

**A Correlational Study of Types of Administrator Mentoring
and the Retention of Secondary School Administrators
in Alabama's River Heritage Region**

by

Robbi C. Flowers

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
Auburn University
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Auburn, Alabama
August 3, 2013

Keywords: administrator mentoring, principals, assistant principals,
secondary school, minorities, retention

Approved by

James E. Witte, Chair, Professor of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology
Maria M. Witte, Associate Professor of Educational Foundations, Leadership and Technology
James V. Wright, Professor of Educational Counseling, Leadership, and Special Education

Abstract

School administration is the single most important contributing factor to the success of an effective school (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2006, 2009). Though principals' and assistant principals' salaries have increased across the United States within the past five years, salaries for secondary principals and assistant principals do not relate to the consumer price index (CPI). In addition, there are instances in which the salary increase is not commensurate with the vast responsibilities associated with the job (Draper, 2008). Grubb, as cited in Guterman (2007), stated, "If principals don't bring schools up to standards, they lose their jobs. As a result, we see a lot of teachers who look at the job of principal and decide it's not worth it. The additional salary is not all that great, and the additional workload *is* all that great" (p. 1). The problem of administrator attrition lies in most school systems not establishing a support system, such as formal mentoring programs, in order to better attract, prepare, and retain school administrators.

The purpose of this correlational study was to determine if types of administrator mentoring relationships played a key factor in retaining secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region. The results also were examined for a possible relationship between types of administrator mentoring and the retention of minority secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region. Moreover, the research focused on the characteristics of effective mentoring relationships involving secondary school administrators in this particular geographical region.

This study examined the following variables: types of administrator mentoring, gender, ethnicity, and retention. There were 47 respondents representing 16 public school systems located in 15 counties throughout the River Heritage Region in Alabama. A statistical significant correlation at the .05 level was found between Black male and White female secondary school principals, their retention, and the types of administrator mentoring. On the other hand, there was not a statistical significant correlation at the .05 level between White male and Black female school administrators, their retention, and the types of administrator mentoring. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and three-way ANOVA statistical procedures were used to determine the findings. The results of this study can be used by school districts in evaluating the benefits of establishing administrator mentoring programs.

Acknowledgments

First, I give all praises and thanks to Jesus Christ. Without Him, this doctoral journey would not have been possible. I express my most sincere thanks to my committee members, Dr. Maria Martinez-Witte and Dr. James Wright, for their assistance and support. I also give many thanks to my University reader, Dr. Theresa McCormick. Special recognition to my major professor and chair of my dissertation committee, Dr. James E. Witte, whose time, dedication, guidance, patience, and wisdom greatly aided my dissertation process. In addition, I truly appreciate Mrs. Altamese Stroud-Hill for helping me with the reformatting process. I am very grateful to Dr. Robert Meadows, Mr. Mason McDade, Jr., and Mr. Tommy Thompson for being instrumental in encouraging me to apply for the doctoral program. Special acknowledgements to my parents, Dr. Chipman and Carrie Jean Flowers; my brother, Chipman Flowers, Jr., Esq.; and my daughter, LeAnna Nicole for all of their love, prayers, and undying support. I am extremely grateful to my other supporters, Dr. Melvin Lowe, III, Dr. Venesia McClaney, Dr. Karen Tatum, Coach Stephen Rogers, Coach Jeffrey Rowell, and Ms. Sheila Samuel. Finally, I am sincerely appreciative to the rest of my family and friends for their prayers and encouragement.

Table of Contents

Abstract.....	ii
Acknowledgements.....	iv
List of Tables	viii
List of Figures.....	ix
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
Background.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	5
Purpose of the Research.....	6
Research Questions.....	6
Significance of the Study	6
Definition of Terms.....	7
Organization of the Study	8
Limitations	9
Assumptions.....	9
Summary	10
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	12
Introduction.....	12
Principal’s Roles	12
Assistant Principal’s Role	20
Women and Minority Representation in School Administration	27

Mentoring.....	33
Theoretical Perspectives of Mentoring	37
Advantages and Disadvantages of Mentoring	47
Summary	51
CHAPTER 3: METHODS.....	52
Introduction.....	52
Research Questions.....	53
Research Design.....	53
Population	54
Instrumentation	55
Data Collection	56
Data Analysis	57
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS.....	59
Introduction.....	59
Research Questions.....	59
Demographics	60
Data Analysis	63
Research Question 1	63
Research Question 2	65
Summary of Major Findings.....	74
CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	75
Introduction.....	75
Summary	75

Conclusions.....	77
Implications.....	77
Recommendations for Future Research.....	79
REFERENCES	81
Appendix A Table 12—Characteristics of Secondary School Principals (1999–2008).....	99
Appendix B Percentage of Children Ages 0–17 in the United States by Race and Hispanic Origin, 1980–2011 and Projected 2012–2050	100
Appendix C Table 13—School Principal Characteristics (1993–2004)	101
Appendix D Table 14—Secondary School Principal Characteristics (1999–2008).....	103
Appendix E Mentoring Survey	104
Appendix F Permission Letter to Administer Surveys	108
Appendix G Information Letter.....	109

List of Tables

Table 1	Comparison of Assumptions and Designs of Pedagogy and Andragogy	40
Table 2	Descriptions of Life-Cycle Phases.....	42
Table 3	Correlation between Administrator Mentoring and Assistant Principal Retention	64
Table 4	Correlation between Administrator Mentoring and Principal Retention.....	65
Table 5	Between-Subject Factors involving Formality, Gender, and Ethnicity of Assistant Principals.....	66
Table 6	Descriptive Statistics involving Formality, Gender, Ethnicity, and Assistant Principal Retention.....	67
Table 7	Output Table indicating No Significant Main Effect or Significant Interaction between Variables.....	69
Table 8	Between-Subjects Factors Table involving Formality, Gender, and Ethnicity of principals.....	70
Table 9	Descriptive Statistics Table involving Formality, Gender, Ethnicity and Principal Retention.....	71
Table 10	Output Table indicating only a Significant Main Effect of Formality on Principal Retention.....	72
Table 11	LSD Post Hoc results showing a Significant Pairwise Comparison between Very Informal and Somewhat Informal Administrator Mentoring	73
Table 12	Characteristics of Secondary School Principals (1999–2008): Administrative Experience, Teaching Experience, Medial Annual Salary, Annual Salary.....	99
Table 13	School Principal Characteristics (1993–2004): Sex, Age, Race/Ethnicity, and Highest Degree Earned	101
Table 14	Secondary School Principal Characteristics (1999–2008): Sex, Sex, Age, Race/Ethnicity, and Highest Degree Earned	103

List of Figures

Figure 1	Map of River Heritage Region in Alabama	8
Figure 2	Sample by Gender.....	60
Figure 3	Sample by Ethnicity	61
Figure 4	Current School Administrative Role.....	61
Figure 5	Assigned School Type	62
Figure 6	Administrators who had Mentors.....	62

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Background

School administration has evolved into a field with many extraneous factors, which may cause those who choose to pursue it as a career to have feelings of isolation, stress, and being overwhelmed. From the time that they obtain their positions, administrators are typically given high expectations to succeed by accomplishing numerous tasks involving school operations with very few resources. They frequently strive to perform more at a higher level than their predecessors did to include, but not necessarily limited to, greater accountability for student achievement, assurance that research-based instructional practices are conducted in all classes, responsibility for the continuous professional development and growth of their instructional staff and themselves, and unconditional satisfaction for all stakeholders of the educational process (Lambert, 1998; Sacken, 1994; Schlecty, 2005). Consequently, as Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, and Cohen (2007) noted, “aspiring and practicing principals are frequently ill-prepared and inadequately supported to take on the challenging work of instructional leadership and school improvement” (p. 4).

The average length of time for school administrators to assume and fulfill their roles is five years or less. In addition, there is the projection that the retirement rates of veteran school administrators will increase (Gajda & Militello, 2008; Michael & Young, 2006; Norton, 2003; Schuman, 2004). Peters (2010) indicated that the United States Department of Labor forecasts 40 percent of the nation’s 93,200 principals are approaching retirement age. As a result, there

will be an increase in principal attrition within the next five to ten years. According to the National Center of Education Statistics (2011), the percentage of secondary public school principals with less than 10 years of experience increased from 64% in 1999 to 72.1% in 2008. Conversely, the percentage of secondary public school principals with 10 or more years of experience decreased from 36% in 1999 to 27.9% in 2008 (see Appendix A). Gajda and Militello (2008) and Quinn (2002) described the looming administrator shortage nationwide as reaching crisis proportions. Top five reasons for principal shortages:

1. Low salary
2. Stress due to too many job responsibilities
3. Stringent accountability laws that link educators' performance with student achievement
4. Lack of support from central office
5. Extraneous factors that work against educators such as students' familial environment, community relations with the school, and public school student enrollment increase (Carrigan, Brown, & Jenkins, 1999; McCreight, 2001; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Shen, Cooley, & Wegenke, 2004; Whitaker & Vogel, 2005).

