Teaching Experience and Perceived Challenges For School Administrators Regarding Job Stress, Respect, Student Achievement, Assessment & Evaluation, and Professional Development

Erika H. Bradley
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Teaching Experience and Perceived Challenges For School Administrators Regarding Job Stress, Respect, Student Achievement, Assessment & Evaluation, and Professional Development

A dissertation

presented to

the faculty of the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis

East Tennessee State University

In partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree

Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership

by

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December 2013

Dr. Virginia Foley, Chair

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Keywords: Professional Development, Stress, Assessment and Evaluation, Student Achievement, Respect, Student Learning
ABSTRACT

Perceived Challenges For School Administrators Regarding Job Stress, Respect, Student Achievement, Assessment & Evaluation, and Professional Development

by

Erika H Bradley

The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate whether an administrators’ professional teaching background and years of administrative experience influence their perceptions of the opportunities and challenges they face guiding the improvement of teaching and learning. Specifically this research analyzed administrators’ perceptions of level of stress, respect among colleagues and school community, professional development, student achievement, and assessment and evaluation. Participants in this study consisted of Tennessee and North Carolina principals, assistant principals, and associate principals within a 60 mile radius of the East Tennessee State University campus. Data were collected through an online survey system, Survey Monkey. The survey was distributed to 274 administrators that resulted in a 44.5% response rate with 122 administrators completing the survey. Sixteen questions from the survey were measured on a 5-point Likert scale. The results concluded that administrators’ teaching backgrounds and years of administrative experience had no significant effect on their perceptions of level of stress, respect among colleagues and school community, professional development, student achievement, and assessment and evaluation.
DEDICATION

To my amazing husband Brian

For always standing by my side and offering limitless support

For your positive words, patience, and sacrifice to help me reach my dream

For seeing more in me than I ever knew existed

Truly I must be the luckiest woman in the world.

I love you more!

To my sweet daughter Elianna

From the moment you were born you have filled my life with such happiness and joy

I love your energy and excitement for life

I pray you always stay in God’s will and seek His guidance for your life

I love you with all my heart!

To my precious daughter Julia

You are an attestation that some of God’s greatest blessings come unexpectedly

I love your sweet and peaceful nature

My heart melts every time you look at me with those blue eyes and smile

I pray you find God’s calling for your life and embrace it

I love you with all my heart!
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Above all, I would like to give all the credit to my Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ. He provided me with energy when I was weary, gave me strength when I was weak, and never left my side throughout this incredible journey. I truly can do all things through Christ who gives me strength.

I would like to thank my husband Brian for being that constant motivator. During those times when I felt most defeated and discouraged, you always picked me up higher than I ever could have myself. Without your love, support, and sacrifice my dream would not be coming true. You inspire me to be the best educator, wife, and mother I can be. I love you!

I would also like to thank two tiny cheerleaders, my daughters Elianna and Julia. Elianna, as I am writing these words you are downstairs helping clean up from your second birthday party. Unknowingly, you were the driving force that kept me going. I would not quit because I was afraid as you became older you would want to quit school, too, because mommy did. Julia, you are 9 and half months old today. Your calm and easy-going attitude helped me to see the big picture. That no matter how hard it is now, life goes on and God has blessed me far too much to worry over the lesser things.

I would also like to thank my committee members: Dr. Virginia Foley, Dr. Eric Glover, Dr. Don Good, and Dr. Aimee Govett. Thank you for helping to mold me into the leader I am today and will continue to grow to be. I could not have asked for a better group of individuals to work with. Dr. Foley, thank you for being my chair. I am overwhelmed by your knowledge, understanding, and passion of teaching. Thank you for being there to listen when I needed to vent and for bringing me back down to earth. Your mentorship and friendship is something I will always treasure. Dr. Glover, thank you for opening my eyes to the importance of being a learner.
rather than a knower and modeling the importance of being a true listener. Thank you for stretching my mind to think in new ways. Dr. Good, thank you for your patience and sense of humor you brought into this process. Your quick email responses and dependability were comforting and much appreciated.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The roles and demands on school administrators have changed during the last several decades. Increased job complexity, demanding standards, and greater amounts of accountability due to the No Child Left Behind mandate in 2001 resulted in increased numbers of administrators leaving the profession nationwide (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). No Child Left Behind (NCLB) brought several challenges to the nation’s administrators including higher overall accountability, mandatory standardized student testing, highly qualified teacher requirements, pressure for schools to meet adequate yearly progress (AYP) goals, and the threat of sanctions for inadequate student performance (Boyland, 2011). Many administrators have struggled to meet the confined sanctions of NCLB while adequately leading their schools in an ever changing school environment (Colbert, 2008).

There are many differing opinions regarding the qualities of an effective administrator. Keller (1998) suggested an effective administrator possessed the following attributes:

- Recognizes teaching and learning as the main business of a school;
- Communicates the school’s mission clearly and consistently to the staff members, parents, and students;
- Fosters standards for teaching and learning that are high and attainable;
- Provides clear goals and monitors the progress of students toward meeting them;
- Spends time in classrooms and listens to teachers;
- Promotes an atmosphere of trust and sharing;
- Builds good staff and makes professional development a top concern; and
- Does not tolerate bad teachers.

Similarly DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2003) contended an effective administrator successfully defines and communicates the school’s mission, coordinates the curriculum,
supervises and supports his or her teachers, monitors student progress, and nurtures a positive learning culture.

Reynolds and O’Dwyer (2008) described effective leadership as a complex construct. Kouzes and Posner (2002) defined leadership as a relationship between those who seek to lead and those who want to follow. Successful leadership is dependent upon how these relationships are sustained.

An administrator’s primary responsibility is to promote the learning and success of all students (Marzano, 2012). Lunenburg (2010) suggested an administrator can accomplish this goal by focusing on learning, encouraging collaboration among faculty, analyzing data, providing support, and aligning curriculum, instruction, and assessment. Promoting the success of all students is a lofty task for any administrator. Administrators experience many different challenges in their pursuit of promoting the success of every child in their school. Many of these challenges include burnout, stress, improving student achievement, coordinating effective professional development opportunities, time, lack of respect, and stress management. Too few administrators receive the help and support they need and few programs exist to help. If administrators are going to be held at such a high level of accountability programs and support need to be in place by the systems and communities they serve (Beaudoin, 2011).

Statement of the Problem

Many research studies have analyzed the multitude of challenges school administrators face on a daily basis (e.g., Gates, Ringel, Santibanez, Ross, & Chung, 2003; Guthrie & Schuermann, 2010; Jo, 2008). These studies highlight a variety of problems faced by administrators, including high turnover rate (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Fink &
Brayman, 2006; Hull, 2012), stress (Boyland, 2011; Seaward, 2006; Selye, 1956), assessment and evaluation (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2012; Munro, 2008; Popham, 2013), professional development (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Fey & Carpenter, 1996; Young, 1990), student achievement (Marshall, 2012; McRel, 2003; Schmoker, 2012), and respect (Beaudoin, 2011; Hill, 1993; Reeves & Burt, 2006). While a large amount of research exists highlighting each challenge with possible indicators there is a lack of research that combines all these factors into one study to determine how they compare and relate to one another. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to determine if administrators’ professional backgrounds and years of experience in administration affect their perceptions of the opportunities and challenges they face guiding the improvement of teaching and learning. Specifically the study examined five areas where administrators experience challenges as follows: stress, respect, quality of professional development, student achievement, and assessment and teacher evaluation.

**Research Questions**

1. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the accessibility of professional development provided to them based on administrator background?

2. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the quality of professional development they provide for their staff based on administrator background?
3. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the level of engagement they provide for their staff through professional development based on administrator background?

4. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the opportunities for growth they provide to their staff through professional development based on administrator background?

5. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to adequately evaluate teachers based on administrator background?

6. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through classroom observations based on administrator background?

7. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through teacher evaluations based on administrator background?

8. Is there a significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived effectiveness of the assessment and evaluation of teachers?

9. What are the largest contributors of stress throughout the school year as reported by administrators?

10. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the various processes that need to occur in order to increase student achievement based on administrator background?
11. Is there a significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceptions regarding the various processes that need to occur in order to increase student achievement?

12. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their using observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement based on administrator background?

13. Is there a significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceptions of their understanding data and observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement?

14. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the amount of respect they receive based on administrator background?

15. Is there a significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived amount of respect they receive?

16. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions of poor communication and lack of area content knowledge contributing to being disrespected based on administrator background?

**Limitations and Delimitations**

Limitations existed with this study due to the population that was chosen. The population was delimited to Tennessee and North Carolina K-12 administrators with a minimum of 1 year administrative experience. The results of this study may not be universal to reflect the characteristics of any other educational system. All K-12 principals and assistant principals in 30
different school systems were invited to participate in the survey. The responses of those who choose to participate in the study may be different from those who choose not to participate.

The survey instrument used in this study was designed and implemented for the first time during this research. My teaching background is fine arts. There may be limitations or bias associated with the wording, phrasing, the ordering of questions, and other various aspects of the instruments. To lessen these limitations, I piloted the survey with teachers enrolled in an administrative endorsement cohort who were learning to become future administrators. This experiment resulted in revision of the survey and therefore greater validity of the study.

Definition of Terms

For clarification of this study, the following terms and definitions will be used:

*Administrator*: A term used interchangeably with principal and assistant principal, the administrator is the person within the school who serves in both a leadership and a managerial capacity by means of appointed position.

*Assessment*: A process of judging something with or without an external standard or guide (Daresh, 2006).

*Evaluation*: The process of judging the value of something (Daresh, 2006).

*Professional Development*: A continuous and intensive approach to improving teachers’ and principals’ success in raising student achievement (Leaning Forward, 2010).

*Stress*: A continuous and overwhelming sense of urgency often joined with frustration (Moody & Barrett, 2009).

*Student Achievement*: The measurable or observable performance of students in the classroom or on standardized tests.
Student Learning: The knowledge, skills, and abilities that students have attained as a result of their involvement in a particular set of educational experiences.

Significance of the Study

In order to determine if certain factors influence the perception of challenges experienced by school administrators more research is needed. Findings from this study could provide information for school superintendents. The data collected from this study could provide a closer look into the challenges administrators face on a daily basis. This study was an examination of a variety of factors regarding administrative challenges including years of administrative experience, level of stress experienced, amount of respect received, teacher assessment and evaluation, quality of professional development, and student achievement.

This study has the possibility to provide state and district leaders with information regarding administrative challenges. Analyzing the data from this study could help leaders identify areas that will increase support for administrators and consequently help decrease administrative turnover. There is not a lack of research regarding specific challenges administrators deal with on a daily basis; however, there is a lack of research that combines all the challenges together into one study looking at administrative years of experience and professional teaching background. This study uses these factors to give state and district leaders a better understanding of the challenges school administrators face.
Overview of the Study

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 contains an introduction to the study, context and history of the issue, statement of the problem, significance of the study, definition of terms, and limitations and delimitations. Chapter 2 includes a review of literature organized by topic. Chapter 3 includes the research methodology, research questions, research design, and population of the study. Chapter 4 provides results of the study, while Chapter 5 includes a summary of the findings, conclusions, and recommendations for future research and practice.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

This study was designed to identify specific challenges a variety of administrators face on a daily basis. Specifically the study analyzed professional development, stress, respect, time management, and assessment and evaluation. In order to make sense of the data a review of literature was completed. This review of literature was arranged by theme beginning with the concept of the changes of the administrative profession.

The Changing Profession

The roles, duties, and responsibilities of an administrator have changed greatly since the mid-1900s. The 1950s experienced the theory movement in educational administration that shifted the focus from ideological belief, personal experience, and prescription to the need to improve scholarly activity through the application of varied scientific principles. Heck and Hallinger (2005) further defined this shift:

Theoretically driven scientific inquiry would consist of well-delineated means of defining and address phenomena, sound research methods to support inquiry, and the creation of a comprehensive body of knowledge that could be applied to problems of practice and inform the initial preparation and professional development of school administrators. (p. 230)

Unfortunately the practice of educational administration with scientific knowledge as its underlying base was not easily achieved by administrators. Throughout the 1960s and 1970s the intellectual underpinnings, methods of question, and value of the results from the theory movement came under great criticism. Critics suggested the movement failed to consider how contextual, moral, and ethical issues influence administrators’ thinking and actions (Heck &
Hallinger, 2005). Erickson (1967) reviewed administrative studies conducted in educational administration during the 1950s and 1960s. He found little existing evidence from educational administrators on important issues such as student learning, teacher collaboration, and ethical issues because administrators from the 1950s and 1960s had a completely different focus from current administrators. Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, and Lee (1982) laid out a conceptual framework for questions and gave a more optimistic set of conclusions regarding administrative progress. Their review illuminated a need to change questions from descriptions of educational administrators’ work to the effects and degree of impact their leadership has on their schools.

Ideologically driven perspectives achieved greater tolerability and a stronger voice in the research community in the late 1990s. There is prevalent disagreement over the needed direction of educational administration. Most scholars argue central questions regarding educational administration focus on guiding the system towards the goal of achieving equality in diversity (e.g. Anderson, 2004; Foster, 1998; Marshall, 2004; Sackney & Mitchell, 2002; Smyth, 1996). Rather than pursuing equality, many scholars support using a variety of intellectual tools to understand and yet challenge the basic flaws of the system.

Early 21st century research did not focus on the study of leadership or management as a science or craft, but as a moral enterprise. Furman (2002) contended that the field needs to be continuously driven by a single question, what is leadership for? This change in concern for the direction of administrative leadership reflects two ends of leadership: those who continue to focus on increasing social justice and those who focus on the improvement of student learning (Heck & Hallinger, 2005). The nation continues to reform education through standards and accountability relying on principals to lead the way (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2003).
In the past a principal’s primary tasks consisted of making sure the buses ran on time, ordering supplies, and addressing personnel issues (Hull, 2012). The 21st century principals’ main responsibility is student learning. Because the earlier stated primary tasks have not disappeared, principals are putting in more and more hours in the day. Unlike in the past principals are required to spend more time in the classrooms rather than in the office. They are asked to focus their time around curriculum and instruction including countless hours of collecting, analyzing, and using data to improve student achievement, not to mention the amount of time principals spend with parents, teachers, students, and other community members to help increase student achievement (Hull, 2012). Current practicing administrators are more bound by the legalities of contracts and rules and have less freedom to make individual judgments regarding individual matters than administrators in the past (Fink & Brayman, 2006).

In light of these new responsibilities and changes made to the administrative profession the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) created a list of standards for principals. These standards recommended that principals have knowledge of:

- principles of effective instruction;
- curriculum design, implementation, evaluation, and refinement;
- principles related to implementing a strategic plan;
- the broader systems in which they serve;
- information sources, data collection, and data analysis strategies; and
- how to inspire others with the vision that all children can learn at high levels. (Grossman, 2011)

Although not an exhaustive list, it shows the contrast between the duties principals currently are expected to perform compared to those decades earlier. Consequently these organizational changes and reform movements give way to a high turnover rate with administrators. Rinefort and Van Fleet (1998) defined turnover as “The amount of movement of employees in and out of
an organization. The turnover rate is defined as the rate at which employees in an organization leave and are replaced by other individuals who are employed by the organization” (p. 10).

