasionally or Frequently in the curriculum. Every EPP professor responded that information should be delivered to education candidates over the consequences for unethical behavior. The majority of the respondents (97.7%) included specific information regarding professional and ethical decision-making in their EPP curriculum. Likewise, the majority of EPP professors (99.5%) responded that specific information regarding professional and ethical decision-making should be included in the EPP curriculum. These findings provided valuable information regarding the current state of TEA approved EPP providers in Texas state universities, and the areas that garner concern that affect the future of certification candidates.

Research Question 1

To what extent do TEA approved state university EPP professors include instruction over the Texas Administrative Code Chapter 247, Rule 247.2: Code of Ethics and Standard Practices to certification candidates in the curriculum? The findings of Research Question 1 revealed the extent TEA approved state university EPP professors included instruction over the Texas Administrative Code. The data from this study showed that nearly 75% of the participants delivered instruction over the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices, either frequently or continuously. A majority (94.73%) of EPP professors stated that they were including instruction in their teacher certification curriculum, as required by TEA to maintain an approved status as an EPP provider.

Research Question 2

How do TEA approved state university EPP professors include instruction over the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices to certification candidates in their EPP curriculum? A majority of the respondents (80.75%) integrated the content into other certification courses. Some respondents (5.16%) offered instruction as a standalone course, 7.51% offered instruction as a standalone integrated into other certification courses, and 14.08% provided additional comments on how they were complying with the SBEC requirement. Some of EPP professors' additional comments stated that the instruction over the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices was included in student orientations, seminars, workshops, and student handbooks, as well as a variety of other responses including that some professors did not provide any instruction on the topic.

Research Question 3

To what extent are TEA approved state university EPP professors provided opportunities for training on Texas Administrative Code Chapter 247, Rule 247.2 by their university?

Expectations for professors participating in TEA approved EPP programs necessitate specialized training over the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices. The fact that educators hold positions of responsibility to the community demonstrates the importance of having adequate training available (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2011). Prior to 2002, teacher training programs did not have to address the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices specifically to meet accreditation standards by NCATE. As Zionts et al. (2006) stated, "According to NCATE, a key to increasing teacher quality ha[s] been alignment of accreditation standards, licensing standards, and advanced certification standards to create a coherent system of teacher preparation and development" (p. 6). Even though some professional organizations and institutions have begun to focus on the inclusion of ethics training, evidence showed that the perception of the importance of ethical behavior differs from its application.

The data showed that EPP respondents (82.1%) were never provided or only occasionally provided such opportunities. This provides evidence that there is a greater need for TEA approved EPP universities to offer more training opportunities for EPP professors regarding the Texas Administrative Code. This data should also reinforce to TEA the need to offer more training modules specifically on the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices to all educators.

Implications for Practice

This study investigated the teaching of this topic as perceived by EPP professors. Data from this study showed that a majority of the professors agree that the subject was being delivered but also that few opportunities exist to receive specialized training over the Ethics Code and Standard Practices as prescribed by the Texas Administrative Code. One implication for practice of interest to policymakers is that the Texas Education Agency, through SBEC, should provide specific guidelines for the teaching and delivery of the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices as well as every other curricular requirement in the EPP. This requires developing specific curricular and delivery methodologies other than the current ones "based on scientifically-based research to ensure teacher effectiveness" and alignment with the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS; 19 TAC §228.30 [1999]). SBEC should "spell out" exactly what scientifically-based research entails and provide blueprints for aligning the expected curriculum with TEKS. Providing specific guidelines alleviates the pressure on state universities to ensure the SBEC curriculum had been adequately covered in the EPP.

"Teacher education programs continue to face the challenge of meeting uniform and very specific national and state standards that [are] established by external accreditation bodies, not by teacher preparation programs themselves" (Sherman, 2006, p. 41). Specific guidelines are measurable and as such, state audits could easily ensure universities' compliance with SBEC requirements.

A second implication for practice of interest to state universities and individual professors is that either TEA or SBEC should develop specific training modules, other than the four aforementioned TEA-provided training modules on YouTube. This is a rather limited source for training on the Educators' Code of Ethics. Rather than focusing only on negative behaviors, SBEC could develop specific training modules that demonstrate positive ethical behaviors. "There [are] increasing expectations for teacher and leader education programs to cultivate and

document appropriate professional moral and ethical dispositions in teacher and leader candidates" (Leonard, 2007, p. 418). Winston's (2007) research stated that limited training in ethics "highlight[s] the need for educational approaches that support conscious consideration of biases and application of ethical principles" (p. 245). The role of leadership and the decisions made by the leadership are both models for stakeholders. State universities could incorporate training modules in professional development sessions with required attendance. Smith and Piper (1990) reported education institutions need to refocus on evaluating ethical training programs so they can become more effective and proficient especially "with an increase in ethical misconduct" (p. 35). Data from this study showed that individual professors are unopposed to having required training modules made available.