Given the high demands of school administration, school systems not only find it difficult to retain those who are currently in school administrative positions, but also attracting candidates for vacant administrative positions (Educational Research Service, 2000; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Shen et al., 2004; Whitaker & Vogel, 2005). The demand to fill assistant principal and principal positions is at an all time high because of increased accountability pressures, retirement of current principals, and increased enrollments in many school districts (Malone & Caddell, 2000; Shen et al., 2004; Whitaker & Vogel, 2005). Weingartner (2009), Guterman (2007), and

Villani (2006) cited in their prospective studies a national poll of superintendents conducted by the 2004 National Association of Elementary School Principals. Based upon this poll, 58% of superintendents believed that qualified candidates are discouraged from applying for principal positions because of insufficient compensation for administrative responsibilities; 25% believed that there are too many responsibilities required for the job; and 23% revealed that the stress level for principals is too high. In addition, the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics estimated that although there is a 10% increase in educational administration jobs, qualified candidates are hard to find by school systems, regardless of school quality, incentive pay, location or size of the system (Bucceri, 2006; McKay, 1999; Villani, 2006).

There are researchers (Browne-Ferrigno, 2003; Brunner, 1999; Crow & Glascock, 1995; DeAngelis & O'Connor, 2012; Hart, 1995; Sperandio, 2009) who believe that the issue of attracting and retaining women and minorities is also a contributing factor to principal shortages and availability of candidates for school administration. Though in recent years the number of females in obtaining administrative positions steadily increased, particularly at the elementary level, racial disproportionality continues to be an issue. Reasons for women and minorities not applying for school administrative positions include, but are not necessarily limited to, discrimination as a result of societal and cultural understandings of leadership, the process of socialization into educational organizations, and institutional barriers to women's entry and progress up the leadership ladder. In some instances, women and minorities do not have access to the informal networks compared to their White male counterparts in order to transmit the understanding of administrative culture necessary for the successful socialization and induction of aspiring leaders (Banks, 1995; Sperandio, 2009).

Most school administrators receive their training through formal preparation programs offered by four-year colleges and universities. These programs tend to focus on content knowledge and leadership theories rather than offering the participants ways of actually applying and synthesizing the knowledge taught in real life scenarios. In addition, the preparation courses take place primarily in a classroom-centered environment and occur prior to the participants accepting any type of administrative roles (Crow, 2006; Jackson & Kelly, 2002; Nelson, Colina, & Boone, 2008; Peterson, 2002; Tirozzi, 2001). The composition of administrator preparation programs has received criticism because they are inadequately preparing the participants for actual situations that school administrators encounter daily (Cambron-McCabe & McCarthy, 2005; Elmore, 2006; Hess & Kelly, 2007; Murphy & Vriesenga, 2006; Tirozzi, 2000). For example, Levine (2005) conducted a study of principal preparation programs in the United States. His findings inferred that the quality of most university-based administrator preparation programs varied “ from inadequate to appalling and engaged in a counterproductive ‘race to the bottom,’ in which they compete for students by lowering admission standards, watering down coursework, and offering faster and less demanding degrees” (p. 24). Another finding by researchers showed that administrative preparation programs teaching primarily traditional White male-oriented theories of leadership that do not apply to situations in which women and minorities leaders may face (Beekley, 1999; Eagly, Johannessen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003; Grogan, 1996; Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2011; Sperandio, 2009).

Hansford and Ehrich (2006) suggested that in order to meet the complex and arduous nature of being a school principal, there needs to be a support system that is beyond the college- or university-based preparation program. This need is met by means of mentoring. Villani (2006) cited a 2001 study conducted by the Public Agenda that involved surveying school

principals. When the respondents were asked what was the most valuable in preparing them for their current position, 52 percent of the principals responded that it was mentoring. Among the most popular definitions of the term mentoring are those that focus on the career advancement or professional development of a protégé, or mentee, by someone in a position of authority within the professional context (Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992; Mertz, 2004; Ragins & Kram, 2007). In the context of educational leadership, mentoring is a very powerful technique that gives assistance to new administrators. It is a formal or informal arrangement where experienced practitioners are accessible in providing guidance and support to inexperienced administrators (Daresh, 2004). Villani (2006), Hopkins-Thompson (2003), and Playko and Daresh (1992) further recommended that the primary focus of mentoring programs should be the creation of proactive instructional relationships between mentors and mentees. It is not only important for experienced administrators to be competent in their leadership ability, but also to “make an effort to enable an individual (inexperienced administrator) to become more aware of his own personal values and assumptions regarding the...role of a school administrator” (Playko & Daresh, 1992, pp. 54–55).

Statement of the Problem

School administration is the single most-important contributing factor to the success of an effective school (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2006, 2009). Though principals’ and assistant principals’ salaries have increased across the United States within the past five years, salaries for secondary principals and assistant principals do not relate to the consumer price index (CPI). In addition, there are instances in which the salary increase is not commensurate with the vast responsibilities associated with the job (Draper, 2008). Grubb, as cited in Guterman (2007), stated, “If principals don’t bring schools up to standards, they lose their jobs. As a result, we see

a lot of teachers who look at the job of principal and decide it's not worth it. The additional salary is not all that great, and the additional workload *is* all that great" (p. 1). The problem of administrator attrition lies in most school systems not establishing a support system, such as formal mentoring programs, in order to better attract, prepare, and retain school administrators.

Purpose of the Research

The purpose of this study was to determine if types of administrator mentoring relationships played a key factor in retaining secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region. The results also were examined for a possible relationship between types of administrator mentoring and the retention of minority secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region. Moreover, the research focused on the characteristics of effective mentoring relationships involving secondary school administrators in this particular geographical region.

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between the types of administrator mentoring and retention of secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region?
2. What is the relationship between the types of administrator mentoring and retention of minority secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region?

Significance of the Study

The findings of this study may be used by participating school systems in determining if there is a need to establish a formal administrator mentoring program or a need to improve an existing administrator mentoring program, if applicable. Other school systems may use these study results in order to assess whether or not a formal administrator mentoring program is a potential solution to attracting, preparing, and retaining school administrators. Lastly, novice

school administrators may want to assess the benefits of informal administrator mentoring relationships. Additionally, they may choose an informal administrator mentoring relationship as an option to become acclimated to the field of school administration.

Definition of Terms

Androcentricism: Webber and Bezanson (2008) defined androcentricism as the state of having a viewpoint of the world from a male perspective. This is evident when the ego is formed as male rather than female. Two extreme examples of androcentricism are gynopia (female invisibility) and misogyny (hatred of women).

Induction: Villani (2006) defined induction as “a multiyear process for individuals at the beginning of their careers or new to a role or setting and is designed to enhance professional effectiveness and foster continued growth during a time of intense learning” (p. 18).

Informal mentoring relationship: A mentoring relationship not formally established or developed by a school district or organization. As a result, a mentor is not officially assigned to the mentee; and, he provides support through informal contact and networking (Collin, 2009).

Formal administrator mentoring programs: An official program established by a public school system involving a mentor-mentee relationship of administrators. A colleague or other educational personnel are officially assigned to a mentee in order to give support, which encourages the administrator’s ability to do the job. Formal mentoring relationships often involve scheduled meetings with agendas (Collin, 2009).

Mentee: A mentee is “someone who is an inexperienced or novice administrator who benefits personally and professionally from the mentor-mentee relationship” (Daresh, 2004, pp. 502-503).

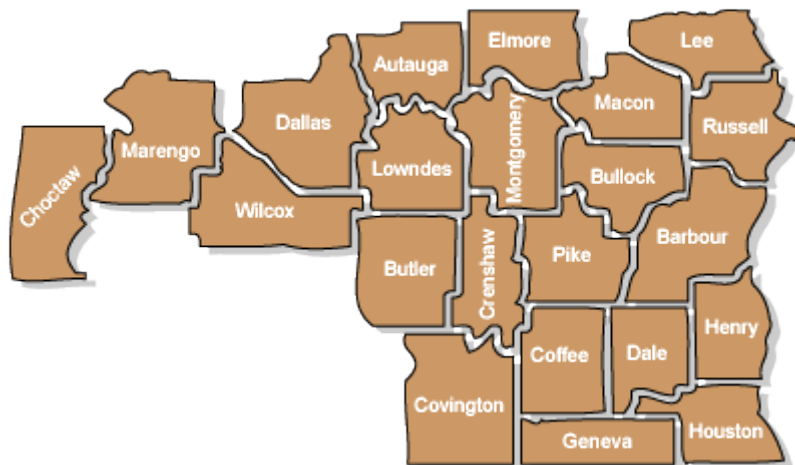
Mentor: Daresh (2004) defined a mentor as an experienced school administrator who works with a new or inexperienced administrator in describing policies, procedures, and normal practices in a school system. A mentor also is able to provide feedback to the novice administrator, which will help him transition into his administrative role and master the necessary leadership skills in order to effectively perform the duties required.

Minority: Anyone who is non-Caucasian.

Retention: A measure of how the school systems are able to retain or keep their administrators after they first accept their positions.

River Heritage Region: According to the Alabama Bureau of Tourism and Travel, this geographical region consists of the counties of: Autauga, Barbour, Bullock, Butler, Choctaw, Coffee, Covington, Crenshaw, Dale, Dallas, Elmore, Geneva, Henry, Houston, Lee, Lowndes, Macon, Marengo, Montgomery, Pike, Russell, and Wilcox.

Secondary School Administrator: An assistant principal or principal who oversees a middle school, junior high, or high school.



Source: www.alabama.gov

Figure 1. Map of River Heritage Region in Alabama

Organization of the Study

The accessible population consists of secondary school administrators who are currently employed at public school systems located in the River Heritage Region of Alabama. Survey instrument, developed through Survey Monkey software, was distributed electronically via email to secondary school principals and assistant principals at participating school systems. This survey instrument asked key questions that will help to identify the types of mentoring relationships used by administrators as well as the characteristics of effective mentoring relationships.