Turnover in administration has ill effects on students’ learning, community involvement, and financial expenses for the organization. Jo (2008) discovered there are a variety of direct expenses related to administrator turnover: lost productivity, skill drain, and poor morale with the school community. Fink and Brayman (2006) forecasted that disappointment with the current standardization agenda and demographic changes produced an increasingly rapid turnover of school leaders. This produced a small amount of capable, skilled, and prepared replacements. NASSP attributed this failure to bring in quality leaders to

Increased job stress, inadequate school funding, balancing school management with instructional leadership, new curriculum standards, educating an increasingly diverse student population, shouldering responsibility that once belonged at home or in the community, and then facing possible termination if their schools don’t show instant results. (p. 1)

As indicated earlier this rotation of principals from school to school not only had a negative impact on student learning but also negatively impacted leadership efforts with teachers.

Beginning in 1987 and continuing to the present the increased rotation of principals has created the revolving door syndrome (Fink & Brayman, 2006). This causes teachers to reluctantly follow change efforts and withhold total commitment to those efforts. Many factors contribute to an administrator leaving a school. Gates et al. (2003) concluded the moves administrators make are divided into three parts: moves in or out of the administrative field, moves within the administrative field, and moves within the principalship. Their study further stated movement in or out of an administrative field is influenced by how appealing school administration is compared to teaching, positions outside of education, and retirement. Their study discovered the majority of principals in the public sector tended to leave the principalship
at the age of 55. Because over 99% of principals began their careers as teachers, many of them choose to go back into the classroom. Gates et al. (2003) stated 50% of individuals entering into the administrative field had worked in teaching positions the previous year and 37% of those who left administration did so to return to teaching. Movement within the administrative field is influenced by varying incentives being offered to move into a different position; the most powerful incentive being monetary compensation. Although administrators are better compensated than teachers, their jobs are more difficult and time consuming than teaching. Gates et al. found that administrators faced more scrutiny and a wider variety of demands from people than teachers do. They also found school administrators have to interrelate with a wide range of stakeholders: school board members, local business leaders, union representatives, and public agency officials. Movement within the principalship is influenced by attractiveness of different jobs. With so many school administrators leaving the profession at an early age there is a concern that schools are not finding well-qualified people to assume administrative positions. Shields (2002) stated anytime a person of higher management status leaves the entire organizational structure is affected in spite of the professional setting.

Jo (2008) highlighted different factors that caused high turnover among school administrators including the state of the economy, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, psychological contract, supervisor relationship, career advancement opportunities, work-life policies, and many others. Jo attributed the majority of principal turnover to the state of the economy. He predicted people are more likely to change jobs when jobs are lucrative and plentiful. Consequently people are less willing to leave their jobs when the economy is tight. Jo concluded employees will change jobs when the net present value of their expected wages at a different job exceeds the costs of quitting their current job. Gates et al. (2003) suggested
replacements lack the skills required to lead schools in their administrative positions. Often many incoming principals do not feel prepared for the challenges of replacing an experienced, high profile, charismatic leader. One incoming principal recalled:

The role of the principal is dramatically different than that of the assistant principal. I’ve moved from more operational pieces as an assistant principal to the human resources, policy, and program responsibilities of the principal. There is a whole piece of learning about where to get information from and who to rely on to make a prudent decision. It doesn’t matter if you’re a new teacher or a new principal – when you walk in new, it is work, building a reputation and building trust. After 18 months, my stomach has finally stopped churning. (Fink & Brayman, 2006, p. 87)

In many school systems where principals are moved from school to school on a regular basis, like revolving doors, the teachers quickly learned how to resist and ignore their leader’s change efforts. To combat this resistance, Wenger (1998) recommended principals develop a practice that requires a shaping of a community where the members can actively engage with one another and ultimately acknowledge each other as participants. A study completed by RAND (Research and Development, 2004) concluded schools with a larger portion of minority students tended to have higher rates of principal turnover. Consequently, their analysis also revealed principals were more likely to stay in their school when they were the same race and ethnicity as the larger race and ethnic group in their school.

Inexperienced principals are more willing to comply with external mandates and relapse back to a managerial leadership style due to their own insecurities and lack of identity within their school’s community (Fink & Brayman, 2006). Due to challenges brought on by rapid change, administrators spend more time engaged in expanding their managerial responsibilities rather than educational and curriculum leadership. Hull (2012) concluded that new principals are more likely to be less effective at a school than their predecessors. This is not to say that all new principals are destined for failure. Captivating, charismatic leaders often achieve considerable
short-term change within their new school community and organization. Fink and Brayman (2006) reported that many of these leaders move on to easier, higher-paying positions, and their true legacies as change agents are often replaced by disappointment and cynicism by those the principal left behind. This leaves the school and community often feeling abandoned and used as they see their administrator moving on to a seemingly better job (Fink & Brayman, 2006; Jo, 2008).

Leonard and Leonard (2005) concluded that changing the culture of a school to reflect the wants and needs of a community can be an ambitious and difficult task. They asserted the importance of a principal growing a community of learners and it is the principal’s job to grow and nurture that community. Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) created the McREL balanced leadership framework. It serves as a leadership framework for effective leadership using the integration of research and theory into a useful format for educational leaders today. Based on their research they concluded most people serving in leadership positions lack knowledge necessary to lead any change process.

**Assessment and Evaluation**

A crucial change in the administrator’s role is the importance of assessing and evaluating teacher performance. Daresh (2006) defined assessment as a process of judging something with or without an external standard or guide. He further stated “all evaluation is a form of assessment, but not all assessment is evaluation” (p. 102). The need for documenting assessment began with the federal government’s first performance legislation in 1993 named the Government Performance Results Act (Munro, 2008). Assessment of institutions and individuals became necessary largely due to accountability - “Whether the educational organization is a
school, a college, a professional association, or an agency of government, people want to know if its faculty and staff are actually improving teaching and learning” (Munro, 2008, p. 130).

Darling-Hammond (1990) stated the act of holding one another accountable for practice and teaching is an important leadership function and a continuing marker of professionalism.

Since the implementation of teacher evaluations, they have played an important part in the accountability of a school (Danielson & McGreal, 2000). Two recent federal initiatives – the Race to the Top Program (RTT) and the ESEA Flexibility Program – have triggered an exhaustive change in the nation’s teacher evaluation programs (Popham, 2013). Worthen and Sanders (1987) explained the fundamental ideas of educational evaluations by stating evaluations are the determining factors of the quality, effectiveness, or value of a program, product, process, objective, or curriculum. Daresh (2006) further described evaluation as the process of determining the worth of something.

Beginning with the early 1990s, school administrators were encouraged to focus their teacher evaluations to include the observation of the teacher as well as that of their students. Many administrators were trained to evaluate the teacher based upon their observations of the students and the students’ learning (Glendinning, 2005). Popham (2013) stated many districts did not have the capabilities to adequately train administrators in the evaluation of their teachers. In 2009 the Race to the Top Program provided grants to participating states if they made their teacher evaluation programs more rigorous (Popham, 2013). Popham asserted the most controversial recommendation of the procedures was using student growth according to standardized tests as a significant factor in determining a teacher’s quality.

To aid state authorities in attempting to revise their current teacher evaluation procedures Race to the Top and the ESEA Flexibility Program encouraged states to change their teacher
evaluations based on six specific guidelines (US Department of Education, 2012). In order for a state to compete for the Race to the Top grants or ESEA waivers a state’s teacher evaluation system needed to:

- be used for continual improvement of instruction;
- differentiate a teacher’s performance with a minimum of three levels;
- use multiple evident sources to determine performance levels including student growth as a significant factor;
- evaluate teachers as well as principals often;
- provide clear, timely, and practical feedback for teacher professional development; and
- be used to inform personnel decisions. (Popham, 2013)

The move emphasizing administrators’ ability to evaluate teachers accurately has increased greatly. Much of this change has to do with the work of Marzano and Danielson. Marzano and colleagues focused on 41 key strategies for administrators, whereas Danielson suggested a framework for good teaching that encompasses 76 criteria. The rubrics and guides of Marzano’s and Danielson’s work mark important steps in determining what makes teachers effective or ineffective in the classroom (Danielson, 2000; Marzano, 2012).

Marshall (2012) asserted teachers should be evaluated using three factors, classroom observations, student learning gains, and feedback from students. She concluded, “Day-by-day teaching practices are what drive student learning. If administrators don’t see those practices, their evaluations are inaccurate, dishonest in terms of quality assurance, and not helpful for improving mediocre and ineffective teaching practices” (p. 50). Robins and Alvy (2004) discovered little emphasis was being placed on quality, meaningful, and engaging student assessments during teacher evaluations. They concluded most administrators were trained to observe the teacher rather than the students. While effective evaluators did not openly overlook students and their work, the students and their work were not highlighted in the evaluation.
Robins and Alvy reported that teacher evaluations are currently focused around both the teacher delivery system and the level of student engagement in meaningful work.

Administrators use two different forms of teacher evaluations, formative and summative. Popham (2013) suggested both formative and summative teacher evaluations as important but in order to be useful and valid they must be completed separately. Popham concluded formative teacher evaluations should be focused on improvement, while summative teacher evaluations should be focused on removal or rewards. The purpose and methods of each is different. Robins and Alvry (2004) defined formative evaluations as being concerned with:

- enhancing thinking about teaching as well as learning;
- personal reflection, self-analysis, and self-improvement;
- reflection on individual student or group student work;
- contextual changes based on adult development needs;
- descriptive inquiry about what is taking place within the classrooms; and
- continuous personal improvement.

Opposite of formative evaluation, summative evaluation is concerned with:

- quality assurance of organizational expectations being met;
- judgment of performance;
- public recognition;
- mastery of specific standardized objectives; and
- legal guidelines.

The purpose of teacher assessment and evaluation is to improve teachers’ effectiveness and in turn increase student learning. Mielke and Frontier (2012) asserted comprehensive teaching frameworks can be of assistance to administrators by empowering teachers and not judging them. Guaglianone, Payne, Kinsey, and Chiero (2009) agreed teacher quality was a critical factor in impacting student learning in schools.

Munro (2008) proposed a flaw within the assessment and evaluation system. He concluded 10 reasons assessment and evaluation are not effective in improving teacher effectiveness nor increasing student learning.
1. Principals evaluate only a tiny amount of teaching.
2. Microevaluations of individual lessons don’t carry much weight.
3. The lessons that principals evaluate are often atypical.
4. Isolated lessons give an incomplete picture of instruction.
5. Evaluation almost never focuses on student learning.
6. High-stakes evaluation tends to shut down adult learning.
7. Supervision and evaluation reinforce teacher isolation.
8. Evaluation instruments often get in the way.
9. Evaluations often fail to give teachers “judgmental” feedback.
10. Most principals are too busy to do a good job on supervision and evaluation.

Danielson (2011) also forecasted several deficiencies within the traditional evaluation system. They are, outmoded criteria in the form of checklists, simplistic comments such as ‘needs improvement’, ‘satisfactory’, and ‘outstanding’, using the same procedures for experienced and inexperienced teachers, lack of consistency among evaluators, and the evaluation system feels penalizing. Marzano (2012) suggested an evaluation system that encourages teacher learning will greatly differ from one whose goal is to measure the competence of the teacher. He asserted measuring teachers and developing teachers were completely different purposes with completely different implications. Marzano (2012) questioned over 3,000 educators regarding their opinions about the basic purposes of teacher evaluations. The majority of participants believed evaluations should be used for measurement and development but more emphasis and importance should be given to the development of the teacher’s pedagogy. He concluded,

Both measurement and development are important aspects of teacher evaluation. When measurement is the primary purpose, a small set of elements is sufficient to determine a teacher’s skill in the classroom. However, if the emphasis is on teacher development, the model needs to be both comprehensive and specific and focus on the teacher’s growth in various instructional strategies. These distinctions are crucial to the effective design and implementation of current and future teacher evaluation systems. (p. 19)

Many models and comprehensive frameworks exist to help administrators identify effective practice. Mielke and Frontier (2012) identified Marzano’s 2007 Art and Science of Teaching model and Danielson’s 2007 Framework for Teaching in their study. Mielke and
Frontier concluded more than comprehensive frameworks are needed in order to accurately rate teacher effectiveness. Teachers need to be involved and empowered in the formative evaluation process that will serve as the basis for their summative evaluation. Mielke and Frontier concluded the most effective and powerful evaluations systems are those that empower and encourage teachers to accurately evaluate their practice and self-diagnose areas for future growth. Guthrie and Schuermann (2010) stated while teacher evaluations were multi-purposeful in nature they are currently used for three primary functions: provide accountability, serve as a guide in decision-making, and inform staff development choices. Culbertson (2012) asserted teacher evaluation systems should be linked to professional development in order to provide critical feedback teachers need in order to accurately analyze their work and receive support. Guthrie and Schuermann emphasized administrators and school leadership as the determining factor as to whether faculty evaluation systems will serve as an automatic, summative function or whether they will provide meaningful, ongoing assessment of the teaching and learning process occurring within the classrooms. Guthrie and Schuermann concluded faculty evaluations can serve the following purposes:

- encourage collaboration and teacher engagement on issues critical to the improvement of students and their learning;
- support positive organizational change;
- promote greater program unity;
- build strong professional relationships that strengthen team leadership; and
- strengthen individual and group effectiveness in meeting valued organizational goals.

An overarching obstacle for many practicing administrators is the lack of content area training and subject area he or she is evaluating (Marshall, 2012). Danielson and McGreal (2000) asserted effective teacher evaluation systems need to contain three essential elements. The third element is trained evaluators who can make consistent judgments concerning teacher performance based on the evidence of the teaching procedures. They concluded evaluators must
be adequately trained to ensure their judgments are accurate, consistent, and unbiased. From the perspective of those being evaluated it should not matter who the evaluator is. The conclusions should be the same regardless of the identity of the evaluator. Consistency of judgment from the trained evaluators is essential when guaranteeing the reliability of the system as a whole.

Tomlinson (2012) recommended administrators not only be highly trained in order to provide reliable feedback for their teachers but also model the teaching in which they want to see from their teachers. Danielson (2011) stated the importance of an evaluator being able to accurately assess, provide meaningful feedback, and involve teachers in productive discussions about their teaching should not be overlooked. She asserted many administrator preparation programs do not teach skills necessary for successful teacher evaluations.

A second obstacle for administrators with regards to teacher evaluations is time. Danielson (2011) asserted many administrators find it difficult to conduct meaningful observations that engage in professional conversations about teaching practice because of time constraints. Culbertson (2012) proposed conducting team evaluations or inviting highly experienced evaluators from outside the school system to assist in evaluation scoring. This will give administrators more time for additional observations or time to perform other necessary duties. Barlow (2012) disagreed with having guest evaluators from outside the school system evaluate teachers. The feedback received from teachers suggested teachers appreciated feedback from a peer who understood the various challenges of their job.

Whitaker (2003) stated classroom observations were a critical factor between great principals and less effective principals.

Less effective principals have dozens of reasons for not having time to visit classrooms daily, or at least weekly. Great principals have an equal number of demands placed on their time. They just do not let these reasons keep them from doing what matters most:
improving teacher effectiveness in their school. (p. 37)

The Wallace Foundation (2012) concluded ineffective principals claimed to frequently observe their teachers but effective principals made more unscheduled observations and provided immediate feedback to their teachers. Danielson (2011) added ineffective principals do all the work in evaluations while the teacher is completely passive in the process. Danielson suggested teachers did not find the evaluation process valuable or supportive of their professional growth. The process violated everything teachers knew about learning – that learning is done by the learner through a process of active intellectual engagement. Danielson suggested using an evaluation process that is rigorous, valid, reliable, and engages teachers in activities that promote teacher learning. Danielson asserted teacher-administrator conversations offer a rich opportunity for professional dialogue and growth when they are conducted around a common understanding of good teaching as well as evidence of that teaching. She concluded there is much evidence from both informal and formal observation that indicates a thoughtful approach to teacher evaluation produces benefits far beyond the important goal of quality assurance. She stated such an approach provides an opportunity for teacher growth and development by providing opportunities for professional dialogue containing standards of practice.