A third implication for practice of interest to curriculum providers is that specific curriculum modules should be created and produced that cover the Ethics Code and Standard Practices for use as an integral part of EPP curriculum. These curriculum modules could provide strategies to help professors teach values, commitments, and professional behaviors toward students, families, colleagues, and communities, to enhance a teacher's ability to affect student learning, motivation, and development as well as the educator's own professional growth (NCATE, 2002, p. 53).

A fourth implication for practice would be of interest to school districts, school campuses, and their professional development planners. By providing systematic professional development for all faculty and staff over ethical and unethical behavior, the school district or school campus could provide for better safety and welfare of the students. This training allows educators to better understand their responsibility in reporting behaviors that do not conform to the expected guidelines taught in professional development sessions (Hutchings, 2009).

Recommendations for Further Research

This study sought to answer informational questions about current practices regarding the teaching of the Code of Ethics and Standard practices by TEA approved EPP professors in Texas state universities. The literature revealed that such teaching has been evolving (Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2011). With the state performing audits of TEA approved EPP universities, a further study of how such teaching practices has evolved would be useful for universities to ensure compliance with the Texas Administrative Code. This type of study could provide a source for best practices and allow universities to improve their EPP programs. Zionts et al. (2006) reported "little [is] known of what university faculties think about professional standards" (p. 6). No framework has been developed for educators that address moral and responsible practices. To remedy this issue requires the development of specific learning objectives that include ethics, school law, and professional conduct (Hutchings, 2009). Moreover, Leonard (2007) contends that "integrating values and ethics into teaching in higher education facilitates the process of making important connections between theory, research, and practice when engaging candidates in authentic learning experiences" (p. 426). As part of this moral endeavor, "professors of education also ha[ve] an important role in ensuring that the courses they develop and teach include standards-based goals that address not only candidate knowledge and skills, but candidate dispositions as well." (p. 415)

This information gives cause for concern especially if such university faculties develop EPP curriculum. Where this study focused on professors' perceptions, further studies could focus on students' perceptions. It is the EPPs responsibility to do more than prepare their students to

pass the state certification assessment, although the state could include ethics and professional conduct on the Professional Pedagogy and Responsibilities (PPR) exam in addition to the traditional pedagogical items. Further qualitative research studies involving students who complete EPPs would add to the data about the effectiveness of the program. Hutchings' (2009) research study reported that numerous options could be produced through case studies.

Future research into the development of professional standards regarding this subject could be expanded beyond Texas universities to include other states or countries. Hutchings (2009) noted that conducting research that determines the most effective strategies being used by countries, states, organizations, universities, school districts, and school campuses to prepare teachers could impact the future of education.

Future studies investigating if and/or how school districts and schools provide any specific in-service training for employees on the Ethics Code and Standard Practices would be a valuable resource for other school districts. The study could investigate if these training sessions are part of a systematic plan developed by the district or school to guard against and/or prevent unethical behavior that might threaten student welfare and safety (Hutchings, 2009).

Conclusions

This descriptive quantitative research study provided additional information that expanded the work of other researchers concerning the teaching of the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices. The study revealed the current status of what was happening in Texas state universities with TEA approved EPP programs by answering informational questions.

The data showed that the Code of Ethics was taught in the curriculum by a majority of EPP professors (94.37%). Of these EPP professors, 82.1% were never provided or occasionally provided opportunities for training covering the Code of Ethics and Standard Practices. While many EPP professors showed an interest in training opportunities, nearly 50% are responsible for their own training. Consequences for unethical behavior were reviewed by 75.6% of EPP professors either Occasionally or Frequently in the curriculum. Every EPP professor responded that information should be delivered to education candidates on the consequences for unethical behavior. The majority of professors (97.7%) included specific information regarding professional and ethical decision-making in their EPP curriculum. Likewise, the majority of EPP professors (99.5%) responded that specific information regarding professional and ethical decision-making should be included in the EPP curriculum. These findings provided valuable information regarding the current state of TEA approved EPP providers in Texas state universities, and the areas that garner concern that affect the future of certification candidates.

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