Limitations

1. The results may not be representative of all secondary school administrators in Alabama since the sample was restricted to secondary school administrators in one particular region in Alabama.
2. The results may not be representative of all school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region since the sample was restricted to only secondary school administrators in the particular region.
3. Only secondary school administrators in public schools were surveyed; therefore, the research study was not used to provide assumptions regarding private and parochial schools.
4. Data for this research study was collected from the summer of 2011 through the spring of 2012.
5. The census sample was restricted to one geographical area of interest.

Assumptions

1. The participants of this research study will answer the survey questions honestly.

2. The generalizability of the study is limited to the Alabama River Heritage Region. Therefore, findings cannot be generalized to other regions of Alabama.
3. The study occurred in one area in a Southern state. Findings cannot be generalized to other Southern populations.
4. Administrators' responses to the questions about demographics and mentoring in the secondary school setting will be honest.
5. Respondents will understand the questions asked in the survey instrument.

Summary

In this chapter, various research studies were presented in order to show the significance of this study, which consists of finding a possible correlation between the types of administrator mentoring and the retention of secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Region. In addition, there is significant research about the importance of school administration and their impact on student achievement and the wellness of the school community. School administration, though viewed as being very vital and necessary for success of schools, has a myriad of collective responsibilities that may leave many, especially novices, with a feeling of being overwhelmed, overworked, underpaid, and underappreciated. Therefore, as shown through the research in this chapter, an effective way to prepare novice administrators to handle the demands of their roles is through mentoring.

What new principals learn must be based upon best practice and current research. If not, new principals will form approaches and habits that will be difficult to unlearn or rethink. In addition, if principals make serious mistakes in their first year, they may suffer the fallout for many years to come. (Villani, 2006, pg. 16)

In Chapter 2, there is a review of literature, which discusses the roles of the principals and assistant principals, the challenges of women and minorities face when pursuing school administrative careers, the definition, history, and importance of mentoring, theoretical perspectives of mentoring, and the advantages and disadvantages of mentoring.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The characteristics of K–12 education are fundamentally changing because of today’s societal challenges to the educational community for school reform. Federal and state officials, community leaders, parents, and other stakeholders of the educational process require schools to act more accountably and amenably to their needs and student achievement. As a result, the ultimate concern of a majority of American school systems is for students to experience academic success, whether it is through statutory mandates such as No Child Left Behind (NCLB, 2001) or collaborative efforts made by the stakeholders. In addition, there is the push for school reform, which heavily influences the role of school administration. According to Pont, Nusche, and Moorman (2008), school reforms are based on new perceptions of learning and thinking, advanced pedagogy, totally altered forms of school leadership and organization, and complex relationships with the communities and the public as a whole. Portin, Alejano, Knapp, and Marzolf (2006) proposed that 21st century schools that want to be successful and effective should have leaders whose visions meet the critical educational needs of its students. Throughout history, this overall responsibility of aligning the school’s vision with achieving high student achievement lies in the hands of one individual—the school principal.

Principal’s Roles

Cunningham and Cordeiro (2006, 2009), Villani (2006), and Lunenberg and Ornstein (2000), found that school administrators, especially principals, are the most vital individuals to

the success of any school. Everything that is encompassed in the school is ultimately the responsibility of the principal (Goodman & Berry, 2011). “Policymakers have discovered that teachers, tests, and textbooks can’t produce results without highly effective principals to facilitate, model and lead” (McEwan, 2006, p. xxi). Due to the ever-changing educational perspectives within the last 15 to 20 years, the perceptions and expectations of the school administrators have been altered radically.

The principal’s role during the last century strongly relied on an individual’s managerial expertise. Portin et al. (2006) stated that schools deemed as effective in the mid-20th century were found to be pristine and highly regimented institutions of learning like well-oiled machines that ran smoothly with little problems. The principal’s roles in the 1980s involved school effectiveness and reform; and, each individual school was viewed as the relevant unit of change. In the 1990s, the roles of school principals involved constant changes due in part to a series of federal policy initiatives such as Goals 2000: Educate America Act. Portin et al. (2006) further stated that there was a paradigm shift of school administration, which set in motion the belief that school reform was irrational and unrealistic. With the onset of the new millennium, more emphasis was placed on accountability-driven reforms and free enterprise. Portin et al. (2006) disclosed that this accountability focus forced principals and other school leaders to have greater accountability to the public in terms of student performance through high stakes testing. In order to achieve this, school leaders must use whatever type of resources to ensure that student achievement is central to their schools’ visions.

The nature of today’s school administration is that of principals and assistant principals typically becoming the focal point for school decision making and problem solving (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2006, 2009). In addition, while the principal’s traditional roles and

responsibilities of ensuring a safe environment, managing the budget, and maintaining discipline are still required, there are additional demands constantly being assigned to principals because of stringent accountability mandates passed. A major premise of these new demands is for principals to focus more on instructional leadership. This includes “development and evaluations of curriculum and instruction, use of instructional time, disaggregation of data, analyzing classroom practices, faculty and staff development, and curriculum alignment with standards” (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2006, pg. 136). Ubben, Hughes, and Norris (2001) also substantiated the perception of the principal as no longer in line with the traditional view of a manager.

Today’s school principals have been charged with the task of shaping their schools to become outstanding beacons of productive learning. They are challenged to clarify their own values, beliefs, and positions and to engage proactively with others in the redesign and improvement of their schools (pg. 3).

Hartley (2009) helped to further validate the claims of the principal being an instructional leader rather than a mere school manager. He presented several key studies conducted by educational researchers involving the actual role principals must take in order for schools to be effective. He noted that in today’s schools, the principal is viewed as the number one instructional leader and is held accountable by many stakeholders of the educational process, such as the superintendent, the school board, and the parents. The emphasis for principals in the past decade, especially since the implementation of the No Child Left Behind is geared toward high student achievement. This, in turn, transforms the principal’s role into an instructional leader rather than a building manager. One study by Goertz and Duffy (2001) reported that every state has responded to NCLB by implementing some type of assessment and accountability,

which falls on the principal. Another study by Hess (2003) found that the traditional responsibilities of the principal have not disappeared, but the focus is now on using data and research to drive instructional decisions. Lastly, McGuire (2002) also supported the viewpoint of the principal as instructional leader through a yearlong study of school administrators in Michigan. Her findings showed the position of a principal in Michigan has expanded into nine layers of duties: curriculum; grant writing; school law; marketing and public relations; diplomacy with parents and community; security and safety; special education; education administration; and building management. Curriculum is the top layer, which requires the most attention and expertise by the principal, versus building management, which requires less attention and expertise (Hartley, 2009).

The internal struggle today's principal faces between management-related tasks and leadership initiatives is inevitable in most cases. This challenge can be draining when it comes to the principal's emotional and physical energies. This internal struggle is exacerbated with not only the rigidity of accountability, but also multicultural awareness and understanding, depleting financial resources, special education, and moral values. "A day in the life of principals requires juggling many hats" (Gardner, 2008, p. 34).

Principals are placed on alert more than their predecessors are with emails, cell phones, blogs, and pagers to a growing list of constituents. Most principals also spend a considerable amount of time on reading, writing, and responding to documentation. External conflicts such as role conflict, conflicting expectations, autonomy, and mandates also increase; however, there are many instances in which support and needed assistance decrease (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2006, 2009). Goodman and Berry (2011) noted that the job of the principal could be a lonely one at times. For some principals who have been promoted through the ranks of a school, or

those who believe they have established a positive rapport with their staff, the principals' perception of receiving full support may differ from actual reality. "The stark reality is that as close as principals may feel to their assistant principals or other staff members, they are still regarded as the boss..." (p. 17).

There also is a disconnect between the principal's changing roles and the focus of his daily attention. School administrators often reported a lack of adequate time to accomplish all tasks that need to be completed (Hartley, 2009; Kersten & Israel, 2005). They are often met by an environment characterized by ambiguity, competing stakeholder demands, and political pressures from both within and outside the organization (Goodman & Berry, 2011; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). Though in recent years the principal's role has transformed into instructional leadership, there has been an attrition of authority. Considering the nature of the school administrator's job, stress is becoming the unfortunate and unavoidable part of the job (Lunenberg & Ornstein, 2000; Queen & Schumacher, 2006). In most cases, it is the principal who undertakes the encumbrances of the school and is considered the face of and spokesperson for the school. From dealing with central office demands to telling a staff member that his position has been eliminated due budget cuts, the principal's work is ongoing, and never ending (Goodman & Berry, 2011).

According to Queen and Schumacher (2006), principals throughout the United States find school administration more than a compendium of administrative skills. Shoho and Barnett (2010) affirmed this notion by stating there are various reasons for the waning interest in school principalship to include, but not necessarily limited to, low salaries with increased responsibilities, an arduous workload, and surmountable external pressure of accountability. American societal expectations for its schools to solve problems of productivity, to recognize

ethnic diversity, and to make social cohesion and inclusion force principals to take on massive social reforms (Shoho, Barnett, & Tooms, 2010; Stevenson, 2006; Yerkes & Guaglianone, 1998). Along with insufficient time to complete multiple tasks on a daily basis, principals work in a culture that combines constant anxiety and stress. Queen and Schumacher (2006) called this phenomenon, principal burnout. Almost 75% of today's principals experience stress-related problems, which adversely affects their physical, emotional, and mental health. Symptoms associated with stress include fatigue, weakness, lack of energy, irritability, heartburn, headache, trouble sleeping, sexual dysfunction, and depression.