Policymakers in states such as Florida and Texas have suggested merit-pay programs that link teachers’ salaries directly to their impact on student achievement. Traditionally teachers have been compensated according to salary schedules based upon teacher experience and education. However this system makes it difficult to keep talented teachers and offers few incentives for them to work to elevate student learning. Implementing a merit-pay system offers many challenges for administrators. Many policymakers agree it is difficult to judge a teacher’s performance based upon a student’s performance. Many districts are turning to principals and
evaluations of teachers to determine teacher salaries. Munro (2008) argued that student learning would improve more when principal assessments are used to determine teachers’ salaries rather than teacher education and experience.

The Consortium on Chicago School Research at the University of Chicago aimed to accurately measure teacher classroom performance. Principals in the study used the Framework for Teachers (Danielson 2011) to guide their classroom observations, preobservation, and postobservation conferences. The study provided a look into the perceptions of teachers and administrators with regards to effective teacher evaluations. The study concluded a consistent definition of good teaching was appreciated by teachers, opportunities for teachers to engage in meaningful conversations about their teaching to their administrators was helpful, and administrators and teachers appreciated an opportunity to focus on what mattered: student learning (Danielson, 2011). In addition to student learning administrators are responsible for teacher learning. Darling-Hammond (2013) stated,

…what we really need is the conception of teacher evaluation as part of a teaching and learning system that supports continuous improvement for individual teachers and the profession. Such a system should enhance teacher learning and skill, while also ensuring that teachers can effectively support student learning throughout their careers. Support for teacher learning and evaluation must be part of an integrated whole that enables effectiveness during every stage of a teacher’s career. (p. 9)

Guaglione et al. (2009) surveyed administrators across 19 different school systems about teacher evaluations. They found three areas of benefit for administrators with regards to the implementation of a teaching performance assessment, increased communication and collaboration, large influence on teachers’ and students’ learning, and use of results for program improvement. Their findings suggested timely and accurate teacher feedback as a critical factor in the success or failure of teacher evaluations. Bambrick-Santoyo (2012) asserted evaluations were the missing link in teacher development. He stated the primary factor of teacher
development was not the measurement of teachers’ performance but the guidance they receive on how to improve. Bambrick-Santoyo suggested in order for administrators to provide regular feedback to their teachers they must provide feedback, corrections, and improvement more than once every 6 months with the teacher being the focal point of the feedback.

Weisberg, Sexton, Mulhern, and Keeling (2009) conducted research regarding problems with current evaluation systems. Their study identified a lack of feedback as the primary problem with teacher supervision and current evaluation systems. Their study discovered nearly three out of four teachers went through the evaluation but received little to no feedback concerning how to improve their teaching. Mielke and Frontier (2012) further stated when adult learners are empowered to analyze and understand their practice and have a vision as to where and how they can improve, they are intrinsically motivated to embark on a journey that leads to expertise.

Tomlinson (2012) conducted a survey of 50 teachers regarding teacher evaluations. Teachers were given the opportunity to express their feelings and desires regarding the perfect evaluation. She found seven actions administrators can do for helpful feedback. They are:

- communicate clearly and respectfully the growth and areas of weaknesses;
- point out teacher strengths and help them build upon them;
- point out opportunities for teachers to further develop their work;
- provide descriptive and specific feedback to help teachers focus their efforts;
- personalize feedback to teachers’ needs and give feedback in a timely fashion while there is still time to act on the corrections;
- present formative feedback and support for growth before summative evaluation; and
- acknowledge teacher progress when it’s deserved.

When providing timely and honest feedback administrators need to be equipped with a variety of tools. Ullman (2012) asserted technology serves as an important aid for administrators when conducting teacher evaluations. Thanks to Race to the Top funds every administrator in the state of Florida received an iPad. These iPads came equipped with various evaluation frameworks including Danielson’s Framework for Teaching. Administrators used their iPads for
formal, informal, and walkthrough evaluations. Once an evaluation is complete, teachers received an immediate email with their scores and administrator’s thoughts uploaded. The Virginia City Beach Public Schools are also incorporating technology into their evaluation system. Their tool of choice is TalentEd Perform, which is a web-based tool that allowed teachers and administrators to collaborate and reflect on goal setting. The program allowed administrators to schedule or assign tasks and analyze school-wide data and reports and encouraged teachers to become more active in their evaluation process. After using TalentEd for one academic year a principal at the Derrick Thomas Academy in Missouri suggested he not only had more time to do more observations and give specific feedback to teachers he is also able to hold himself accountable for their learning.

Technology is not the only tool administrators can use to ensure effective teacher evaluations. Hoerr (2013) stated the importance of administrators making the desired outcome of the evaluation clear to the learner to alleviate any questions about what constitutes exemplary performance. “Principals need to be explicit about what they value” (p. 88). He proclaimed physical education teachers were the best teachers in high schools because they do a better of showing their students what they expected and the preferred way of performing a task. Because administrators do not have enough time to demonstrate lessons for every teacher in their buildings, Hoerr suggested having the faculty at a faculty meeting watch a video of a teacher teaching. As the video progressed he recommended teachers and administrators writing down comments about the positives as well as the areas needed for improvement. After the video has ended Hoerr suggested administrators gather the teachers together for a comparison and dialogue. If significant discrepancies exist between the principal’s and teachers’ thinking on these issues, assemble a committee to find common ground so that everyone can work to come
together. Tomlinson (2012) concluded relationships were the primary factor between a good evaluator and a bad evaluator. She suggested a relationship built on the same desire for teacher growth in meaningful work, clear learning goals, formative assessment and support for taking additional steps, recognition of strengths, and continuous feedback adjusted to the teacher’s level of development will produce greater evaluations and teacher growth. Just as for students the most effective evaluation comes when someone sits beside us and helps us grow.

Munro (2008) offered an alternative theory to conventional teacher assessments and evaluations. The factor that drives high student learning is teacher teams working collaboratively toward common curriculum expectations and using assessments to continuously improve teaching and attend to students who are not successful. A distinct link between student performance and administrators’ classroom observations has been identified by Cotton (2003). She suggested principals of high-achieving schools did not visit classrooms solely for social reasons nor did they walk into the classrooms only at evaluation time. Rather, they studied the teachers’ instructional approaches, take their turn at giving instruction, and follow up with feedback with teachers.

Student Achievement

Many factors contribute to student achievement. Armstrong (2006) asserted student-teacher interactions played a critical factor in student achievement. They further stated high-quality interactions may come more easily and readily among students who are already academically motivated and successful. Marshall (2012) noted day-by-day teaching practices as the driving factor in student achievement. Schmoker (2012) suggested three factors play a role in
student achievement, a coherent curriculum, intensive literacy practices, and well-structured lessons.

McREL (2003) discovered 21 specific leadership responsibilities that significantly correlated with student achievement. The skills and traits were:

- Fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation;
- Establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines;
- Protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching time and focus;
- Provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs;
- Is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices;
- Establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention;
- Is knowledgeable about current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices;
- Has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students;
- Recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments;
- Establishes strong lines of communication with teachers and among students;
- Is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders;
- Involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies;
- Recognizes and celebrates school accomplishments and acknowledges failures;
- Demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff;
- Is willing to and actively challenges the status quo;
- Inspires and leads new and challenging innovations;
- Communicates and operates from strong ideals and beliefs about schooling;
- Monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning;
- Adapts leadership behaviors to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent;
- Is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems; and
- Ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a regular aspect of the school culture.

Consequently McREL (2003) also noted just as administrators can have a positive impact on student achievement, they can also have a negative impact on it as well. They concluded two primary variables as determining the positive or negative impact an administrator can have on student achievement. First is the focus of change – whether or not leaders appropriately identify
and focus on the improvement of the school and classroom practices. The second variable is the leaders understanding the magnitude of the change process they are leading and their ability to adjust their leadership practices accordingly.

Conley (2005) and Duke (2004) concluded curriculum should aim to ensure all students learn approximately the same content, engage in the same amounts of reading and writing, and enjoy the benefits of occasional assessments. Schmoker (2012) stated literacy as an integral and inseparable part of a good curriculum. Willingham (2009) asserted language was the primary medium through which people learn and obtain the ability to think and reason. “Curricula and literacy are linked inextricably; together, they are the keys to academic and career success and to informed, effective citizenship” (p. 20).

A well designed and implemented lesson plan also has great impact on student achievement. Marzano (2007) stated the structure of a good lesson is largely well-known but also very rare. Marzano contended a good lesson starts with a clear learning objective that is derived from the curriculum and often goes along with an effort to kindle student curiosity or existing knowledge about what is to be learned. William (2007) discovered such methods of designing an effective lesson accelerate the speed of learning by as much as 400%.

Gruenert (2005) conducted a study involving 81 schools in Indiana and a culture survey to investigate the relationship of a school’s culture with student achievement. The survey covered six factors regarding student achievement and school leadership, collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration, professional development, unity of purpose, collegial support, and learning partnership. The study showed:

- a principal’s human relation skills, levels of trust and the way decisions are made, the failure to empower subordinates, and deal with conflict are often the reasons why principals are either successful or not successful as educational leaders in raising student achievement. The strong relationship between the way principals interact with teachers
and the overall climate and culture of the school has tremendous potential for taking a proactive approach in the leadership of school systems. There is a direct relationship between student achievement and a school’s culture and climate. (p. 7)

Baker and Cooper (2005) also concluded principals are key players in the school reform effort and are more able than ever to shape the personnel and culture within their schools.

Beginning with the 1990s a great deal of attention has been given to educational leadership and its direct impact on student outcomes and learning (Witziers, Bosker, & Kruger, 2003). Student learning brings many challenges for today’s administrators. School administrators are increasingly held accountable for educational quality in the belief that students’ success or failure is determined by the way the school is run (Fullan & Watson, 2000; Leithwood & Menzies, 2000). Witziers et al. (2003) suggested that school leadership has a positive and significant effect on student learning. Much research highlighted the importance of student learning as related to accountability and curriculum rigor, but little research underscored the relationship between student learning and the human element.

Williams and Nierengarten (2011) discovered administrators identified four areas of need for assistance. Those areas are testing and adequate yearly progress, learning for all students, staff and professional development, and data analysis. Reeves and Burt (2006) suggested a school principal should shape the focus of his or her school by raising student learning through shared leadership, data-based decision-making, and unwavering attention to the employment of best practice in curriculum, instruction, and assessment. They further stated principals in the information age need to be information driven, committed to shared leadership, and persistent about continuous school improvement.

Armstrong (2006) challenged the contemporary focus on student achievement. He stated “If schools continue to focus the [student achievement] conversation on rigor and accountability
and ignore more human elements of education, many student may miss out on opportunities to
discover the richness of individual exploration that schools can foster” (p. 23). Armstrong
advocates for a more scientific view of teaching and learning that focuses on the needs and individual attributes of the whole child rather than the narrow definitions presented by contemporary education policy. He suggested a return to the thinking provided by the leaders in the development of learning science including Montessori, Piaget, Freud, and Gardner.

Lunenburg and Irby (2006) highlighted three critical tasks principals must perform in order to be effective leaders and increase student achievement. Those tasks are shifting the focus of instruction from teaching to learning, forming collaborative groups and processes for faculty to work together to improve instruction, and guaranteeing that professional development is ongoing and focused toward the goals of the school. Lunenburg (2010) stated asking the right questions as the critical factor in shifting the focus from teaching to learning. Those questions included:

- What do we want our students to know and be able to do?;
- Are the students learning?;
- How will you know if the students are learning?;
- How will we respond when students to not learn?;
- What criteria will we use to evaluate student progress?;
- How can we more effectively use the time and resources available to help students learn?; and
- Have we established systematic collaboration as the norm in our school?

After all the above listed questions are answered administrators need to raise the collective ideas of teachers regarding student learning (DuFour, DuFour, Eaker, & Karhanek, 2010). Lunenburg (2010) stated that when an administrator has all the teachers with common beliefs and passions regarding student learning then he or she must ensure teacher expectations are aligned with the school’s instructional goals. Elmore (2005) and Senge (2006) added principals need to eliminate teacher isolation so that discussions regarding student learning and achievement become a
universal mission within the school. The final step for administrators according to Lunenburg (2010) to increase student learning is to provide teachers with training, tools, and support they need in order to maximize student performance levels. Lunenburg asserted teachers need access to curriculum guides, textbooks, or any other specific training materials connected to the school curriculum.

Blasé and Blasé (2001) noted the greatest contributing factor in student learning is the teacher. An administrator can have the greatest impact on student learning through the support and development of his or her teachers. Blasé and Blasé recommended distributing professional literature, encouraging teachers to attend workshops and conferences, and encouraging reflective discussions and collaboration to help raise student learning.

Professional learning opportunities and professional learning communities are also suggested to increase student learning (Chenoweth & Everhart, 2002; Friend & Cook, 2000; Glasgow & Hicks, 2003; Maehr & Midgley, 1996; Stoll & Fink, 1996). Hord (1997) and Rosenholtz (1989) proposed professional learning communities that exemplify typical attributes of teacher shared work and are incompatible with traditional ideas of teacher individualism are the most successful to increase student achievement. Collins (2000) stated that a school that emerges as a community of learners is “filled with daily examples of people learning from each other, sharing what they are learning, and being excited about and participating in what others are learning” (p. 25). Professional development offers teachers and administrators opportunities to collectively and individually grow in their respective areas.
Professional Development

Professional development is defined as the “process that improves the job-related knowledge, skills, and attitudes of educators” (PCBEE, 2005, para. 1). The goals of professional development are to improve teaching and student learning (Schumack & Forde, 2011). Finn, Swezey, and Warren (2010) stated professional development is driven by standards set by the government or outside agencies rather than internal entities. Many view professional development as learning about a trend in practice that will eventually die as soon as the new trend comes to light. Still others view professional development as an opportunity to learn innovative ideas and concepts that will be beneficial to their practice and critical in helping to keep teachers up to date on current trends in curriculum.

Currently administrators have two challenges with regards to professional development. Not only do administrators have to organize and cultivate professional development that is conducive to teacher growth but also participate in a variety of professional development opportunities to continue his or her growth. Vitcov and Bloom (2010) stated “Teachers grow their students and should focus their professional development on that goal; principals grow their teachers and should spend their own professional development time building their capacities to support teachers…” (p. 19).

Professional development addressing the needs of administrators has become a topic of interest in education. The number of principals is only 2.5% of the number of teachers within public schools (Gates et al., 2003). Therefore, a push for administrative professional development opportunities has been menial. Beginning in 1978 Scott suggested that professional development for administrators was often neglected or conducted in a poor manner. In 1986 Sagaria reported professional development needs of and benefits to administrators needed further
exploration. It was not until Young’s anthology that this issue was given the proper attention (Fey & Carpenter, 1996).

An administrator’s impact on student achievement is second to that of the classroom teacher. Most of an administrator’s influence on student achievement depends on his or her ability to build upon their teacher’s knowledge, skills, and development. This is largely accomplished through high quality, focused professional development opportunities (Leithwood, Patton, & Jantzi, 2010). Gil and Woodruff (2011) stated an effective professional development model is one that is informed and driven by student-needs data in order to drive targeted, content-specific goals. Leadership development programs are critical in helping administrators excel in their changing and complex roles.