There are some perks with accepting the school principal's position. Villani (2006) said, "Some of the very factors that make the principalship challenging also provide some of the rewards" (p. 9). She listed nine possible rewards for an educator aspiring to become a principal:

1. To make a difference
2. To make an impact on a large number of people
3. To establish a safe learning environment
4. To support teachers
5. To ensure all students are learning and accomplishing their goals
6. To build or reinforce a professional learning community
7. To collaborate with many constituencies toward a common goal or vision
8. To be in a position that is more proactive in the decision-making process
9. To find a better way for schools to be successful

Along with the perks of being a school principal, Villani (2006) mentioned challenges that may present themselves to a novice principal. "New principals may unexpectedly encounter

experiences for which they are unprepared, regardless of their teaching experience and administrative leadership preparation” (p. 10).

1. Possibility of feeling isolation from school staff and other school administrators
2. Feeling or perception of being incompetent to handle the role
3. Difficulty of setting priorities during daily school operations
4. Constraints of confidentiality
5. Handling of technical and logistics problems in order to ensure that schools are run smoothly and properly
6. Balancing legal and moral responsibilities versus personal convictions or beliefs
7. Understanding school and district culture and history
8. Heightened visibility being a new school administrator
9. Feeling as if he is a middle manager between the school and Central Office (pp. 10–13).

Shoho, Barnett, and Tooms (2010), and Cranston (2007), cited in Beach and Keiser (2011), found through their research studies that there are cases in which school administrators obtain career satisfaction through their successes in empowering their faculty and staff, having high student achievement, socializing themselves in their communities, and surpassing their visions in spite of the demands placed on them. Shoho et al. (2010), through an empirical qualitative study of 62 new principals, found that teachers were inspired by various reasons to seek the school principal position. The three main reasons given:

1. Wanted to take on challenges that were beyond the classroom such as being more involved in local school policy,
2. Have more of an influence on students as a principal than as a teacher,

3. Peers felt confident in their leadership abilities and skills (pp. 563–564).

Furthermore, Shoho et al.(2010), Woodruff and Kowalski (2010), and Barnett and McCormick (2003) found that for those aspirants who spent more time serving as assistant principals, they were able to identify and handle problems effectively. If they worked with veteran principals who were positive role models and treated them as equals, then they had a better understanding of the job and developed more self-confidence as new principals.

Cranston (2007) conducted a research study that examined aspirants' views regarding the position of school principal. The aspirants were school leaders who were at a possible transition point of being principals, e.g. teacher leaders, assistant principals. Through the administration of a comprehensive questionnaire, *Aspirant Principal Questionnaire (APQ)*, the data collected showed four reasons why aspirants wanted to become principals:

1. Having the capacity to influence the lives and learning of young people
2. Having the capability to have a more strategic influence on education inside and outside of the school setting
3. Being afforded the opportunity to work with diverse individuals and groups in the school and the surrounding community
4. Breaking the monotony of doing the same job through a promotion (pp. 114–120).

Despite the changing roles of principals, the principal cannot overlook the pillar of educational success—professional growth. The principal must ensure that teachers receive the nurturing needed for educational success. Professional growth is paramount in the field of education for retention (Angelle, 2002). Angelle (2002) conducted a study, which compared effective schools with less effective schools as well as focused on the induction of new teachers. She found that an effective induction program for new teachers gives them the socialization to

become veteran teachers. In addition, the principal plays a vital role in the socialization process. She also noted that simply assigning mentors to new teachers is not enough.

The expectations and roles of school principals have changed since the 20th century. Although traditional roles such as maintaining a safe and conducive learning environment, meeting staff and student needs, and adhering to board policies still exist, the dynamic change of today's schools and push for school reform have forced principals to redefine roles that are more instructionally based (Cunningham and Cordeiro, 2006). Not only is the principal considered a vital part of any school organization, but also the assistant principal plays a key role. "Principals are in desperate need of more assistant principals if they are to meet the expanded expectation of their role" (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2006, p. 148).

Assistant Principal's Role

A review of the literature reveals a dearth of research studies on the role of the assistant principal. The literature clearly substantiates the fact the assistant principal's roles have shifted over time as a result of the increasing demands being placed on the school principal. According to Marshall and Hooley (2006), the creation of the assistant principal position occurred in secondary schools as a response to the increasing need of managing large enrollments in consolidated schools. "The assistant principalship is the *beginning* of a career socialization process. Principals and superintendents are the *outcome* of this process" (Marshall & Hooley, 2006, p. viii). Glanz (2004) gave a historical perspective of the emergence of the assistant principalship in his research study. Primarily, decentralized district boards controlled schools in the early 19th century. Neither superintendents nor principals had any type of school authority. Because of the push by educational reformers to centralize school systems during the late 19th century, superintendents received total control of the schools. On the contrary, school principals

were merely considered as head teachers with no administrative authority. The student population as well as the number of teachers increased, particularly in the secondary schools, throughout the early 20th century. This caused school systems to become more complex; and, as a result, superintendents delegated additional control of the schools to principals. Yet, principals assisted teachers with classroom instruction more than accomplishing administrative tasks.

Glanz (2004) further stated between the 1920s and 1930s, the number of school principals increased. Additionally, principals were given more administrative tasks and delegated instructional tasks to two types of supervisors—special supervisors and general supervisors. Special supervisors were female lead teachers who helped less experienced teachers with instructional practices. General supervisors were male lead teachers who helped in the subjects of math and science and assisted the principal with a few administrative roles. It was not until after the 1930s when the special supervisory roles were eliminated and the general supervisory position emerged into the position of assistant principal. The title of assistant principal was coined because the general supervisor was the principal's primary assistant.

As said by Cunningham and Cordeiro (2006), the traditional roles of assistant principals prior to the new millennium were centered on delegated administrative tasks, e.g. student discipline, buses, attendance, schedules, and other non-instructional roles. With the dynamics of today's schools constantly shifting, the roles of the principalship require more power sharing, which in turns require the expansion and improvement of the roles of assistant principalship. "Principals listed the assistant principalship role as one of their most valuable experiences in preparing for the responsibilities of the principalship" (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2006, p. 148). According to Marshall and Hooley (2006), when discussing the assistant principalship in present day schools, it means looking at the leadership training, school culture and climate, job roles and

responsibilities, organizational policies and structure, and daily challenges that schools encompass. In essence, the assistant principal may have the same responsibilities as the principal depending on how the principal decides to delegate the school administrative roles (Hartley, 2009). Marshall and Hooley (2006) also noted though each school system have its own unique job description of this position, it is common to see a majority of assistant principals nationwide handling situations involving school management, student activities and services, community relations, personnel, and curriculum and instruction. The assistant principal normally works with the principal in ensuring that the principal's vision of the school is recognized. This may entail the assistant principal to adopt or adapt to the principal's leadership style and philosophies. As said by Goodman and Berry (2011), the assistant principal may be more accessible to teachers and other staff members to answer questions concerning the principal's goals and visions. As a result, the principal will be free to concentrate on other pressing issues competing for his time.

Marshall and Hooley (2006) further pointed out the assistant principalship has a significant role in the educational process because of five reasons. First, it is an entry-level position for an educator to begin a school administrative career, which helps to receive professional development through observation and learning from the principal. Second, assistant principals uphold the standards and enforce the rules of the established school culture. Third, they are viewed as conflict resolvers or mediators. As a result, they help to regulate federal, state, and local mandates. Fourth, they face dilemmas of school systems on a daily basis. "Their day is a microcosm representing the array of issues that arise when children are being society inside the schools' walls" (p. 3). Finally, due to the demand for evaluating and monitoring of classroom teachers, assistant principals may play a major role in the curriculum and instruction of students. Goodman and Berry (2011), Hartley (2009), Glanz (2004) and Daresh (2004)

emphasized that the most pertinent role the assistant principal undertakes is that of instructional leader. Educational issues such as high stakes testing, data-driven decision-making, national standards, and curriculum development and implementation force assistant principals to lead in pushing for advancement and ensuring student progress. They may have to collaborate with other school leaders and teachers in order to access and analyze data involving student performance. “Great schools have to begin with great instructional leadership and this is where the assistant principal comes into the picture” (Hartley, 2009, p. 101).

There is an increase of job responsibilities for assistant principals due to principals who themselves acquire more tasks and accountabilities as a response to the call for educational changes (Kwan & Walker, 2008). Along with the increased responsibilities, Marshall and Hooley (2006), Glanz (2004) and Daresh (2004) indicated that there may exist some ambiguity and contradictions in terms of the assistant principalship. The term role ambiguity is defined as “the assistant principal’s roles and duties including many gray areas—ill-defined, inconsistent, and at times incoherent responsibilities, roles, and resources” (Marshall & Hooley, 2006, p. 7). There is a difference between the formal job expectations compared to what tasks are actually carried out by the assistant principal. Marshall and Hooley (2006) cited that Mertz (2004) conducted a study which found school principals would delineate tasks to assistant principals without much planning and thought most of the time. Consequently, this made assistant principals think that their tasks were assigned more in an impromptu manner than a systematic style. Case in point, some principals may have the tendency to assign a task to the first assistant principal whom he would see rather than to the one who is capable of completing it.

Goodman and Berry (2011) described a common sense approach for effective utilization of multiple assistant principals. Their approach entailed using the skill set of each individuals

and assign roles commensurate with the strengths of the individual. For example, a former football coach would be the type of assistant principal who handle disciplinary issues. The rationale is that the coach normally possesses a no nonsense attitude. On the other hand, a former departmental chair of the English department may be assigned issues dealing with curriculum and instruction such as conducting professional development workshops and teacher evaluations. The rationale is that this individual would be knowledgeable and competent being an instructional leader, especially having to be familiar with the different aspects of curriculum being an English department chair.

Goodman and Berry (2011) noted that the drawback of using the skill-set approach is the possible “stagnation of assistant principals in their position, single-dimensional leadership, and a lack of professional growth” (p. 6). Sometimes, when an assistant principal leaves, his replacement assumes the same duties, which disregards expertise. Goodman and Berry (2011) further stated that this approach is sometimes used when a principal does not want to disrupt the old administrative team. In addition, it is the most expedient. However, it does not always capitalize on the expertise of the entire team, which negates the skill-set concept. On the contrary, a principal may add a new member of the administrative team as an opportunity to change the team’s dynamics and bring a new mindset to the team.

Daresh (2004) identified it is not uncommon to find assistant principals having a more reactive work life than their predecessors. Because of this role ambiguity, Marshall and Hooley (2006) pointed out that some assistant principals may experience job dissatisfaction, emotional problems, a feeling of uselessness, and low self-esteem. Moore (2009) suggested that the role of the assistant principal should be standardized at least within a given school district. The expectations of assistant principals should be clearly defined and expressed in quantifiable terms.

She also recommended that uniformity within the district would decrease role ambiguity and increase productivity. Not only is role ambiguity a concern being an assistant principal, but also role conflict should be considered. Marshall and Hooley (2006), Glanz (2004), and Daresh (2004) found in their studies that the some roles of assistant principals contradict each other. For example, an assistant principal may be asked by a teacher to assist with an instructional practice that is difficult for students to understand. The following week, the assistant principal is asked by the principal to reprimand the same teacher for not following school policy. As a result, the once collegial and professional relationship between the assistant principal and teacher may be severed due to the reprimand. Another instance is when the assistant principal is assigned the task of primarily disciplining students, but he does not have the time to create innovative ways to help teachers with increasing student achievement.

Daresh (2004) stated that these role conflicts or contradictions might lead to a lack of appreciation for the work that the assistant principal may do. Marshall and Hooley (2006) added that role contradictions may make assistant principals feel overwhelmed by all of the administrative tasks and other projects or initiatives they take on. Finally, this role overload may leave little time and energy for personal time and professional development outside of school that some assistant principals value and yearn. “It is not uncommon for an assistant principal to look around and feel like they have the heaviest workload among the members of the administrative team” (Goodman & Berry, 2011, p. 73).

“The assistant principalship should be viewed as a unique and valuable career position in its own right” (Glanz, 2004, p. 184). Marshall and Hooley (2006) and Glanz (2004) examined job satisfaction and career incentives for assistant principalship through their studies. They

found that there were three primary factors, which motivate an educator to pursue the assistant principal position: salary, opportunity for advancement, and enhancement of leadership skills.

The first motivational factor of educators interested in the assistant principalship is compensation, which is higher than the average classroom teacher salary. The Educational Research Service conducted a study during the 2007–2008 school year. The findings showed the following for the average salaries of U.S. public school assistant principals: \$79,391 for senior high assistant principals, \$76,053 for junior high/middle school assistant principals, and \$71,192 for elementary school assistant principals. On the contrary, the Education Research Service reported that the median annual wages of U.S. public school teachers during the same school year ranged from \$47,100 to \$51,180 (Bureau Labor of Statistics, 2011).

Another motivator, which is the most common, is the notion of the assistant principalship laying the foundation for a career in school administration. Marshall and Hooley (2006) wrote that the common career route for most school administrators is teacher, curriculum specialist, assistant principal, school principal, assistant superintendent, and superintendent. In some instances, it may not always be in that particular order of succession. Marshall and Hooley (2006) also wrote that career success in school administration is “measured by attainment of higher power, status, pay, and higher administration position in the hierarchy” (p. 10). Glanz (2004) reiterated that if an assistant principal seeks the principalship or other hierarchal positions, it is critical that assistant principals are assigned duties and responsibilities, which better prepares them for the higher positions.

The third motivational factor that one may consider to become an assistant principal is having opportunities to be able to hone leadership skills and establish rapport with supervisors. When assistant principals complete tasks, assignments, or projects, there is the possibility that

their leadership and other administrative skills are not only augmented, but also exposed to those in higher positions. As a result, according to Marshall and Hooley (2006), they may receive more motivation to be innovative, to gain self-confidence and job satisfaction, to be recognized by their staff and supervisors, and to be offered promotions.

Lindle and Mawhinney (2003), as cited in Cunningham and Cordeiro (2006), wrote that school administrators find themselves “in a contentious arena and vie for ways of balancing, directing, controlling, manipulating, managing, and surviving their edgy environments” (p. 140). The roles of 21st century school administrators, particularly principals and assistant principals, should improve and increase in order to meet the augmenting demands of educational reforms. With the shifting roles of school administrators, there also are changes in individuals selected for these positions. This change is gradual, but inevitable due to the student populations in the public schools being very diverse in all aspects, from socioeconomics to race. School administrators in today’s schools may face complex political, socioeconomic, and pedagogical issues in spite of gender and ethnicity (Sperandio, 2009). Therefore, Marshall and Hooley (2006) emphasized that allowing women and minorities to obtain school administrative positions will provide role models for students, expand the meaning of equitable leadership, and maximize the pool of aspiring school leaders.

Women and Minority Representation in School Administration

“Leadership that represents the cultural and ethnic groups that make up the United States society is important for all students because the world students will join as adults is richly diverse” (Sanchez, Thornton, & Usinger, 2009, p. 1). The Forum on Child and Family Statistics (2011) indicated that with the number of children, ages 0–17, living in the United States increasing, the racial and ethnic composition of the children population is changing. According

to the 2010 census, 74.2 million children lived in the United States. This is 1.9 million more than what was reported in the 2000 census. The 2010 census reported that 54% of American children were White, non-Hispanic; 23% were Hispanic; 14% were Black; 4% were Asian; and 5% were categorized as all other races. The ethnic group with the highest percentage growth rate of children was Hispanic with an increase from 9% in 1980 to 23% in 2010 (see Appendix B). The United States Department of Education (2008) projected that minority public school enrollment will increase to 64% by 2100 (Haar & Robicheau, 2008; Usdan, McCloud, Podomostko, & Cuban, 2001)

Henze, Norte, Sather, Walker, and Katz (2002), as cited in Haar and Robicheau (2008), stated that schools are not only institutions of learning, but also institutions of socializing. The demographics of American schools reflect the social patterns of the American society; and in most instances, they reflect the structural inequities based on race, class, religion, etc. As American society continues to have a more diverse population, the students in public schools reflect that diversity, but public school administration does not.

Haar and Robicheau (2008), Marshall and Hooley (2006), and Murtadha and Watts (2005) found in their prospective studies that women and minorities have been historically marginalized in the school administrative arena. Haar and Robicheau (2008) conducted a study involving the lack of minority leaders in Minnesota school districts. Although the student populations comprised of 50% or more of students from diverse backgrounds, the findings showed that the number of minority school administrators was extremely low. Murtadha and Watts (2005) emphasized that prior to the 1960s, there were opportunities for African-Americans, particularly males, to obtain administrative positions in primarily segregated schools that served African-American student populations. Moreover, Black women were hired mostly

for teaching positions. However, in most predominantly White public schools prior to the 1960s, White males were considered for administrative positions; and, White women were hired mostly for teaching positions.

Marshall and Hooley (2006) revealed that when desegregation mandates were passed and economic constraints were faced by some public schools, minorities who held administrative jobs in the 1960s were either fired or demoted when schools were consolidated. In addition, women were still only deemed necessary in the classrooms instead of in administration. President Lyndon B. Johnson established affirmative action policies in the late 1960s. Yet, women and minorities were still not being considered for school administrative positions as often as White males were. Some minorities served in administrative capacities that only allowed them to supervise minority teachers and certain special projects. However, they did not have any decision making power nor given preparation for administrative advancement (Brown, 2005; Coursen, 1989; Marshall & Hooley, 2006; Murtadha & Watts, 2005).

The National Center of Education Statistics (2011) reported the demographics of school principals from 1993–2008. Table 13 shows from 1993 to 2004, the percentage of female secondary public school principals in the United States increased from 13.8% to 26%, the percentage of Black secondary public school principals increased from 7.3% to 9.4%, and the percentage of secondary public school principals who were non-Caucasian and not of African descent (Hispanic, Asian, Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaska Native) increased from 4.5% to 5.3%. Conversely, the percentage of White secondary school principals (74% during 2003-04) and the percentage of male secondary school principals (84.8% during 2003–2004) were substantially higher than their female and minority counterparts combined (see Appendix C). Table 14 indicates that from 1999–2008, the percentage of female secondary public school

principals increased from 21.8% to 28.5%, the percentage of Black secondary public schools principals increased from 8.4% to 9.8%, and the percentage of secondary public school principals who were non-Caucasian and not of African descent (Hispanic, Asian, Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaska Native) decreased from 5.8% to 5%. In contrast, the percentage of White secondary school principals (84.1% during 2007–2008) and male secondary school principals (71.5% during 2007–2008) were significantly higher than their female and minority counterparts combined (see Appendix D).

Murtadha et al. (2005) stressed as more African-American men and women enter the field of administration, the lack of interest in research studies focusing on the leadership of marginalized groups is beginning to decrease. Additionally, “although many women have entered the ranks of educational administration within the last few decades, the participation of minority women in educational leadership remains minimal” (Jones & Montenegro, 1982; Mendez-Morse, 2004; Montenegro, 1993; Ortiz, 2000).