Peck (2003) suggested effective principal development relies on current research in such areas as instruction and organizational development. These effective programs use methods such as internships, mentoring, and cohort peer groups to help administrators learn how and when to use this knowledge. Unfortunately this research also has its limitations. Most research on the effectiveness of principal development programs consists of self-reported feedback from participants regarding how well prepared they feel for their work because of their training. There is very little research on how effective administrators actually are within their subsequent work. California created new programs funded by the Department of Education for the ongoing development of professional development for administrators.

Funded by the California Department of Education through legislative action, CSLA (California School Leadership Academy) founded and initiated the Principal Training program. The Principal Training Program was authorized in 2001 under Assembly Bill 75. The mission of CSLA is to foster and grow effective leadership skills and traits in today’s administrators. Davis,
Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, and Meyerson (2005) criticized California’s Principal Training Program for its succinctness, one-size-fits-all nature, and the fact that it generally does not include direct mentoring or coaching of principals.

Perhaps more importantly nurturing and sustaining high levels of teacher performance hinges upon high quality professional development that is designed to improve teacher practice and ultimately student learning (Casey, Starrett, and Dunlap, 2013). Research shows a direct link between a teacher’s skill in the classroom and his or her knowledge of subject content to increasing student achievement (Birman, Desimone, Porter, & Garet, 2000; Desimone, 2011; Holloway, 2003; Landt, 2002; Mizell, 2003, Sanborn, 2002; Schmoker, 2002; Yoon, Duncan, Lee, Scarloss, & Shapley, 2007). Hargreaves (2007) asserted student learning and development do not occur without the learning and development of the teacher. Furthermore, Wolff, McClelland, and Stewart (2010) contended effective teachers directly affect student achievement and teachers are more effective when they receive quality professional development. Because positive student outcomes depend on their teacher’s ability to provide quality instruction, administrators must be able to design professional development for teacher that is focused, meaningful, and engaging (Casey et al., 2013). Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995) asserted teachers’ development must focus on expanding their understanding of the process of teaching and learning and of the students as they teach.

Student achievement and teacher development are critical factors in the overall success of a student. Casey et al. (2013) argued preparation programs to assist administrators in designing professional development opportunities are lacking in information. Casey et al. conducted a study incorporating their own preparation program for graduates within their first 3 years of leadership. Casey et al. discovered most of the administrators reported they have used their
acquired knowledge and understanding of professional development skills from the preparatory program not only as a tool for designing and implementing professional development opportunities for their staff but also to judge other presenters in staff development sessions they have attended. Casey et al. concluded a principal’s ability to provide high quality, continuous professional development opportunities for staff is one of the most important functions of a school leader. Regardless of the level of importance many administrators simply do not have the time or the funds to incorporate professional development activities.

Reed (2010) spent many years interviewing and surveying various administrators across the nation. Many administrators confided in him stating the largest reasons for not incorporating professional development into their schedule were time and money. Reed recommended school leaders short on time and money should consider collegial coaching as a tool for effective professional development. He explained collegial coaching allows educators to experience immediate feedback to improve their practice. Collegial coaching models effective professional development behavior but require trust from all participants. Reed asserted if collegial trust is weak or does not exist within a school engaging in professional growth activities and development may provide a foundation for it to develop or strengthen with time. He concluded:

Working together, colleagues who make up a leadership team can use their own experiences and expertise to help one another explore ways to improve performance and effectiveness. Too frequently, seminars, workshops, courses, and other formal learning opportunities are the only strategies that come to mind when someone mentions professional development. A school can provide the very best laboratory for the exercise, practice, and development of school leadership if leaders seize the opportunities for trying new behaviors, reflecting on their own performance, seeking and giving collegial feedback, adjusting performance on the basis of that reflection and feedback, and adapting emerging strengths to meet new and different challenges as they arise. Engaging in a process that builds the capacity of school leaders to effectively address the real issues of the school community gives deeper meaning to efforts to align professional development with the school’s desired learning outcomes, the most effective instructional strategies, and the development of learners. (Reed, 2010, p. 64)
Providing professional development for staff incorporates leadership functions and offers an opportunity for personal reflection on an administrator’s own professional practice. Whitaker (2003) contended developing teacher effectiveness and ability is one of the most important functions of an administrator. The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act placed a greater emphasis on holding schools accountable for the learning of all children. NCLB (2002) provided guidelines for administrators when organizing high-quality professional development for their teachers. Professional development should include activities that:

- improve teacher knowledge of the subjects they teach;
- are an integral part of a broad school-wide or district-wide improvement plan;
- increase teachers’ ability to prepare students to meet challenging State standards and student academic achievement standards;
- improve teachers’ classroom management skills;
- are likely to have a positive and lasting impact on teachers’ classroom instruction and are not one-day short-term conferences;
- support the recruiting, hiring, and training of highly qualified teachers, including those who have become highly qualified through State and local alternative routes to certification;
- advance teachers’ understanding of effective instructional strategies that derived from science-based research and advance teachers’ understanding of effective instructional strategies;
- are aligned with state academic content standards, student academic achievement standards, and state assessments;
- are developed with participation of teachers, administrators, and parents within the school district;
- are designed to increase the success of teachers providing instruction or support to limited English proficient students;
- provide training to help teachers incorporate technology in the classroom to improve instruction and learning;
- are regularly evaluated for their impact on teaching and learning;
- provide training in methods of teaching children with special needs;
- include instruction in the use of data and assessments to inform classroom practices; and
- provide training in ways of working more effectively with parents. (Title IX, Part A, Section 9101A)

Wolff et al. (2010) discovered the most frequently mentioned characteristic by teachers of effective professional development is the enhancement of their content and pedagogic
knowledge. Finn et al. (2010) contended eight factors in maintaining effective professional
development for teachers include clear goals that are attainable and easily defined, adequate
funding, promotion of engagement and active learning, a concise focus that examines a few
specific topics, encouragement of collegiality through networking opportunities, recognition and
development of participants’ current interests, and use of the services of an outside facilitator.

Harvey (2013) suggested four options for administrators when providing professional
development to teachers. First, is provide professional development that is one on one with
teachers. He asserted any conversation with a teacher can turn into an opportunity to provide
professional development. Second, an administrator can provide professional development to
teachers by working directly with them and their students when a new resource is introduced into
the classroom. Third, and the most traditional method is workshops before or after school. Last,
an administrator can provide professional development to his or her teachers through the use of
Professional Learning Communities (PLCs).

Hardman (2012) also suggested supporting effective professional development and
teacher content knowledge through professional learning communities. The primary role of any
PLC is to provide a collaborative environment where teachers can reflect on their teaching, look
at evidence about the relationship between their teaching and student outcomes, and make
changes that improve teaching and learning for the students (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006).

PLCs are usually school-based and tend to develop informally around joint work or a
particular project of interest. The primary focus and purpose of any PLC is to make a lasting
positive impact on student learning (Hardman, 2012). Vitcov and Bloom (2010) asserted there is
a growing interest in raising the level of professional practice in educators by building local,
practical, honest, and collegial professional learning communities. Many schools are using PLCs
as a way for teachers to talk about practice, data, and what is happening within their classrooms (Harvey, 2013). McLaughlin (2012) contended the most effective PLCs are those that include both special and general educators, school administrators, and teacher educators. Taking the approach of PLCs with professional development is one method an administrator can use because it is student centered and can be individualized according to the teachers’ instructional needs (Hardman, 2012).

A study was conducted by Pindiprolu, Peterson, and Berglof (2007) to investigate the professional development needs of teachers and administrators. A two-page questionnaire was sent to 450 educators. The questionnaire collected information regarding demographics, professional development needs, their colleagues’ professional development needs, preferred method for professional development, and the most highly needed areas of professional development for staff in their district. The three most frequently cited areas of need identified by respondents were intervention for behavior problems, functional behavioral assessments, and inclusion strategies. Based on the questionnaire teachers indicated the preferred methods of professional development were all-day workshop, cooperative work group at work site, and series of brief workshops.

Fey and Carpenter (1996) discovered most teachers and administrators preferred conferences, workshops, reading, and discussions for professional development growth. While most teachers and administrators preferred at work site workshops for professional development opportunities many teachers and administrators alike do not have the time to complete the professional development activity. Full schedules and tight budgets are pushing administrators toward online professional development opportunities to save money on travel costs and gain immediate access to helpful resources (Ash, 2011).
Teachers and administrators in Nevada began using an online professional development system to combat the lack of time and resources necessary to conduct effective professional development. The Pathway Project is a state-wide, collaborative, online professional development network that was created to help administrators and teachers offer 21st century learning experiences to their students. The goals of the project are to change classroom experiences for students through the use of technology and create professional development resources administrators and teachers will be able to use after the project ends. The Pathway Project is not only building a community of stakeholders who understand the value of technology as a learning tool but also helping administrators and teachers share ideas across school boundaries (Vidoni, Lady, Asay, & Ewing-Taylor, 2010).

Despite the fact nearly every school teacher participates in some form of professional learning activity each year, most report the activities as having no meaning to them or their practice (Hill, 2009; Richardson, 2003). Richardson (2003) summed up the need for effective professional development:

> Most of the staff development that is conducted with K-12 teachers derives from the short-term transmission model; pays no attention to what is already going on in a particular classroom, school, or school district; offers little opportunity for participants to become involved in the conversation; and provides no follow-up. (p. 401)

**Respect**

Respect is important because it contributes to an environment of safety, openness, and reflection. An effective principal treats other people with respect. This context is important for the brain to effectively process and develop academic information as opposed to being preoccupied with emotional concerns (Beaudoin, 2011). Whitaker (2003) stated “effective principals treat people with respect” (p. 21). Creating a school culture of respect begins in the
heart of a staff’s well-being and professional relationships with each other and administration (Beaudoin, 2011). Cotton (2003) defined effective principals as those who provided their school with both emotional and practical support. Principals who catered to both emotional and practical support are those who are sensitive to teachers’ needs, encourage expression of feelings, opinions, pride, loyalty through team management, sensitivity, humor, and personal example.

Cotton (2003) suggested respected principals are those who:

- Continually pursue high levels of student learning;
- Establish a norm of continuous improvement;
- Facilitate discussion of instructional issues;
- Observe classrooms frequently and provide feedback to teachers;
- Respect teacher autonomy;
- Protect instructional time;
- Support teachers’ risk taking;
- Provide staff development opportunities and activities;
- Monitor student progress and report the findings;
- Use student achievement data to improve programs;
- Recognize student and teacher achievement; and
- Role model.

Communication is vital in an administrator’s ability to provide emotional and practical support. Parents continually form opinions and develop perceptions about administrative actions even if they are not involved directly with a situation. These opinions and perceptions become the basis for judgment about administration and can have an influence on future behaviors towards administration by community members (Peaca, 2003). Marx (2006) contended communication is the only way to help people discover a common purpose, determine a common good, establish a sense of belonging and community, and develop a commitment to pursuing a common future.

Effective communication requires a great deal of trust from everyone involved. Jossey-Bass (2007) contended there are five facets of trust: benevolence, honesty, openness, reliability, and competence. Blasé (1989) discovered teachers were more open and less fearful of principals
who were genuinely concerned and interested in their career and personal lives. Principals can demonstrate a level of concern and interest through participating in, learning, and understanding the school’s culture. Peca (2003) suggested administrators earn respect from the community by learning the culture of the schools and striving to understand teachers as well as their actions. She stressed “Administrators must become part of the school culture and then seek to be a leader of the culture” (p. 4). Learning the school culture is just a step in an administrator seeking the level of respect he or she desires. Munger (2010) suggested in order for an administrator to gain respect he or she must give respect. An administrator’s personality and character can help build respect within the community. Reese (2010) stated administrators who use humor to build relationships with colleagues and students not only form stronger relationships but also longer lasting relationships. Appropriate, positive humor can help administrators connect with their staff members on a personal level. Contrary to positive humor, negative humor, sarcasm, and cutting remarks are not positive building blocks in administrators gaining respect. Reese (2010) suggested we are a negative, disrespectful society that often encourages and emphasizes sarcasm, put-downs, and disrespectful words and actions. It is the responsibility of administrators to set the tone for as to what type of environment and culture they want for their students. Blasé discovered teacher conformity was much higher when serving under administrators who were confrontational. Conformity to rules included arrival time to work, faculty meeting attendance, faculty presence in classrooms at various times, and overall obedience to formal procedures.

An administrator’s willingness to be open in his or her communication strongly depends on the relationships he or she has with personnel and the community. Tingley (2009) asserted disagreements often occurred between parents and administrators when parents did not understand what was going on at their child’s school and why decisions were made. It is equally
important for an administrator to build relationships with his or her teachers as it is with the students’ parents. Tingley suggested eight habits for administrators to build a respectful and lasting relationship with teachers. They are being visible within the school, giving quick responses to student behavior, verbally recognizing teachers’ good work, consulting with teachers when appropriate decisions need to be made, keeping teacher information private, preparing faculty meetings so time loss is minimal, supporting teachers when they are challenged or threatened by a parents, and being enthusiastic with the school’s vision and mission.

Communication is essential with the community at large but is equally important with teachers. Shared-decision making is one avenue an administrator can explore to build communication between school personnel. If teacher morale is low or if teachers are left out of the decision-making process, negative feelings will emerge and become apparent within the culture of the school community (Peca, 2003). Hill (1993) contended all decisions made by administrators become part of the town’s communication network and gossip. Peck (2003) forecasted strong employee relations were the backbone to a successful organization. She further stated in order for programs to be effective, team members must believe in the organization’s goals and be willing to step up to the plate in order to get things done.

All educators share a commitment to fostering an environment of respect within their schools (Beaudoin, 2011). It is important for administrators to create this environment of respect through balance and fairness. Munger (2010) stated the importance of administrators speaking with their human-resource office regarding how to be sensitive to the need to balance work and family. The human-resource department will suggest possible resolutions to the problems to relieve internal tensions. An experienced administrator knows when to involve human resources and when not to.
A competent administrator is one who is practical and thoughtful in his or her actions. “Truly having power means giving it away” (Hoerr, 2013, p. 86). Hoerr asserted principals often need to present an attitude of confidence and act as if they know just about everything even though everyone realizes this is far from the truth. Fink and Brayman (2006) discovered principals will take fewer risks as they gain experience and settle into a school. Fewer risks are taken because many administrators delegate decision making to their teachers. Hoerr (2013) offered four rules of thumb for administrators when deciding if it was appropriate for a teacher to make or not make a decision. First, the more decisions that are made by teachers the better it will be for everyone involved. Teachers are professional and know their students. Second, teachers earn autonomy. Experienced teachers have the right and privilege to make more decisions than an apprentice teacher. True growth occurs when we learn from our mistakes and mistakes made from those around us. Experienced teachers have witnessed enough of both to make informed decisions. Third, an administrator needs to be clear in his or her mind the amount of independence he or she is willing to give. With regards to certain issues such as safety the administrator makes the ultimate decision. Last, confusion reigns when information is missing or absent. Administrators need to share their thoughts and processes with their faculty to keep everyone informed of the same information. When employees feel they are a part of a decision process, they are more open to change and the acceptance of that change. Jo (2008) discovered participants were frustrated and lacked respect for the administrator when they were left out of decisions and discussions regarding programs and mission even though they were often held responsible for implementing them. Reeves and Burt (2006) agreed teachers must become problem solvers but they also require the skills and time to do so.
Although fostering shared-decision making builds a culture of respect, it is not enough to build trust among school personnel. School leaders need to build trust with teachers because structures such as collaborative decision making and site-based management allow more people to solve a variety of school-related problems (Hoy & Tarter, 2003; Smylie & Hart, 1999). In order for all team members to work together for a common future, shared-decision making must exist. Hoy and Tarter (2004) asserted participation in decision making can improve the quality of decisions and promote cooperation if the right plan is linked to the right situation. Midlock (2011) asserted ownership plus empowerment equals success. Faculty and staff will respect the administrator who takes responsibility for his or her actions regardless of success or failure. This level of responsibility requires trust.

Students should be the number one motivator behind administrators treating others with respect. Beaudoin (2011) contended teachers who are stressed, unhappy, and are unsupported by their peers and administrator are more likely to treat their students with disrespect. Beaudoin (2011) summed up this process:

Improving staff well-being, attitudes, and relationships is a journey, not an event. No single workshop, lecture, or lesson will make it happen. The process involves reflection, putting words to experiences, experimenting with new ways of being, and eventually committing to more constructive approaches. Respected adults engage in respect-full interactions in which respectful students can blossom. (pp. 42-43)

When respectful behaviors are constant in a school culture, it reduces stress and increases productivity and creativity among school personnel (Reese, 2010).

**Stress**

Selye (1956) first pioneered the theory of stress as a nonspecific response of the body to any demand made on the body to adapt. No matter what we like to call it – stress, agitation, loss,
frustration, fear, exhaustion, shame, confusion, sadness, loneliness, hurt - stress plays a large factor in the overall quality of health of an individual in any profession. Stress is a continuous, exaggerated, and overwhelming sense of urgency, often intertwined with frustration (Moody & Barrett, 2009). Stress is the mental and emotional reaction a person gives to psychological events (Moody & Barrett, 2009). Seaward (2006) added that any stimuli, situations, circumstances, or events that are threatening or could be perceived as threatening are referred to as stressors.

Reform efforts, minimal administrative support, poor working circumstances, lack of involvement in decision-making, overwhelming paperwork, student achievement goals, school budgets, and the lack of resources have all been identified as factors that can cause high levels of stress among educators (Hammond & Onikama, 1997). The description of the roles and responsibilities of administrators suggests that their job is both complex and demanding (Jossey-Bass, 2007). McGee-Cooper and Trammell (1990) suggested administrators can be categorized into three varying groups depending on the way they manage stress. The first group are those who leave the profession because they cannot handle the pressures of the job. The second group are administrators who experience a high level of stress but are still able to continue their job while waiting for school vacations or retirement. The third group are progressive and well-established educators who experience a great deal of stress but are still capable of coping with it.

Multiple surveys and studies of administrators throughout the country have been conducted to evaluate the causes and levels of stress administrators may experience. DiPaola and Tschannen-Morgan (2003) surveyed 4,237 administrators in Virginia. Eighty-two percent of participating administrators indicated managing stress and enhancing leadership skills as their largest areas of need. Boyland (2011) concluded in her study the majority of administrators in Indiana were found to experience moderate to high levels of job stress on a daily basis. In 2008
the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that increasing demands on principals led to greater job loss and profession turnover. According to the report about 35% of the 415,400 education administrators employed in the United States in 2008 worked over 40 hours each week. Administrators listed time at the top of the list for contributing to high levels of stress.

In order to succeed in a leadership position administrators need to be masters of multi-tasking to help increase the amount of time they can devote to everyday tasks. Today’s administrators spend more time in classrooms than in the office. They are required to focus on curriculum and instruction as well as collecting, analyzing, and using data to improve student achievement (The Wallace Foundation, 2012; Usdan, McCloud, & Podmostko, 2000). Imagine an administrator responsible for 30 teachers and each one of those teachers on a daily basis had one question that required 2 minutes to answer. That is 1 hour per day out of an administrator’s schedule just speaking with teachers for 2 brief minutes. Add 300 students, 600 parents, support staff, visitors, other stakeholders, and an administrator will soon be moving from question to question without getting any of his or her tasks for the day completed. Pawlas and Oliva (2008) proposed two perspectives for administrators coping with time constraints. First, administrators should examine whether the tasks they are currently working on are really essential. Second, they need to prioritize those tasks and the demands they pose on their time.

Surveyed administrators also listed school finance as a cause for high levels of stress. All school administrators need to be aware of their school and district budget and policies. Guthrie and Schuermann (2010) asserted having a clear idea of the workings of school finance allows an administrator to see the big picture. The big picture gives a leader an advantage in conceptualizing the system of education as a whole, engaging with members of the public and the media, and partaking in informed exchanges with state and federal policy makers. Getting the
big picture of school finance will also help administrators become familiar with the stakeholders within his or her community.

Educational stakeholders apply a great deal of stress for administrators because of their positions, titles, needs, and interest in the success of the students. The importance of schools partnering with parents and the greater community is incredibly important in the success of a school (Robbins & Alvy, 2004). McLaughlin (2001) asserted community-based programs and organizations often make the largest and most significant contributions to student learning and development. Standard 4 of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (Green, 2001) stated a school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students through collaboration with families and the community. Guthrie and Schuermann (2010) listed students, parents, school district administrative authorities, teacher unions, county offices of education, state officials, judicial system, and other civic, state, and federal officials responsible for enforcing rules regarding health, safety, and building codes as school stakeholders. Peca (2003) suggested board members are the largest cause for stakeholder stress because they often assume more responsibility than their roles generally entail with solving educational problems. Administrators need to be able to directly handle issues regarding board members while knowing when to back off from sacrosanct issues or people (Peca, 2003). Although implementing change is a contributor to administrator stress, many administrators go into the profession because of their desires to transform the lives of their students.

Boyland (2011) asserted having the opportunity to serve others and be change agents are among the main factors that draw people to administrative positions. Murphy (2011) asserted discomfort levels greatly increase when leaders promote transformative change. Salpeter (2004) surveyed approximately 500 North Carolina principals. The participants indicated their least
enjoyed and most challenging task was being the lead change agent of the school. Duke (2004) stated four research-based propositions to help understand the relationship between leadership and leadership implementing a change process.

1. Educational change requires both management and leadership;
2. No single type or style of leadership is best for every situation involving educational change;
3. Leadership may be required during every phase of the educational change process;
4. Leadership may be required at every level of educational organization by those in designated leader roles as well as others.

Being in command of a change process places a great deal of responsibility on administrators. In a study conducted by Whitaker (2003) many effective principals viewed themselves as responsible for all aspects of their school. Even though effective principals regularly involved staff, parents, and others in decision making, they believed it was their duty to make their school perform to the fullest. Regardless of whether situations came up within the school or as a result of outside factors the more effective principals viewed themselves as the ultimate problem solvers.

The demands placed on administrators have increased greatly to improve student achievement and to provide all students with highly qualified teachers (Reynolds & O’Dwyer, 2008). These demands have increased largely due to the current mandates of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. One requirement of the mandate is that all students achieve proficiency by 2014. Administrators have two options when it comes to stress. He or she can leave the profession or learn to manage his or her stress.

Many administrators simply cope with the large levels of stress the best they can. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) initially defined coping as a “person’s constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage a specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the person’s resources” (p. 141). Since then they simply define coping as a
person’s attempt to manage stress, regardless of whether his or her efforts ease that stress.

Kleinke (2007) concluded that the most effective and least effective coping responses include finding help, communication, use of humor, and self-confidence. It is not enough for administrators to simply cope with stress. They need to be able to relieve the stress in order to maximize their capability to lead their school.

Administrators can relieve the stress from everyday tasks and situations by developing professional networks with other administrators. These administrators can be within their district or outside. Peca (2003) acknowledged the need for all administrators to discuss, vent, share, and learn their everyday struggles and celebrations with their peers. There are several ideas found in literature that might help administrators manage their stress. Boyland (2011) suggested increased professional development regarding particular aspects of the job, training in problem-solving skills, communication workshops, time-management courses, mentoring help, improved principal evaluation procedures, and opportunities for principals to observe one another.

Connolly (2007) suggested five ways for administrators to slow down and relieve stress.

1. Make a commitment to gain better control of his or her schedule.;
2. Establish their priorities and work backwards so that their important priorities don’t get hindered by the urgent ones.;
3. Plan what needs to be accomplished in big chunks: years, months, weeks.;
4. Work to develop patience and perseverance.; and
5. Develop strategies for removing extra baggage that takes away from time needed to pursue greater priorities.

If stress is not adequately managed and contained, burnout can occur. Stress that continues for months or years is referred to as chronic stress. If left untreated chronic stress can lead to exhaustion, burnout, and serious physical or mental illnesses (Colbert 2008; Wheeler, 2007). Combs and Bustamante (2007) defined burnout by the appearance of several symptoms including irritability, anger, fatigue, anxiety, and apathy. “The prolonged stress and unrelenting
fatigue lead to exhaustion, detachment from one’s work, and cynicism toward activities and people. Over time, passion wanes, commitment lessons, and work is no longer as rewarding as it once was” (Combs & Bustamante, 2007, p. 7).

Managing stress has many benefits for administrators as well as the schools they lead. Murphy (2011) suggested leaders who learn a new way to respond and adapt to the stress and burnout of daily leadership can enhance their performance and enrich their experience. Kelehear (2004) further asserted that when school leaders are in a low state of stress they tend to create a school’s culture of low stress as well. Schools need calm, well-balanced, helpful leaders as much as they need visionary ones (Connolly, 2007).

**Conclusion**

Each year administrator accountability increases. Many administrators experience a variety of health-related issues due to the high level of stress the occupation brings. Research indicated a rise in the awareness of the need to increase administrative support. The National Association of Independent Schools (NAIS) recently created the Emerging Leadership Development Program. This program is designed to help train new administrators in hopes to decrease the high turnover rate the profession has experienced in the past (Glendinning, 2005). If many of the challenges presented in this literature review (burnout, stress, increasing student achievement, coordinating effective professional development opportunities, time, lack of respect, and stress management) are not resolved, more administrators will leave the field causing a direct impact on student success.
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether an administrator’s professional teaching background and years of administrative experience influence his or her perceptions of the opportunities and challenges he or she faces guiding the improvement of teaching and learning. Specifically this research analyzed administrators’ perceptions of level of stress experienced, respect among colleagues and school community, professional development, student achievement, and assessment and evaluation. This chapter describes the research questions and null hypothesis, research design, population, instrumentation, data collection, and analysis of the data.

The purpose of research design is to specify a plan for creating observed evidence that will answer proposed research questions and draw valid, reliable conclusions from those answers (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). The researcher in this study used surveys with practicing principals and assistant principals in an effort to determine their perceptions regarding challenges and opportunities they face on a daily basis. Quantitative research challenges theories through the examination of the possible relationships that exist between variables. These variables can often be measured using an instrument so that numbered data can be analyzed through statistical actions (Creswell, 2009). Non experimental designs examine relationships that exist between different variables without changing conditions directly (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). This study uses nonexperimental, quantitative research with a comparative and correlational design.
Research Questions and Null Hypotheses

The following questions and their compatible null hypothesis relating to administrators’ perceptions of level of stress, respect, student achievement, assessment and evaluation, and professional development were addressed:

1. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the accessibility of professional development provided to them based on administrator background?

   $H_0_1$. There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the accessibility of professional development to them based on administrator background.

2. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the quality of professional development they provide for their staff based on administrator background?

   $H_0_2$. There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the quality of professional development they provide for their staff based on administrator background.

3. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the level of engagement they provide for their staff through professional development based on administrator background?

   $H_0_3$. There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the level of engagement they provide for their staff through professional development based on administrator background.
4. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the opportunities for growth they provide to their staff through professional development based on administrator background?

Ho₄. There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the opportunities for growth they provide to their staff through professional development based on administrator background.

5. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to adequately evaluate teachers based on administrator background?

Ho₅. There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to adequately evaluate teachers based on administrator background.

6. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through classroom observations based on administrator background?

Ho₆. There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through classroom observations based on administrator background.

7. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through teacher evaluations based on administrator background?

Ho₇. There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through teacher evaluations based on administrator background.
8. Is there a significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived effectiveness of the assessment and evaluation of teachers?

$H_0^8$. There is no significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived effectiveness of the assessment and evaluation of teachers.

9. What are the largest contributors of stress throughout the school year as reported by administrators?

10. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the various processes that need to occur in order to increase student achievement based on administrator background?

$H_0^{10}$. There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the various processes that need to occur in order to increase student achievement based on administrator background.

11. Is there a significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceptions regarding the various processes that need to occur in order to increase student achievement?

$H_0^{11}$. There is no significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceptions regarding the various processes that need to occur in order to increase student achievement.

12. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their using observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement based on administrator background?
Ho_{12}. There is no significant correlation between administrators’ perceptions regarding their using observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement based on administrator background.

13. Is there a significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceptions of their understanding data and observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement?

Ho_{13}. There is no significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceptions of their understanding data and observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement.

14. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the amount of respect they receive based on administrator background?

Ho_{141}. There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the amount of respect they receive from their school community based on administrator background.

Ho_{142}. There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the amount of respect they receive from their administrative colleagues based on administrator background.

Ho_{143}. There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the amount of respect they receive from central office based on administrator background.

Ho_{144}. There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the amount of respect they receive from society based on administrator background.
15. Is there a significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived amount of respect they receive?

$\text{Ho}_{15_1}$. There is no significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived amount of respect they receive from their school community.

$\text{Ho}_{15_2}$. There is no significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived amount of respect they receive from their administrative colleagues.

$\text{Ho}_{15_3}$. There is no significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived amount of respect they receive from central office.

$\text{Ho}_{15_4}$. There is no significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived amount of respect they receive from society.

16. Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions of poor communication and lack of area content knowledge contributing to being disrespected based on administrator background?

$\text{Ho}_{16}$. There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions of poor communication and lack of area content knowledge contributing to being disrespected based on administrator background.

Population

The survey was sent to 274 administrators within a 60 mile radius of East Tennessee State University. Administrators who were invited to participate in the study included 153 principals, 102 assistant principals, and 19 associate principals from Tennessee and North Carolina.
Sample

The self-selected sample for this survey consisted of 122 practicing principals, associate principals, and assistant principals in Tennessee and North Carolina. Participants of the study were selected based upon the permission granted from the district’s superintendent. Once permission was granted, the researcher sent an email inviting the administrators to participate in the study with the survey link embedded. The survey link was distributed to administrators within a 60 mile radius of East Tennessee State University. These administrators came from a wide variety of teaching backgrounds. Administrators who did not have at least 1 year of experience were not asked to participate in the survey. Administrators at the central office level were also not asked to participate in the survey.

Instrumentation

A survey was used with 23 items including demographics, stress, respect, assessment and evaluation, professional development, and student achievement. All questions regarding stress, respect, assessment and evaluation, professional development, and student achievement were scored using a five-point Likert scale. The survey was created by the researcher for the purpose of research investigation to measure administrators’ perceptions regarding the challenges they experience throughout the school year. They survey required each participant to give a response to each question.

The instrument was created in an online public survey platform, Survey Monkey. The instrument specifically highlighted five administrator challenges: stress, respect, assessment and evaluation, professional development, and teacher evaluations. Questions regarding each
challenge were created based upon information gained from the literature review as well as personal interest of the researcher.