Marshall and Hooley (2006) suggested that one reason women and minority representation is not high in school administration is due to the possibility of special risks. Women and minority may find it hard to establish a rapport with teachers due to their positions and may be alienated by other administrators due to lack of respect. Wynn (2003), cited in Marshall and Hooley (2006), proposed that women and minorities did not desire to become administrators because of the lack of focus on instructional matters and the lack of time spent with their families, who have an integral part in their lives. Walker and Dimmock (2000) advised, “It is acknowledged that the field of educational leadership and management has developed along ethnocentric lines, heavily dominated by Anglo-American paradigms and theories” (p. 144) Educational administrative theories are not only known to be Anglo-American

dominated, but also male-dominated. Bush (2003) added, “The androcentricity of educational management is evident in the United States where school administration evolved into a mainly female occupation of teaching” (p. 29).

Through their prospective research studies, Sperandio (2010), Lumby and Morrison (2010), Eagly and Carli (2009), and Derrington and Sharratt (2009) examined the possible barriers that women and minorities still faced today when making attempts to obtain school administrative positions. Eagly and Carli (2009) said, “...the glass ceiling has been replaced by complex and circuitous obstacles to high-level leadership roles” (p. 578). Based upon each of the research study results, the researchers concluded that women and minorities have made strides in terms of representation in educational leadership within the last few decades. Nevertheless, there are still instances in which workplace equality with their White male counterparts have not been reached. Sperandio (2010) elaborated that cultural norms as well as institutional structures such as promotional procedures and job requirements may have adverse influences on women and minorities’ progress to school leadership. Lumby and Coleman (2007), Gillborn (2005), Rusch (2004), and Tallerico (2000), cited in Lumby and Morrison (2010), stated, “There is general agreement that the profile of educational leaders and the enactment of leadership is exclusive rather than inclusive, and that the systems which maintain this position are multiple, complex, structural and persistent” (p. 5).

The following key barriers, either self-imposed or institutionalized, were repeatedly mentioned in the study findings of Sperandio (2010), Lumby and Morrison (2010), Eagly and Carli (2009), and Derrington and Sharratt (2009):

1. Perception of leadership role as being nontraditional
2. Lack of role models, mentors, or sponsors

3. Lack of peer acceptance
4. Self and family constraints
5. Exclusion from informal networks and informational resources
6. Subjection to subtle or overt acts of racism and sexism
7. Subordinates challenging authority
8. Subjection to higher performance level requirements compared to their White male counterparts
9. Racial and gender stereotyping associated with weak job performance
10. Restrictions placed on decision-making responsibilities
11. Limited advancement opportunities

Throughout American history, women and minorities had been discriminated against in their pursuit of school administrative positions. Usdan et al. (2001) noted,

Clearly, schools will need to have to create programs and systems responsive to the special needs of a diverse, multi ethnic student body. Effective leadership in a contemporary multi cultural environment will require different understanding of more complex issues compared to 30 years ago. (Haar & Robicheau, 2008, p. 7)

This discrimination is a result of, according to Sperandio (2009), societal and cultural norms of leadership, socialization in schools, and institutional barriers. Marshall and Hooley (2006) stressed that not only do women and minorities must learn how to deal with the challenges associated with school administration, but also as aspiring school leaders, they should receive some type of leadership preparation, regardless of sex or ethnicity. In educational administration literature, there is a consistent recommendation for aspiring school leaders to have mentoring relationships (Coleman & Campbell-Stephens, 2010; Daresh, 2004; Haar & Robicheau, 2008;

Marshall & Hooley, 2006; Villani, 2006). “The benefits of a mentoring relationship familiar to and practiced by men in senior or leadership positions are assumed to be transferable to women and minorities...” (Mendez-Morse, 2004, p. 562).

Mentoring

By definition, a mentor is one who provides emotional and career support and can serve as a role model (Ensher & Murphy, 2011). Daresh (2004) noted that the concept of mentoring has existed for a long time; however, as professions become more complex, the practice of mentoring has gained notoriety. Mentoring can be beneficial to the mentor and mentee, as well as the organization (Ensher & Murphy, 2011). “Almost anyone can learn the craft of administration, but only the most excellent principals and assistant principals master the art of administration...the path to excellence is as unique as the individuals who pursue it...” (Goodman & Berry, 2011, pg. 145). Barth, cited in Villani (2006), commented, “A new principal often gets ‘a title, an office, responsibility, accountability, and obligations. Nothing more...’ [School officials often say] You were hired for the school because, among hundreds of qualified applicants, we felt you could do the job. Now do it!” (p. 16). Mentoring is an approach that supports novice school administrators and is frequently proposed by researchers since its advent to the educational field in mid-1980 (Crow & Matthews, 1998; Daresh, 2004). In the areas of the private corporate sector, teacher education, and graduate education, numerous research studies concerning mentoring programs have been widespread and found to be effective in enhancing professional development (Alsbury & Hackmann, 2006; Brause, 2002; Daresh, 1995; Jonson, 2002; Megginson & Clutterback, 1995; McCann & Radford, 1993; Wilkin, 1992; Zimpher & Rieger, 1988). On the contrary, Alsbury and Hackmann (2006) noted research focusing on the effectiveness of administrative mentoring programs is minimal, yet is fairly new

to the educational field. Mentoring programs help to foster relationships between experienced administrators with those who are not and curb the inequities of women and minorities who are falling behind (Malone, 2001). Barth, cited in Villani (2006), stated, “The more enduring gift mentoring gives the new principal is an immediate opportunity, to reveal him- or herself to the school community as an insatiable learner” (p. xiii)

According to *Citizenship in Action and Leadership Theory and Application* (2005), the key ingredients to any effective mentoring relationship are genuine respect and trust that the mentor and mentee have for each other. The functions identified with mentoring are listening, coaching education, and role modeling. Upon careful examination of these functions, one can discern that they are germane to the successful outcome of a mentoring relationship. Sometimes, one needs another to listen to his point of view and perhaps to offer different alternatives to the problem. *Citizenship in Action and Leadership Theory and Application* (2005) further stated that when one thinks about coaching, “game plan” comes to mind. The same holds true for a mentoring relationship; a plan for success is imperative. There must be feedback in process.

Ehrich, Hansford, and Tennent (2004) stated, “Throughout history, mentors have played a significant role in teaching, inducting, and developing the skills and talents of others.” (p. 519) According to *Citizenship in Action and Leadership Theory and Application* (2005), there are certain qualities of a good and successful mentor:

1. Job knowledge; being flexible and open-minded
2. Knowledge and usage of effective communication skills such as
 - a. Ability to listen and accept different viewpoints
 - b. Ability to have empathy for another person’s struggle

3. Apply effective leadership skills such as decision making, problem solving, and goal setting; possess the ability to see solution, opportunities, and barriers
4. Have a personal commitment to work with other people; being available and supportive when needed
5. Respect for individuals; being honest, patient, trustworthy, and having a sincere and caring attitude (p. 393).

One key factor of effective mentoring programs is how the mentoring plan is developed. Barth, as cited in Villani (2006), emphasizes that mentoring “is a very difficult and sophisticated art form to perform well” (p. xiii). Mentoring is a tool that gives assistance to new administrators and can be paramount to their success (Alsbury & Hackman, 2006; Barth, 2003; Daresh, 2004; Daresh & Laplant, 1985; Thody, 1993). It is an informal or formal arrangement where experienced practitioners are accessible in providing guidance and support to inexperienced administrators (Ashburn, Mann, & Purdue, 1987). It is recommended for the primary focus of formal mentoring programs to be the creation of proactive instructional relationships between mentors and mentees (Crow & Matthews, 1998; Daresh, 2004). Villani (2006) and Ehrich, Hansford, and Tennent (2004) recommended that effective formal mentoring programs have the following design outline with 10 key components for school districts to consider:

1. Orientation and Entry
2. Mentor Selection and Matching
3. Mentor Selection Criteria
4. Mentor Training
5. Mentors’ Responsibilities
6. New Administrators’ Responsibilities

7. Other Principals (Non-mentors) Responsibilities:
8. District Responsibilities
9. A Fair Climate for Growth
10. Program Evaluation

Wasden (1988), cited in Villani (2006), defined the mentor in relation to school administration as “a master at providing opportunities for the growth of others, by identifying situations and events which contribute knowledge and experience for life of the steward” (p. 17). Villani (2006) defined mentors as those who “need to be experienced and effective colleagues who are trained and continually coached to promote new principals’ heightened job performance and self-reflection” (p. 19). Daresh (2004) and Peel, Wallace, Buckner, Wrenn, and Evans (1998) proposed that effective formal mentoring relationships have mentors who challenge their mentees to facilitate their own learning, assume role responsibilities, and motivate critical thinking. Another suggested objective of mentoring is for mentors to facilitate the transition of their mentees from the stage of dependency and inexperience in terms of problem solving to one of autonomy and expertise (Barnett, 1995). Mentors should not wait for mentees to approach them and vice versa. Constant communication between both parties should be encouraged throughout the entire mentoring relationship. In other words, it should be mutually enhancing.

Careful planning of how the mentors and mentees are paired is another essential factor to the success of mentoring programs. Ideal formal arrangements would involve one-to-one matching, taking into consideration variables such as professional goals, interpersonal styles, and learning needs. Nevertheless, in reality, most mentoring programs are formed in compliance with state mandates; and, relationships are developed as “marriages of convenience” rather than naturally developed ones (Daresh, 2004, p. 503). Tools, such as the Mentor Identification

Instrument and the Hauberman Urban Principal Selection Interview, are created to identify individuals who are skilled and trained to act as mentors. School systems can avoid unproductive mentor-mentee assignments by carefully selecting the most qualified mentors (Geismar, Morris, & Lieberman, 2000). Some school systems allow the mentees to pair with mentors who they feel would be the good match for them and have their best interest in mind.