The survey begins with six demographic questions. The remaining portion of the survey consists of the highlighted challenges. Each of the five challenges includes an introductory paragraph that contains definition of terms as well as directions for completing the respective section. The first section participants were asked to respond to is professional development. Many of the questions specifically focus on administrator’s ability to create professional development opportunities for his or her staff and the availability of professional development opportunities for administrator’s professional growth. The second section of the survey pertains to the challenges regarding the assessment and evaluation of teachers. The survey specially highlighted administrator teaching background as a possible factor. The third section survey participants were asked to respond to is student achievement. Two of the three questions exclusively relate to an administrator’s ability to interpret and analyze student data to forecast student achievement. The fourth section of the survey pertains to the challenges administrators may experience due to job stress. The question asks administrators to rank their stressors from 1 to 10 where 1 is the greatest amount of stress experienced and 10 is the least amount of stress experienced. The fifth section of the survey concerns the challenges administrators may experience with lack of respect. The questions specifically focus on a lack of respect from their fellow administrators, school community, central office, and society as a whole.

A survey instrument consisting of six demographic questions, four professional development questions, four assessment and evaluation questions, three student achievement questions, three stress questions (one of which with comment section), and three respect questions was developed in and distributed by Survey Monkey. A copy of the survey can be
found in Appendix A. Validity was reinforced by piloting the survey with students in the Administrative Licensure cohort at East Tennessee State University who may or may not have administrative experience. Changes to the instrument were made based on feedback given by the cohort members.

Data Collection

Before beginning this research project, permission to conduct research was secured from the superintendents of the participating administrators and the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of East Tennessee State University. Participants of the survey were advised that all of their responses were confidential and the demographic information they provided could not identify them within the study. Data were collected and analyzed in Survey Monkey. Once all the surveys were collected, the researcher requested via email a data summary sheet. Data from the summary sheet were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 20.

Data Analysis

Data from the survey instrument were analyzed with nonexperimental quantitative methodology. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 20 data analysis software was used in the analysis procedures for this study. The data sources that were analyzed included a survey design with a Likert scale and the option to comment on various questions.

Fourteen research questions had a single corresponding null hypothesis and the remaining two research questions had four nulls each. Null hypotheses were tested by the use of Pearson Correlation, ANOVA, and MANOVA comparing the calculated means with 2.5 representing neutrality. All data were analyzed at the .05 level of significance.
Summary

Chapter 3 reported the procedures and process for conducting the survey. After a short introduction, a description of the research design, selection of the population, data collection procedures, research questions with null hypotheses, and the data analysis procedures were defined.
The purpose of this study was to investigate whether administrators’ professional teaching background and years of administrative experience influence their perceptions of the opportunities and challenges they face guiding the improvement of teaching and learning. Specifically this research was an analysis of administrators’ perceptions of level of stress experienced; respect among colleagues, society, central office and school community; professional development; student achievement; and assessment and evaluation. Participants in the study included 122 principals, assistant principals, and associate principals from Tennessee and North Carolina.

In this chapter research findings are presented and analyzed in order to address 16 research questions and 21 null hypotheses. Data were analyzed from 12 survey questions that were measured on a five point Likert scale. Data were filtered and analyzed through an online survey program. The request to participate and survey link were sent twice to prospective administrators; a total of 274 administrators were invited to participate in the research study with 122 administrators responding. Participants were notified in advance their survey responses were anonymous, confidential, and the information given in the demographics portion of the survey could not identify them.
Research Question 1

Research Question 1: Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the accessibility of professional development provided to them based on administrator background?

Ho₁: There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the accessibility of professional development to them based on administrator background.

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the administrator’s teaching background and their perceptions regarding the accessibility of professional development opportunities provided to them. The independent variable, administrator teaching background, included three levels: Fine Arts and Humanities; Elementary Education; and Science, Math, and Other. The dependent variable was the accessibility of professional development provided to them. The ANOVA was not significant, $F(2,116) = .516, p = .598$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The strength of the relationship between administrator background and their perceptions regarding the accessibility of professional development opportunities provided to them as assessed by $\eta^2$ was small (.009). The results indicated administrator’s teaching background did not affect their perceptions regarding the accessibility of professional development provided to them. Figure 1 shows the distribution of the participant responses. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, means, and standard deviations for the three groups are reported in Table 1.
Figure 1. Administrator Perceptions of Accessibility of Professional Development Opportunities. Outliers have been identified using SPSS guideline greater or less than 1.5 X the 50th percentile. Median of sample is represented for each category.

Table 1

95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Administrator Perceptions Regarding the Accessibility of Professional Development Provided to Them

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</th>
<th>Elementary Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>-0.46 to 0.55</td>
<td>-0.68 to 0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Education</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>-0.77 to 0.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science, Math, and Other</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>-0.46 to 0.55</td>
<td>-0.68 to 0.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Question 2

Research Question 2: Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the quality of professional development they provide for their staff based on administrator background?

Ho$_2$: There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the quality of professional development they provide for their staff based on administrator background.

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the administrator’s teaching background and their perceptions regarding the usefulness of professional development opportunities they provide for their staff. The independent variable, administrator teaching background, included three levels: Fine Arts and Humanities; Elementary Education; and Science, Math, and Other. The dependent variable was their perceptions regarding the usefulness of professional development they provide for their staff. The ANOVA was not significant, $F(2,116) = 1.51, p = .226$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The strength of the relationship between administrator background and their perceptions regarding the usefulness of professional development they provide for their staff as assessed by $\eta^2$ was small (.025). The results indicated administrators’ teaching background did not affect their perceptions regarding the usefulness of professional development they provide for their staff. Figure 2 shows the distribution of the participant responses. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, means, and standard deviations for the three groups are reported in Table 2.
Figure 2. Administrator Perceptions Regarding Usefulness of Professional Development Designed for Staff. Outliers have been identified using SPSS guideline greater or less than 1.5 X the 50th percentile. Median of sample is represented for each category.

Table 2

95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Administrator Perceptions Regarding the Level of Usefulness they Provide for Their Staff Through PD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</th>
<th>Elementary Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Education</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>-.77 to .15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science, Math, and Other</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>-.36 to .48</td>
<td>-.67 to .17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Question 3

Research Question 3: Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the level of engagement they provide for their staff through professional development based on administrator background?

Ho$_3$: There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the level of engagement they provide for their staff through professional development based on administrator background.

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the administrator’s teaching background and their perceptions regarding the level of engagement they provide for their staff through professional development opportunities. The independent variable, administrator teaching background, included three levels: Fine Arts and Humanities; Elementary Education; and Science, Math, and Other. The dependent variable was their perceptions regarding the level of engagement through professional development they provide for their staff. The ANOVA was not significant, $F(2,116) = .585$, $p = .559$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The strength of the relationship between administrator background and their perceptions regarding the level of engagement in professional development they provide for their staff as assessed by $\eta^2$ was small (.010). The results indicated administrator’s teaching background did not affect their perceptions regarding the level of engagement through professional development they provide for their staff. Figure 3 shows the distribution of the participant responses. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, means, and standard deviations for the three groups are reported in Table 3.
Figure 3. Administrator Perceptions Regarding Level of Engagement They Provide Through Professional Development for Staff. Outliers have been identified using SPSS guideline greater or less than 1.5 X the 50th percentile. Median of sample is represented for each category.

Table 3

95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Administrator Perceptions Regarding the Level of Engagement they Provide for Their Staff Through PD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</th>
<th>Elementary Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Education</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>-0.66 to 0.27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science, Math, and Other</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>-0.40 to 0.45</td>
<td>-0.59 to 0.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Question 4

Research Question 4: Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the opportunities for growth they provide to their staff through professional development based on administrator background?

H₀₄: There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the opportunities for growth they provide to their staff through professional development based on administrator background.

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the administrator’s teaching background and their perceptions regarding the opportunities for growth they provide for their staff through of professional development opportunities. The independent variable, administrator teaching background, included three levels: Fine Arts and Humanities; Elementary Education; and Science, Math, and Other. The dependent variable was their perceptions regarding the opportunities for growth they provide through professional development for their staff. The ANOVA was not significant, $F(2,116) = .293, p = .746$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The strength of the relationship between administrator background and their perceptions regarding the level of engagement in professional development they provide for their staff as assessed by $\eta^2$ was small (.005). The results indicated administrator’s teaching background did not affect their perceptions regarding the level of engagement through professional development they provide for their staff. Figure 4 shows the distribution of the participant responses. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, means, and standard deviations for the three groups are reported in Table 4.
Figure 4. Administrator Perceptions Regarding Opportunities for Growth They Provide Through Professional Development for Staff. Outliers have been identified using SPSS guideline greater or less than 1.5 X the 50th percentile. Median of sample is represented for each category.

Table 4

95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Administrator Perceptions Regarding the Opportunities for Growth they Provide for Their Staff Through PD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</th>
<th>Elementary Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Education</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>-.60 to .39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science, Math, and Other</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>-.31 to .60</td>
<td>-.42 to .50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Question 5

Research Question 5: Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to adequately evaluate teachers based on administrator background?

$H_{O5}$: There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to adequately evaluate teachers based on administrator background?

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the administrator’s teaching background and their perceptions regarding their ability to evaluate teachers. The independent variable, administrator teaching background, included three levels: Fine Arts and Humanities; Elementary Education; and Science, Math, and Other. The two dependent variables were their perceptions of their background aiding or hindering their ability to adequately evaluate teachers. The MANOVA was not significant for the hindering factor, $F(2, 115) = 1.583, p = .210$, and not significant for the aiding factor, $F(2, 115) = 1.745, p = .179$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The multivariate $\eta^2$ based on Wilks’s Lambda was .027. Each pairwise comparison was tested at the .025 level. The results indicated administrator’s teaching background did not affect their perceptions regarding their ability to adequately evaluate teachers. Figure 5 shows the distribution of the participant responses. The means and standard deviations for the three groups are reported in Table 5.
Figure 5. Administrator Perceptions Regarding Their Ability to Adequately Evaluate Teachers. Outliers have been identified using SPSS guideline greater or less than 1.5 X the 50th percentile. Median of sample is represented for each category.

Table 5

Differences in Mean and Standard Deviation Changes in Administrator Perceptions to Adequately Evaluate Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Background</th>
<th>Hinders</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Aids</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Education</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science, Math, and Other</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Question 6

Research Question 6: Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through classroom observations based on administrator background?

Ho_6: There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through classroom observations based on administrator background.

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the administrator’s teaching background and their perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through classroom observations. The independent variable, administrator teaching background, included three levels: Fine Arts and Humanities; Elementary Education; and Science, Math, and Other. The dependent variable was their perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through classroom observations. The ANOVA was not significant, \( F(2,115) = .095, p = .909 \). Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The strength of the relationship between administrator background and their perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through classroom observations as assessed by \( \eta^2 \) was small (.002). The results indicated administrator’s teaching background did not affect their perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through classroom observations. Figure 6 shows the distribution of the participant responses. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, means, and standard deviations for the three groups are reported in Table 6.
Figure 6. Administrator Perceptions Ability to Assess Student Growth Through Classroom Observations. Outliers have been identified using SPSS guideline greater or less than 1.5 X the 50th percentile. Median of sample is represented for each category.

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</th>
<th>Elementary Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Education</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>-.40 to .57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science, Math, and Other</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>-.48 to .41</td>
<td>-.39 to .50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Question 7

Research Question 7: Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through teacher evaluations based on administrator background?

Ho7: There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through teacher evaluations based on administrator background.

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the administrator’s teaching background and their perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through teacher evaluations. The independent variable, administrator teaching background, included three levels: Fine Arts and Humanities; Elementary Education; and Science, Math, and Other. The dependent variable was their perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through teacher evaluations. The ANOVA was not significant, \( F(2,115) = .051, p = .950 \). Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The strength of the relationship between administrator background and their perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through classroom observations as assessed by \( \eta^2 \) was small (.001). The results indicated administrator’s teaching background did not affect their perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through teacher evaluations. Figure 7 shows the distribution of the participant responses. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, means, and standard deviations for the three groups are reported in Table 7.
Figure 7. Administrator Perceptions Ability to Assess Student Growth Through Teacher Evaluations. Outliers have been identified using SPSS guideline greater or less than 1.5 X the 50th percentile. Median of sample is represented for each category.

Table 7

95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Administrator Perceptions Regarding their Ability to Assess Student Growth Through Teacher Evaluations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</th>
<th>Elementary Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>-2.20 to 2.20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Education</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>-1.48 to 2.87</td>
<td>-1.17 to 2.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science, Math, and Other</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>5.77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Research Question 8**

Research Question 8: Is there a significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived effectiveness of the assessment and evaluation of teachers?

Ho8: There is no significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived effectiveness of the assessment and evaluation of teachers.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to test the relationship between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived effectiveness of the assessment and evaluation of teachers. The results of the analysis revealed a weak positive relationship between administrators’ years of experience (M=7.90, SD = 7.00) and their perceived effectiveness of the assessment and evaluation of teachers (M = 4.36, SD = .71) and not a statistically significant correlation [r(116) = .072, p = .85]. As a result of the analysis the null hypothesis was retained. In general the results suggest that the number of years an administrator has in a leadership role does not have a strong impact on his or her perceived effectiveness of the assessment and evaluation of teachers.

**Research Question 9**

Research Question 9: What are the largest contributors of stress throughout the school year as reported by administrators?

Administrators were asked to rank 10 possible stress factors in order where 10 indicated greatest amount of stress experienced and 1 indicated the least amount of stress experienced. Administrators largely indicated time as the number one factor in contributing to the amount of stress they experience throughout the school year. Figure 8 shows the distribution of stress factors by participants.
Research Question 10

Research Question 10: Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the various processes that need to occur in order to increase student achievement based on administrator background?

Ho$_{10}$: There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the various processes that need to occur in order to increase student achievement based on administrator background.

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the administrator’s teaching background and their perceptions regarding the various processes that need to occur in order to increase student achievement. The independent variable, administrator teaching background, included three levels: Fine Arts and Humanities;
Elementary Education; and Science, Math, and Other. The two dependent variables were their ability to use data to forecast student achievement and their understanding of the processes needed in order to increase student growth. The MANOVA was not significant for the data factor, $F(2,115) = .219, p = .804$, and not significant for the processes factor, $F(2,115) = 1.446, p = .240$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The multivariate $\eta^2$ based on Wilks’s Lambda for the data factor was .004 and .025 for the processes factor. Each pairwise comparison was tested at the .025 level. The results indicated administrator’s teaching background did not affect their perceptions regarding their understanding of the processes that need to occur in order to increase student achievement. Figure 9 shows the distribution of the participant responses. The 97% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, means, and standard deviations for the three groups are reported in Table 8.
Figure 9. Administrator Understanding of the Processes to Increase Student Achievement. Outliers have been identified using SPSS guideline greater or less than 1.5 X the 50th percentile. Median of sample is represented for each category.

Table 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Use of Data</th>
<th>Various Processes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Education</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science, Math, and Other</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Question 11

Research Question 11: Is there a significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceptions regarding the various processes that need to occur in order to increase student achievement?

H_{011}: There is no significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceptions regarding the various processes that need to occur in order to increase student achievement.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to test the relationship between administrators’ years of experience and their perceptions regarding the various processes that need to occur in order to increase student achievement. The results of the analysis revealed a weak positive relationship between administrators’ years of experience (M=8, SD = 7.00) and their perceptions regarding the processes that need to occur to increase student achievement (M = 3.98, SD = 0.58) and not a statistically significant correlation \([r(116) = .029, p = .76]\). As a result of the analysis the null hypothesis was retained. In general the results suggest that the number of years an administrator has in a leadership role does not have a strong impact on their perceptions regarding the processes that need to occur in order to increase student achievement.

Research Question 12

Research Question 12: Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their using observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement based on administrator background?

H_{012}: There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding their using observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement based on administrator background.
A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the administrator’s teaching background and their perceptions regarding their understanding of data and observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement. The independent variable, administrator teaching background, included three levels: Fine Arts and Humanities; Elementary Education; and Science, Math, and Other. The dependent variable was their perceptions regarding their understanding of data and observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement. The ANOVA was not significant, \( F(2,115) = .678, p = .509 \). Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The strength of the relationship between administrator background and their perceptions regarding data and observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement as assessed by \( \eta^2 \) was small (.012). The results indicated administrator’s teaching background did not affect their perceptions regarding their understanding of data and observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement. Figure 10 shows the distribution of the participant responses. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, means, and standard deviations for the three groups are reported in Table 9.
Figure 10. Administrator Ability to Anticipate Direction For Curriculum. Outliers have been identified using SPSS guideline greater or less than 1.5 X the 50th percentile. Median of sample is represented for each category.

Table 9

95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Administrator Perceptions Regarding their Ability to Anticipate Direction for Curriculum to Increase Student Achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</th>
<th>Elementary Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Education</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>-0.55 to 0.20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science, Math, and Other</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>-0.30 to 0.39</td>
<td>-0.48 to 0.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Question 13

Research Question 13: Is there a significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceptions of their understanding data and observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement?

$H_{0_{13}}$: There is no significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceptions of their understanding data and observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to test the relationship between administrators’ years of experience and their understanding of data and observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement. The results of the analysis revealed a weak positive relationship between administrators’ years of experience ($M=7.9$, $SD = 7.0$) and their understanding of data and observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement ($M = 3.89$, $SD = .79$) and not a statistically significant correlation [$r(116) = .078$, $p = .40$]. As a result of the analysis the null hypothesis was retained. In general the results suggest that the number of years an administrator has in a leadership role does not have a strong impact on their understanding of data and observations to anticipate direction for curriculum to increase student achievement.

Research Question 14

Research Question 14: Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the amount of respect they receive based on administrator background?
Ho14: There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the amount of respect they receive from the school community based on administrator background.

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the administrator’s teaching background and their perceptions regarding amount of respect they receive from the school community based on administrator background. The independent variable, administrator teaching background, included three levels: Fine Arts and Humanities; Elementary Education; and Science, Math, and Other. The dependent variable was their perceptions regarding amount of respect they receive from the school community based on administrator background. The ANOVA was not significant, \( F(2,111) = .739, \ p = .480 \). Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The strength of the relationship between administrator background and amount of respect they received from the school community as assessed by \( \eta^2 \) was small (.013). The results indicated administrator’s teaching background did not affect their perceptions regarding amount of respect they receive from the school community. Figure 11 shows the distribution of the participant responses based on respect received from the school community. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, means, and standard deviations for the three groups are reported in Table 10.
Figure 11. Perceived Respect Received from School Community. Outliers have been identified using SPSS guideline greater or less than 1.5 X the 50\textsuperscript{th} percentile. Median of sample is represented for each category.

Table 10

95\% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Administrator Perceptions Regarding their Perceptions Regarding the Level of Respect they Receive from the School Community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</th>
<th>Elementary Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Education</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>-0.19 to 0.54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science, Math, and Other</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>-0.46 to 0.29</td>
<td>-0.25 to 0.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Ho14.2: There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the amount of respect they receive from their administrative colleagues based on administrator background.

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the administrator’s teaching background and their perceptions regarding amount of respect they receive from their administrative colleagues based on administrator background. The independent variable, administrator teaching background, included three levels: Fine Arts and Humanities; Elementary Education; and Science, Math, and Other. The dependent variable was their perceptions regarding amount of respect they receive from their administrative colleagues based on administrator background. The ANOVA was not significant, $F(2,111) = .936, p = .40$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The strength of the relationship between administrator background and amount of respect they received from their administrative colleagues as assessed by $\eta^2$ was small (.017). The results indicated administrator’s teaching background did not affect their perceptions regarding amount of respect they receive from their administrative colleagues. Figure 12 shows the distribution of the participant responses based on respect received from their administrative colleagues. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, means, and standard deviations for the three groups are reported in Table 11.
**Figure 12.** Perceived Respect Received from Administrative Colleagues. Outliers have been identified using SPSS guideline greater or less than 1.5 X the 50th percentile. Median of sample is represented for each category.

**Table 11**

*95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Administrator Perceptions Regarding their Perceptions Regarding the Level of Respect they Receive from their Administrative Colleagues*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</th>
<th>Elementary Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Education</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>-.17 to .53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science, Math, and Other</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>-.44 to .22</td>
<td>-.27 to .40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Ho143: There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the amount of respect they receive from central office based on administrator background.

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the administrator’s teaching background and their perceptions regarding amount of respect they receive from central office based on administrator background. The independent variable, administrator teaching background, included three levels: Fine Arts and Humanities; Elementary Education; and Science, Math, and Other. The dependent variable was their perceptions regarding amount of respect they receive from central office based on administrator background. The ANOVA was not significant, $F(2,111) = .077, p = .926$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The strength of the relationship between administrator background and amount of respect they received from central office as assessed by $\eta^2$ was small (.001). The results indicated administrator’s teaching background did not affect their perceptions regarding amount of respect they receive from central office. Figure 13 shows the distribution of the participant responses based on respect received from central office. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, means, and standard deviations for the three groups are reported in Table 12.
Figure 13. Perceived Respect Received from Central Office. Outliers have been identified using SPSS guideline greater or less than 1.5 X the 50th percentile. Median of sample is represented for each category.

Table 12

95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Administrator Perceptions Regarding their Perceptions Regarding the Level of Respect they Receive from their Central Office

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</th>
<th>Elementary Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Education</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>-.40 to .52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science, Math, and Other</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>-.53 to .42</td>
<td>-.21 to .71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Ho144: There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions regarding the amount of respect they receive from society based on administrator background.

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the administrator’s teaching background and their perceptions regarding amount of respect they receive from society based on administrator background. The independent variable, administrator teaching background, included three levels: Fine Arts and Humanities; Elementary Education; and Science, Math, and Other. The dependent variable was their perceptions regarding amount of respect they receive from society based on administrator background. The ANOVA was not significant, $F(2,111) = 1.12, p = .332$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The strength of the relationship between administrator background and amount of respect they received from society as assessed by $\eta^2$ was small (.020). The results indicated administrator’s teaching background did not affect their perceptions regarding amount of respect they receive from society. Figure 14 shows the distribution of the participant responses based on respect received from society. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, means, and standard deviations for the three groups are reported in Table 13.
Figure 14. Perceived Respect Received from Society. Outliers have been identified using SPSS guideline greater or less than 1.5 X the 50th percentile. Median of sample is represented for each category.

Table 13

95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Administrator Perceptions Regarding their Perceptions Regarding the Level of Respect they Receive from Society

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</th>
<th>Elementary Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>-0.31 to 0.69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Education</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.54 to 0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science, Math, and Other</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Question 15

Research Question 15: Is there a significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived amount of respect they receive?

Ho15: There is no significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived amount of respect they receive from their school community.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to test the relationship between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived amount of respect they receive from their school community. The results of the analysis revealed a weak positive relationship between administrators’ years of experience (M=7.9, SD = 7.0) and their perceived amount of respect they receive from their school community (M = 4.12, SD = 0.58) and not a statistically significant correlation [r(112) = .145, p = .123]. As a result of the analysis the null hypothesis was retained. In general the results suggest that the number of years an administrator has in a leadership role does not have a strong impact on their perceived amount of respect they receive from their school community.

Ho152: There is no significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived amount of respect they receive from their administrative colleagues.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to test the relationship between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived amount of respect they receive from their administrative colleagues. The results of the analysis revealed a weak positive relationship between administrators’ years of experience (M=7.9, SD = 7.0) and their perceived amount of respect they receive from their administrative colleagues (M = 4.08, SD = 0.53) and not a statistically significant correlation [r(112) = .114, p = .228]. As a result of the analysis the null hypothesis was retained. In general the results suggest that the number of years an administrator
has in a leadership role does not have a strong impact on their perceived amount of respect they receive from their administrative colleagues.

Ho15: There is no significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived amount of respect they receive from central office.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to test the relationship between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived amount of respect they receive from central office. The results of the analysis revealed a weak positive relationship between administrators’ years of experience (M=7.9, SD = 7.0) and their perceived amount of respect they receive from central office (M = 3.93, SD = 0.73) and not a statistically significant correlation \[r(112) = .111, p = .238\]. As a result of the analysis the null hypothesis was retained. In general the results suggest that the number of years an administrator has in a leadership role does not have a strong impact on their perceived amount of respect they receive from central office.

Ho15: There is no significant correlation between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived amount of respect they receive from society.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to test the relationship between administrators’ years of experience and their perceived amount of respect they receive from society. The results of the analysis revealed a weak positive relationship between administrators’ years of experience (M=7.9, SD = 7.0) and their perceived amount of respect they receive from society (M = 3.84, SD = 0.76) and not a statistically significant correlation \[r(112) = .084, p = .373\]. As a result of the analysis the null hypothesis was retained. In general the results suggest that the number of years an administrator has in a leadership role does not have a strong impact on their perceived amount of respect they receive from society.
Research Question 16

Research Question 16: Is there a significant difference between administrators’ perceptions of poor communication and lack of area content knowledge contributing to being disrespected based on administrator background?

$H_{016}$: There is no significant difference between administrators’ perceptions of poor communication and lack of area content knowledge contributing to being disrespected based on administrator background.

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the administrator’s teaching background and their perceptions of poor communication and lack of area content knowledge contributing to being disrespected. The independent variable, administrator teaching background, included three levels: Fine Arts and Humanities; Elementary Education; and Science, Math, and Other. The dependent variable was their perceptions of poor communication and lack of area content knowledge contributing to being disrespected. The ANOVA was not significant, $F(2,111) = .989, p = .375$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The strength of the relationship between administrator background and their perceptions of poor communication and lack of area content knowledge contributing to being disrespected as assessed by $\eta^2$ was small (.018). The results indicated administrator’s teaching background did not affect their perceptions of poor communication and lack of area content knowledge contributing to being disrespected. Figure 15 shows the distribution of the participant responses. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences, means, and standard deviations for the three groups are reported in Table 14.
Figure 15. Administrator Perceptions Regarding Poor Communication and Lack of Area Content Knowledge Contributing to Being Disrespected

Table 14

95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences in Mean Changes in Administrator Perceptions Regarding Poor Communication and Lack of Area Content Knowledge Contributing to Being Disrespected

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</th>
<th>Elementary Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts &amp; Humanities</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Education</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>-0.32 to 0.74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science, Math, and Other</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>-0.76 to 0.20</td>
<td>-0.56 to 0.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Summary

Data from administrators were presented and analyzed in this chapter. There were 16 research questions and 21 null hypotheses. All data were collected and analyzed through an online survey. The survey was distributed to 274 administrators with 122 administrators responding.
CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether administrators’ professional teaching background and years of administrative experience influenced their perceptions of the opportunities and challenges they face guiding the improvement of teaching and learning. Specifically this research analyzed administrators’ perceptions of types of stress experienced; respect among colleagues, society, central office, and school community; professional development; student achievement; and assessment and evaluation. This chapter contains a summary of the findings, conclusions, and recommendations for practice and future research.

Summary

The analysis presented in this study was based upon 16 research questions reported in chapters 1 and 3. Each research question had one null hypothesis with the exception of research questions 14 and 15 having four nulls each. Research questions 14 and 15 addressed the level of respect administrators perceived they received from their school community, administrative colleagues, central office, and society. Each research question regarding administrator background was analyzed using one-way ANOVA with two research questions requiring one-way MANOVA. Research questions regarding administrator years of experience were analyzed using Pearson correlation.

There were 122 participants in this study. The administrators were grouped according to their teaching background: Fine Arts and Humanities; Elementary Education; and Science, Math,
and Other. The number of administrators participating in the survey with Fine Arts and Humanities as their teaching background was 38. The number of administrators with Elementary Education as their teaching background was 32, and those with Science, Math, and Other background was 52.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether administrators’ professional teaching background and years of administrative experience influenced their perceptions of the opportunities and challenges they face guiding the improvement of teaching and learning. Specifically this research analyzed administrators’ perceptions of types of stress experienced; respect among colleagues, society, central office, and school community; professional development; student achievement; and assessment and evaluation. The following conclusions were based on the findings from the data in this study:

1. There was no significant difference in administrators’ perceptions regarding the accessibility of professional development provided to them based on administrator background. Little difference was found in each group’s mean: Fine Arts and Humanities mean of 3.51; Elementary Education mean of 3.74; and Science, Math, and Other background mean of 3.56. A possible explanation for the similar responses is the commonality of daily duties shared by all administrators. While each administrator may come from a different teaching background, his or her day-to-day tasks as an administrator are very similar. While individually some administrators indicated there was not an adequate amount of professional development accessible to them in this study, there was little difference between group responses.
2. There was no significant difference in administrators’ perceptions regarding the level of usefulness and level of engagement they provide for their staff through professional development based on administrator background. Regarding the level of usefulness for professional development opportunities, there was little difference in mean scores between groups: Fine Arts and Humanities mean of 3.60; Elementary Education mean of 3.91; and Science, Math, and Other background mean of 3.66. Similarly, there was little difference in mean scores regarding the level of engagement for professional development opportunities: Fine Arts and Humanities score of 3.57; Elementary Education score of 3.76; and Science, Math, and Other background score of 3.60. A possible explanation for the insignificant differences is given by Finn et. al (2010) who stated “Professional development is driven by a particular group of standards that are set by the government or outside agencies with specific interest rather than internal entities” (p. 14). Having a set of standards and regulations placed on the professional development opportunities an administrator can offer to his or her staff would seem to limit the amount of variety within those opportunities.

3. There was no significant difference in administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to adequately evaluate teachers based on the administrator’s background. Little difference was found in each group’s mean: Fine Arts and Humanities mean of 4.24; Elementary Education mean of 4.44; and Science, Math, and Other background mean of 4.16. A possible contributor to the similar responses between groups is the many changes currently facing the evaluation process. The Race to the Top Program (RTT) and the ESEA Flexibility Program have created a rigorous evaluation system that plays a vital role in the accountability of a school. Popham (2013) claimed one of the most controversial changes brought to the evaluation process for administrators was the use of student growth according to standardized tests as a significant
factor in determining a teacher’s quality. Regardless of teaching background, each administrator faces a unique set of challenges determining a teacher’s quality by looking at students’ test scores. While all three groups have unique backgrounds, their responses could be consistent because of the similar challenges the evaluation processes holds.

4. There was no significant difference in administrators’ perceptions regarding their ability to assess student growth through classroom observations and administrator background. Little difference was found in each group’s mean: Fine Arts and Humanities mean of 3.79; Elementary Education mean of 3.71; and Science, Math, and Other background mean of 3.76. This study suggests there is no significant difference in administrators’ perceptions of their ability to assess student growth through classroom observations based on administrator teaching background. This is contrary to the findings of Marshall (2012). He concluded an important challenge for administrators when observing teachers and students in the classroom is “…the lack of content area training and subject area he or she is observing” (p. 51). Although many administrators indicated they were not comfortable with their ability to assess student growth through classroom observations, the groups were similar in their responses. A possible reason for such parallel response is the unique challenges each classroom observation brings.