The final key component to effective mentoring programs is the development of reflective practice. Reflective questioning, instead of authoritarian advising, “puts mentors where they need to be, out of the action, looking on, encouraging, rather than taking over and doing the work for the learner” (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 1995, p. 28). Barnett (1995) also urged mentors to use cognitive coaching techniques, which would make reflection a mechanism for mentee growth.

Thus far, the topic of formal mentoring has been discussed. There are instances whereby an informal mentoring relationship is developed. Zachary (2011) and Collin (2009) described an informal mentoring relationship as one that happens by chance, on an as needed basis, and unstructured. There may or may not be any affiliation with the mentor’s or mentee’s job. Zachary (2011) further added that informal mentoring relationships could develop from casual conversation or mere situational and information sharing. Each relationship progresses at its own pace and timeline. “It is the dance between two willing and consenting partners, a dance of giving and receiving each other’s gifts” (Huang & Lynch, 1995, p. 5).

Theoretical Perspectives of Mentoring

Scandura, and Pellegrini (2010), cited in Allen and Eby (2010), stated that although mentoring relations can be traced back to ancient Greece, organizational mentoring or mentoring in the workplace has gained notoriety in the academic community within the past two decades.

The majority of research on organizational mentoring followed influential works of Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee (1978) and Kram (1985). Levinson et al. (1978) described the mentor's role as being a guide, counselor, and sponsor to the mentee. Kram (1985), cited in Scandura and Pellegrini (2010), categorized the mentor's roles into two categories: career development and psychosocial support. Career development encourages advancement and may include coaching sponsorship, exposure, visibility, and protection. Psychosocial support develops the mentee's sense of competence, clarity of identity, effectiveness on the job, and friendship. Kram (1985) further suggested that the "greater the number of functions provided by the mentor, the more beneficial the relationship will be to the mentee" (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2010, p. 72).

Researchers (Alsburly & Hackmann, 2006; Barth, 2003; Crows & Matthews, 1998; Daresh, 2004; Villani, 2006; Young, Sheets, & Knight, 2005; Zachary, 2000, 2011) gave three implications of adult learning in relation to mentoring: self-directed learning, life stages, and socialization. Learning is fundamental to mentoring (Young et al., 2006; Zachary, 2000, 2011). The mentee should take an active role in learning what is required of the new position. Young et al. (2006) also stated:

New principals' success when facing the steep learning curve during the first critical years of service depends on their ability to meet external expectations, develop interpersonal relationships, turn obstacles or barriers into goals and positive outcomes, and maintain their self-esteem and sense of pleasure in the work they do. (p. 4)

The mentor should assume a facilitative role, in which he nurtures and guides the mentee towards self-direction (Zachary, 2011). Young et al. (2006) added, "Problems and experiences need to be anchored, analyzed, and understood in ways that encourage, rather than minimize, the

mentee's willingness to take risks" (p. 4). When learning is absent in the mentoring relationship, the relationship is merely transactional. Consequently, the relationship must be founded on the premise of Malcolm Knowles (1980) so that it is goal-oriented and self-oriented. Zachary (2011) called this viewpoint of process-oriented mentoring relationship, learner-centered mentoring paradigm. The process involves the mentee being taught how to share responsibility for the learning setting, priorities, learning, and resources and increasing becomes self-directed. When the learner feels uncomfortable in holding this responsibility, the mentor encourages and supports the learner over the course of the relationship. As the relationship progresses over time, the mentor and mentee share the responsibility of achieving the mentee's learning goals.

Knowles (1980) wrote that learning encompasses moving from pedagogy, the dependent learner, to andragogy, independent learner. Knowles (1980) defined andragogy as the art and science of helping adults learn and pedagogy as being concerned with teaching children. The movement from pedagogy to andragogy can be accomplished at different rates for different learners at different times in life. As shown in Table 1, Cross (1981) showed distinct differences between the two types of learners.

Table 1

Comparison of Assumptions and Designs of Pedagogy and Andragogy

	Assumptions		Design Elements		
	Pedagogy	Andragogy		Pedagogy	Andragogy
Self-concept	Dependency	Increasing self-directiveness	Climate	Authority oriented, formal, competitive	Mutuality, respectful, collaborative, informal
Experience	Of little worth	Learners are a rich resource for learning	Planning	By teacher	Mechanism for mutual planning
Readiness	Biological development, social pressure	Developmental tasks of social roles	Diagnosis of needs	By teacher	Mutual self-diagnosis
Time perspective	Postponed application	Immediacy of application	Formulation of objectives	By teacher	Mutual negotiation
Orientation to learning	Subject centered	Problem centered	Design	Logic of the subject matter; content units	Sequenced in terms of readiness; problem units

Pedagogy includes dependency, subject-centered orientation of learning, postponed application of learning, authority-centered and competitive climate, and evaluation of learning by the teacher. In contrast, andragogy is, but not necessarily limited to, increasing self-directedness, problem-centered orientation of learning, immediate application of learning, climate of mutuality and collaboration, and mutual measurement of program evaluation (Cross, 1981).

According to Daresh (2004), early forms of mentoring were based upon the frameworks of theorists such as Bova and Phillips (1984), Chickering and Havighurst (1981), Levinson et al. (1978). Mentoring, taken from these theorists' perspectives, is seen as a developmental process for the mentee (learner). It is used to enhance the professional development of the new school administrator (mentee). In contrast to the learner-directed mentoring paradigm, the mentor takes the active role in the mentee's learning and the mentee assumes a passive role as the individual develops professionally through experience. Bova and Phillips (1984) defined this type of mentoring as "learning resulting from or associated with experience" (p. 196). Levinson added the mentor is "a critical actor in the developmental process...a mixture of parent and peer. A mentor may act as host and guide" (p. 73).

Bova and Phillips (1984), Chickering and Havighurst (1981), and Levinson et al. (1978) focused on life cycle phases of adults. In terms of life cycle phases correlating with adult education, it can be inferred that all people mature at different rates; therefore, the realization of knowing the need to acquire knowledge or skills comes at different times in adult's lives. With this being said, the desire to become an independent learner may not happen until the need or hope to learn is applicable to an adult's particular life experience. Cross (1981) described phases of life cycles categorized by age ranging from 18–65. During these phases, particular marker events, psychic tasks, and characteristic stance occur.

Table 2

Descriptions of Life-Cycle Phases

Phase and Age	Marker Events	Psychic Tasks	Characteristic Stance
Leaving home 18–22	Leave home Establish new living arrangements Enter college Start first full-time job Select mate	Establish autonomy and independence from family Define identity Define sex role Establish new peer alliances	A balance between “being in” and “moving out” of the family
Moving in Adult World 23–28	Marry Establish home Become parent Get hired/fired/quit job Enter into community activities	Regard self as adult Develop capacity for intimacy Fashion initial life structure Build the dream Find a mentor	“Doing what one should” Living and building for the future Launched as an adult
Search for Stability 29–34	Establish children in school Progress in career or consider change Possible separation, divorce, remarriage Possible return to school	Reappraise relationships Reexamine life structure and present commitments Strive for success Search for stability, security, control Search for personal values Set long-range goals Accept growing children	“What is this life all about now that I am doing what I am supposed to?” Concern for order and stability and with “making it” Desire to set long-range goals and meet them
Becoming One’s Own Person 37–42	Crucial promotion Break with mentor Responsibility for three-generation family, i.e., growing children and aging parents For women: empty nest; enter career and education	Face reality Confront mortality; sense of aging Prune dependent ties to boss, spouse, mentor Reassess marriage Reassess personal priorities and values	Suspend animation More nurturing stance for men; more assertive stance for women “Have I done the right thing? Is there time to change?”
Settling Down 45–55	Cap career Become mentor Launch children; become grandparents New interests and hobbies Physical limitations; menopause Active participation in community events	Increase feelings of self awareness and competence Reestablish family relationships Enjoy one’s choices and life style Reexamine fit between life structure and self	“It is perhaps late, but there are things I would like to do in the last half of my life” Best time of life
The Mellowing 57–64	Possible loss of mate Health problems Preparation for retirement	Accomplish goals in the time left to live Accept and adjust to aging process	Mellowing of feelings and relationships Spouse increasingly important Greater comfort with self

(table continues)

Table 2 (continued)

Phase and Age	Marker Events	Psychic Tasks	Characteristic Stance
Life Review 65 +	Retirement Physical decline Change in finances New living arrangements Death of friends/spouse Major shift in daily routine	Search for integrity versus despair Acceptance of self Disengagement Rehearsal for death of spouse	Review of accomplishments Eagerness to share everyday human joys and sorrows Family is important Death is a new presence

Searching for stability phase occurs during the ages of 29–34. An adult going through this phase normally are establishing children in school, progressing in career or considering a career change, making a decision to go back to school, and going through a possible separation, divorce, or remarriage. Some of the psychic tasks include accepting growing children, striving for success, and searching for stability, security, and values. Characteristics of an adult in this group are being concerned for order and stability, setting long-term goals, and asking the questions, “What is life all about now that I am doing what I am suppose to do?” or “What is my purpose in life?” Therefore, an adult learner in this age group might be thinking about pursuing another college degree, if they already earned one, taking classes which will help them to move up the career ladder, or temporarily placing their educational pursuit on hold so that they can assist with their children’s education.