5. There was no significant correlation between administrators’ years of administrative experience and their perceived effectiveness of the assessment and evaluation of teachers. The mean for administrators’ years experience was 7.90 while the mean for perceived effectiveness of the assessment and evaluation of teachers was 4.36. A significant correlation was not found between the groups. Literature suggests a possible explanation for the insignificant findings is the amount of training required by all administrators (Heck & Hallinger, 2005). Danielson and McGreal (2000) concluded administrators must be adequately training in order to ensure their
judgments of teachers are accurate, consistent, and unbiased. The results suggest that the number of years an administrator has in a leadership role does not have a strong impact on his or her perceived effectiveness of the assessment and evaluation of teachers. These results support a strong need for quality training for administrators.

6. Descriptive statistics were obtained regarding the amount of and types of stress experienced by administrators on a daily basis. Administrators indicated their top five causes of stress were: time, state testing, student achievement, teacher evaluations, and student behaviors. Moody and Barrett (2009) stated stress is the mental and emotional reaction a person gives to psychological events. State testing, student achievement, teacher evaluations, and student behaviors are the most time consuming tasks in an administrator’s daily schedule. Because administrators spend so much time in these top five areas, they are more inclined to experience greater amounts of stress with them. These findings are consistent with DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2003) who surveyed 4,237 administrators in Virginia. Eighty-three percent of administrators indicated managing stress as associated with student achievement and teacher evaluations were their largest obstacles. These results suggest time, state testing, student achievement, teacher evaluations, and student evaluations are the largest contributors to stress experienced by administrators on a daily basis.

7. There was no significant difference in administrators’ perceptions regarding the various processes that need to occur in order to increase student achievement based on administrator background. Little difference was reflected in the means of the three groups: Fine Arts and Humanities mean of 3.93; Elementary Education mean of 4.02; and Science, Math, and Other background mean of 3.9. McRel (2003) noted two factors play a critical role in administrators increasing student achievement: focus on change and understanding the
magnitude of change. Change is experienced consistently throughout the career of all teachers and administrators regardless of their teaching background. Although these findings are insignificant, a possible cause for this is the common profession of education all administrators come from and the various challenges and opportunities they accrue through each change process.

8. There was no significant correlation between administrators’ years of administrative experience and their perceptions regarding the various processes that need to occur in order to increase student achievement. A possible explanation for this is an administrator’s human relation skills. Gruenert (2005) concluded, “A principal’s human relation skills, levels of trust and the way decisions are made, the failure to empower subordinates, and deal with conflict are often the reasons why principals are either successful or not successful as educational leaders in raising student achievement” (p. 7). His findings are consistent with the findings of this study. Administrators’ years of administrative experience impact students less than administrators’ ability to built positive, lasting relationships in a culture of trust.

9. There was no significant difference in administrators’ perceptions regarding the amount of respect they receive based on administrator background. Little difference was reflected in the means of the three groups: Fine Arts and Humanities mean of 4.21; Elementary Education mean of 4.03; and Science, Math, and Other background mean of 4.13. Whitaker (2003) stated “effective principals treat people with respect” (p. 21). Beaudoin (2011) further stated creating a school culture of mutual respect begins within the heart of a staff’s well-being and professional relationships with one another and administration. Although individually a few administrators indicated a lack of respect from their colleagues, central office, or school community, the three groups indicated similar responses.
Recommendations for Practice

The findings and conclusions of this research have allowed me to identify the following recommendations for practice by administrators:

1. All administrators regardless of background and years of administrative experience need to make certain they go to work every day equipped with the right tools and mindset to guide the learning of teachers and students. Effective administrators develop a culture of learning that typically leads to increased student achievement and learning (Peca, 2003; Reese, 2010; Tingley, 2009).

2. Administrators should design professional development opportunities that are both useful and engaging for their staff. Administrators need to become master researchers when it comes to designing, implementing, and attending professional development opportunities. This is necessary because each school presents a unique set of circumstances, challenges, and opportunities for a leader to address (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Hargreaves, 2007).

3. Stress is a guarantee in life. It is up to the administrators how they react to that stress. Principals would be well served through administrative development groups consisting of friends and colleagues to help discuss the possible causes and preventions of stress they may experience throughout the school year as well as possible ways to avoid different types of stress (McGee-Cooper & Trammell, 1990; Pawlaw & Olivia, 2008).

4. The central office needs to provide support and professional development for their administrators to help them achieve their goals of guiding the education of the students they serve. It would be beneficial for administrators if central office annually reviewed the professional development opportunities they provide for their administrators.
Recommendations for Future Research

1. The results of this study indicate that teaching background and administrative years of experience do not play a role in his or her ability to effectively lead a school. Additional research needs to be conducted to expand the scope of the study. This study focused on a limited number of administrators from Northeast Tennessee and Western North Carolina. Recommendation for future research includes broadening the scope of participants into a variety of cultures and school districts. This study was specific to the Northeast Tennessee and Western North Carolina area where very little diversity exists. Broadening the scope of the study to include a more diverse group of participants would possibly yield additional administrator challenges.

2. With increased measure of accountability on administrators each year, further research should be conducted over a scope of a number of years to compare the specific changes in challenges administrators experience.
REFERENCES


APPENDICES
APPENDIX A
Instrument

Demographics

1. What is your gender?
   a. Male
   b. Female

2. How many years of experience do you have in education? ______ years

3. How many years of experience do you have as a practicing administrator? (Assistant Principal or Principal) _____ years

4. What is your current administrative position?
   a. Principal
   b. Assistant principal
   c. Other (please specify)

5. Please indicate the teaching background you have the most years of experience in:
   a. Fine arts (music, art, dance, etc)
   b. Humanities (English, foreign languages, social studies, ESL, etc)
   c. Sciences/Mathematics
   d. Other (special education, physical education, drivers education, guidance counselor, etc)
   e. Elementary education

6. What activities do you regularly participate in for professional development? (choose all that apply)
   a. Book club
   b. Workshop
   c. Conferences
   d. Other __________

Professional Development

The following section will ask you a series of questions regarding your perception of your capabilities and/or hindrances with regards to professional development. Learning Forward (2010) defined professional development as a comprehensive, sustained, and intensive approach to improving teachers’ and principals’ effectiveness in raising student achievement. Please indicate the level of strength or weakness you believe you have in this area.
7. As an administrator, professional development opportunities are accessible to me that meet the Learning Forward definition of professional development activities.
   a. Strongly disagree
   b. Disagree
   c. Neither agree nor disagree
   d. Agree
   e. Strongly agree

8. I can easily design professional development opportunities that are useful for my staff.
   a. Strongly disagree
   b. Disagree
   c. Neither agree nor disagree
   d. Agree
   e. Strongly agree

9. I can easily design professional development opportunities that are engaging for my staff.
   a. Strongly disagree
   b. Disagree
   c. Neither agree nor disagree
   d. Agree
   e. Strongly agree

10. All of the professional development opportunities I provide for my staff allow them opportunities for growth in their respective field of expertise.
    a. Strongly disagree
    b. Disagree
    c. Neither agree nor disagree
    d. Agree
    e. Strongly agree

Assessment and Evaluation

The following section will ask you a series of questions regarding your perception of your capabilities and/or hindrances with regards to assessment and evaluation. Daresh (2006) defined assessment as a process of judging something with or without an external standard or guide. He defined evaluation as the process of determining the worth – goodness or badness – of something. Please indicate the level of strength or weakness you believe you have in this area.

11. My teaching background hinders my ability to adequately evaluate teachers.
    a. Strongly disagree
    b. Disagree
    c. Neither agree nor disagree
12. My teaching background aids in my ability to adequately evaluate teachers.
   a. Strongly disagree
   b. Disagree
   c. Neither agree nor disagree
   d. Agree
   e. Strongly agree

13. I am comfortable assessing student growth through classroom observation.
   a. Strongly disagree
   b. Disagree
   c. Neither agree nor disagree
   d. Agree
   e. Strongly agree

   a. Strongly disagree
   b. Disagree
   c. Neither agree nor disagree
   d. Agree
   e. Strongly agree

Student achievement

The following section will ask you a series of questions regarding your perception of your capabilities and/or hindrances with regards to student achievement. Schmoker (2012) suggested three critical factors which play a role in student achievement: *a coherent curriculum, intensive literacy practices, and well-structured lessons*. Please indicate the level of strength or weakness you believe you have in this area.

15. As an administrator, I am comfortable with using various data to forecast student achievement.
   a. Strongly disagree
   b. Disagree
   c. Neither agree nor disagree
   d. Agree
   e. Strongly agree

16. As an administrator, I understand the processes that need to occur in order to increase student growth where needed.
   a. Strongly disagree
   b. Disagree
   c. Neither agree nor disagree
   d. Agree
e. Strongly agree

17. As an administrator, I am forward thinking through the use of data and observations to anticipate the direction for curriculum based on various data and observations.
   a. Strongly disagree
   b. Disagree
   c. Neither agree nor disagree
   d. Agree
   e. Strongly agree

Stress

The following section will ask you a series of questions regarding your perception of your capabilities and/or hindrances with regards to stress. Moody & Barrett (2009) defined stress as a continuous, exaggerated, and overwhelming sense of urgency, often intertwined with frustration. Please indicate the level of strength or weakness you believe you have in this area.

18. Please rank the following stressors from 1-10 where 1 is greatest stress experienced and 10 is the least amount of stress experienced.

   ______ Time
   ______ Evaluations
   ______ Student behaviors
   ______ Faculty/staff
   ______ Pressure from stakeholders
   ______ State testing
   ______ Student achievement (as measured by standardized tests)
   ______ Lack of area content knowledge and adequate training
   ______ Pressure from central office
   ______ Parents

Respect

The following section will ask you a series of questions regarding your perception of your capabilities and/or hindrances with regards to respect. Beaudoin (2011) stated the importance of respect because it contributes to a context of safety, openness, and reflection; this context is important for the brain to effectively process and develop academic information as opposed to being preoccupied with emotional concerns. Please indicate the level of strength or weakness you believe you have in this area.
19. I am respected by my school community (faculty, staff, parents, students).
   a. Strongly disagree
   b. Disagree
   c. Neither agree nor disagree
   d. Agree
   e. Strongly agree

20. I am respected by my fellow administrative colleagues.
   a. Strongly disagree
   b. Disagree
   c. Neither agree nor disagree
   d. Agree
   e. Strongly agree

21. I am respected by my central office.
   a. Strongly disagree
   b. Disagree
   c. Neither agree nor disagree
   d. Agree
   e. Strongly agree

22. I am respected by society.
   a. Strongly disagree
   b. Disagree
   c. Neither agree nor disagree
   d. Agree
   e. Strongly agree

23. Lack of communication and area content knowledge are significant contributors to being disrespected.
   a. Strongly disagree
   b. Disagree
   c. Neither agree nor disagree
   d. Agree
   e. Strongly agree
IRB APPROVAL – Initial Exempt

September 5, 2013

Erika Bradley

RE: Perceived Challenges of School Administrators Regarding Stress, Respect, Student Achievement, Assessment & Evaluation, and Professional Development
IRB#: c0813.32e
ORSPA#: n/a

On September 4, 2013, an exempt approval was granted in accordance with 45 CFR 46.101(b)(2). It is understood this project will be conducted in full accordance with all applicable sections of the IRB Policies. No continuing review is required. The exempt approval will be reported to the convened board on the next agenda.

- xform New Protocol Submission; External Site Permissions; Email Script; Survey; References; CV

Projects involving Mountain States Health Alliance must also be approved by MSHA following IRB approval prior to initiating the study.

Unanticipated Problems Involving Risks to Subjects or Others must be reported to the IRB (and VA R&D if applicable) within 10 working days.

Proposed changes in approved research cannot be initiated without IRB review and approval. The only exception to this rule is that a change can be made prior to IRB approval when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the research subjects [21 CFR 56.108 (a)(4)]. In such a case, the IRB must be promptly informed of the change following its implementation (within 10 working days) on Form 109 (www.etsu.edu/irb). The IRB will review the change to determine that it is consistent with ensuring the subject’s continued welfare.

Sincerely,
Chris Ayres, Chair
ETSU Campus IRB
APPENDIX C

Survey Participants Introductory Letter

EAST TENNESSEE STATE UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

This Informed Consent will explain about being a participant in a research study. It is important that you read this material carefully and then decide if you wish to be a volunteer.

PURPOSE:

The purpose of this research study is to examine the possible correlations between administrative years experience and administrator teaching backgrounds with five areas of challenges administrators face. Those five areas reviewed in this study are stress, respect, assessment and evaluation, student achievement, and professional development. Participants for this research consist of school system administrators within a 60 mile radius. Only school systems where superintendents have given permission will be studied.

DURATION

Participants in the study will be emailed a link to take a 7-10 minute survey via Survey Monkey the lead researcher has created. There will be approximately 150 participants involved with the study.

PROCEDURES

The procedures, which will involve you as a research subject, include:

You will be emailed a link (http://s.zoomerang.com/s/J66JVXFERikaBradley) to the Survey Monkey by either the lead researcher or your superintendent. Once you have the email, click open the link and follow the steps as identified on the survey. The survey will take 7-10 minutes for you to complete. Once you complete and submit the survey your involvement with the survey will be complete.

ALTERNATIVE PROCEDURES/TREATMENTS

There are no alternative procedures/treatments available to you if you elect not to participate in this study. If you choose not to participate in this study it will not affect you nor your job in any way.

POSSIBLE RISKS/DISCOMFORTS

There are no risks or discomforts associated with this study.
POSSIBLE BENEFITS

Individual participants will not receive any direct benefits.

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION

Participation in this research experiment is voluntary. Participants in this study must be 18 years or older. You may refuse to participate. You can quit at any time. If you quit or refuse to participate, the benefits or treatment to which you are otherwise entitled will not be affected. You may quit by calling (name), whose phone number is (phone number). You will be told immediately if any of the results of the study should reasonably be expected to make you change your mind about staying in the study.

CONTACT FOR QUESTIONS

If you have any questions, problems or research-related medical problems at any time, you may call Erika Bradley at 865-617-2033, or Dr. Virginia Foley at 423-439-4430. You may call the Chairman of the Institutional Review Board at 423/439-6054 for any questions you may have about your rights as a research subject. If you have any questions or concerns about the research and want to talk to someone independent of the research team or you can't reach the study staff, you may call an IRB Coordinator at 423/439-6055 or 423/439/6002.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Every attempt will be made to see that your study results are kept confidential. The results of this study may be published and/or presented at meetings without naming you as a subject. Although your rights and privacy will be maintained, the Secretary of the Department of Health and Human Services, the ETSU/VA IRB, and personnel particular to this research (Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis) have access to the study records. Your survey information will be kept completely confidential according to current legal requirements. They will not be revealed unless required by law, or as noted above.

__________________________________________
SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT
DATE

__________________________________________
PRINTED NAME OF PARTICIPANT
DATE

__________________________________________
SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR
DATE
VITA
ERIKA H. BRADLEY

Personal Data:
Date of Birth: July 17, 1984
Place of Birth: Somerset, Kentucky
Marital Status: Married

Education:
Ed. D., Educational Leadership
East Tennessee State University, Johnson City, TN
December 2013

M. Ed., Milligan College, TN, 2009

B. A., Music Education
Milligan College, Milligan College, TN
2006

Professional Experience:
Doctoral Fellow, East Tennessee State University, Educational
Leadership Policy and Analysis
2011-2013

Teacher, Boones Creek Middle School
Johnson City, TN, 2007-2011

Presentations:
Academic World of International Conferences
May 2013

ETSU ELPA Leadership Symposium
October 2012

Honors and Awards:
Kappa Delta Pi, 2011-2013