The third framework of mentoring discussed in the studies of Zachary (2000, 2011), Alsbury and Hackman (2006), Villani (2006), Daresh (2004), and Barth (2003) involved mentoring as a socialization practice. Theories of Bandura (1997) and Van Maanen and Schein (1979) define this concept. Daresh (2004) wrote that mentoring should be viewed with two important perspectives, which combine socialization and developmental stages:

1. It is a vital part of individuals not only in becoming effective leaders, but also in becoming socialized leaders. This involves the individuals to find new identities, new roles, and assume organizational expectations. This perspective is based upon the works of Daloz (1999), Bandura (1997), and Phillips-Jones (1982).
2. It is a valuable tool that helps new leaders attain new knowledge base, attitudes, skills, and behaviors. After this attainment, personal and professional developments are achieved (p. 497).

New school administrators would find more value in mentoring if the relationship was supportive (Alsbury & Hackmann, 2006; Crow, Matthews, & McCleary, 1996; Zachary, 2000, 2011). Receiving support from the mentor is top priority compared to the developmental process. Mentoring should involve relationship-building and professional reflection. This is accomplished through four stages of mentoring relationships, whether informal or formal: preparing (tilling the soil), negotiating (planting seeds), enabling (nurturing growth), and coming to closure (reaping the wheel) (Zachary, 2000). Young, Sheets, and Knight (2005) resonated Zachary's four stages with case studies and problem solving applications throughout their entire book.

The preparing stage involves the mentor and mentee discussing issues such as the motivations for the mentee to become an administrator, advantages and disadvantages of the mentoring relationship, and goals and expectations of the mentoring relationship. The negotiating stage, according to Young et al. (2005), is the most critical one because it encompasses the mentor and mentee coming to an agreement on sensitive issues, i.e. confidentiality, trust, learning goals, content, reliability, time commitments, and accountability. Many details of the mentoring relationship are finalized during this stage. The enabling stage is when the implementation of the mentoring process begins. Zachary (2000), cited in Young et al. (2005), stated this stage requires more time for the relationship to develop naturally than the other three stages. Young et al. (2005) stated the closure stage is the most emotional one. Although the mentoring relationship ideally should be continuous, external factors, for instance, time, family and work commitments, may cause the mentor and mentee to lose contact with one another. As a result, both parties must make a concerted effort to meet periodically to ensure the relationship stays intact.

As cited in Villani (2006), mentoring is best accomplished when there is a hierarchy of professional socialization, a term coined by Van Maanen and Schein (1976). Professional socialization comprises of processes, or steps, taken for an individual to become a member of the individual respective profession and developing an identity or personality with that particular profession. Parkay, Currie, and Rhodes (1992), cited in Villani (2006), described five stages of the professional socialization hierarchy for principals:

Stage 1: Survival—The new administrator experiences initial shock of the position, along with personal concerns and professional insecurity.

Stage 2: Control—The new administrator wants to set priorities and experiences power of the position.

Stage 3: Stability—The new administrator achieves veteran status and handles tasks more effectively and efficiently.

Stage 4: Educational Leadership—The new administrator focuses primarily on curriculum and instruction. Personal power is legitimized.

Stage 5: Professional Actualization—Personal and professional confirmation set in. The new administrator targets on the individuals personal visions (pg. 18).

Villani (2006) further commented about the importance of socializing new principals,

The principal is the appointed leader of the school community...It is imperative that new principals have appropriate support through comprehensive induction and mentoring programs so that they can enter schools confident in their ability to foster a strong learning community and be sensitive to the culture they are joining. (p. 5)

Scandura and Pellegrini (2010) stated that there are new theoretical models of mentoring which have evolved such as team and network mentoring. The definitions of these new models

developed from the early single, dyadic, and hierarchal types of mentoring. According to Scandura and Pellegrini (2010), Ragins and Kram (2007), Higgins and Kram (2001), Williams, Hamilton and Scandura (2001), Williams(2000), and Baugh and Scandura (1999), new theoretical mentoring relationships may have the following scenarios: online relationships which is maintained through electronic means, e.g. email, chat, and/or the Internet; team leaders serving as mentors to team members; team members mentoring other team members; multiple mentoring with one mentee having multiple sequential mentoring relations; and mentoring where one mentee has a group of different mentors during the course of his career.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Mentoring

Ensher and Murphy (2011), Scandura and Pellegrini (2010), Ehrich, Hansford, and Tennent (2004), Daresh (2004) discovered in their studies certain benefits as well as dysfunctions in mentoring relationships. According to these researchers, some mentors have reported increased satisfaction, stimulation, rejuvenation, and increased commitment to their respective professions. As a result, these mentors have experienced personal fulfillment in watching their mentees grow professionally and personally. The mentors also know that they have been instrumental in molding fledgling and inexperience persons into functional assets in their professions.

Ehrich et al. (2004) reported that other benefits to mentors are increased confidence and more participation in group activities. Since the mentor knows that he is being relied upon for direction or guidance, the mentor's confidence level is increased. As the mentor's confidence level increases, his level of participation in organizational events increases because of the raised level of self-esteem. Daresh (2004) stated that in some cases, mentors may learn from mentees. He emphasized that mentors should solicit new ideas from mentees. The new and innovative

ideas from mentees can broaden the perspectives of mentors and help them to grow professionally. In turn, this growth can enhance their advancement in the profession.

Like the mentor, the mentee may see benefits and risks in a mentoring relationship. Although both mentee's and mentor's contributions and reciprocations may be different, both participants must perceive that the end results will be valuable to both (Ensher & Murphy, 2011). Receiving on-the-job training is one of the benefits that the mentee may gain. The mentee observes the mentor's actions in various situations, which provide valuable lessons learned when the mentee encounters similar situations. According to Villani (2006) and Daresh (2004), classical examples occur in a school setting. Problems may arise involving all stakeholders in the educational process—from the teachers to the community leaders.

From a professional development perspective, Ehrich et al. (2004) found in their study that 75% of top executives in the United States had received some type of mentoring. Furthermore, they indicated that these executives earned 28% more than their counterparts did. Lastly, when compared with their counterparts, these corporate mentees were more educated, happier with their work, and more prone to become mentors themselves.

Daresh (2004) stated that the mentoring relationship could foster better communication skills for the mentee. Many ideas are shared through interactions between the mentor and mentee. The mentee can increase his insights on many issues or areas of concern. He further mentioned that the school setting presents many opportunities for one to discuss topics with an experienced professional. The topics may not be limited to the current setting or academic environment (Daresh, 2004). Another benefit to the mentee is the sense of belonging and knowing that someone is there to help (Daresh, 2004; Ehrich, Hansford, & Tennent, 2004; Villani, 2006). The feeling of knowing that the mentee has someone who understands his

frustrations can be critical for the mentee in becoming more competent and adjusted to his new field or position.

Feedback has been reported as being very beneficial to mentees (Ehrich, Hansford, & Tennent, 2004; Villani, 2006). Feedback can be either in the form of positive reinforcement or constructive criticism. Through feedback, the mentee's professional development may be enhanced. Villani (2006) and Ehrich et al. (2004) pointed out that repetitive behavior produced the same results. Professional growth is expected through mentoring. Otherwise, the whole purpose of mentoring is negated.

The school district itself can benefit from mentoring relationships (Daresh, 2004; Ehrich, Hansford, & Tennent, 2004; Ensher & Murphy, 2011; Villani, 2006). These researchers found in their prospective studies that productivity is improved through mentoring new school administrators. The productivity is attributed to such things as motivation, increased self-esteem and professional growth. In addition, mentoring can provide an invaluable asset to a school district, e.g. lifelong learning. Some mentors will mentor others as a commitment to the school organization. This process can start a cycle in which the entire school district benefits indefinitely. Payne and Huffman (2005) and Singh, Bains and Vinnicombe (2002) found in their studies that people will stay in organizations where they are happy with the environment. An environment where the organizations care enough to ensure that their employees receive training for success will attract and retain employees.

Mentoring relationships may also be detrimental to both parties involved. Villani (2006), Daresh (2004), Ehrich et al. (2004), Long (1997), and Turner (1993) found that one pitfall of mentoring is a mentor-mentee mismatch. Mentor-mentee mismatches are attributed to

personality, racial, gender, professional and philosophical differences. As a result, the mentoring relationship is bound to fail.

Villani (2006), Daresh (2004), Ehrich et al. (2004), Long (1997), and Turner (1993) also found that another pitfall in mentoring relationships was the lack of training for administrators prior to serving as mentors. Villani (2006), Daresh (2004), Ehrich et al. (2004), Long (1997), and Turner (1993) found in their studies that some principals who served as mentors were chosen based upon their current or previous experiences as school administrators. In addition, some principals who served as mentors were chosen because of seniority or having the highest number of years being school administrators. In both cases, no formal training as mentors prior to being assigned mentees was required.

Williams, Scandura, and Hamilton (2001), cited by Scandura and Pellegrini (2010) and Eby and McManus (2004), developed a measure of dysfunction in mentoring (DIM) which focused on four dimensions of dysfunctionality.

1. Negative relationships: This consists of psychosocial problems with bad intent, e.g. bullying, intimidation, overly aggressive behavior, abuse of power, and provoking diversity issues.
2. Difficulty: This involves psychosocial problems with good intent, e.g. different personalities, different work styles, unresolved conflicts, disagreements, and over-dependence.
3. Spoiling: This reflects in changes in the mentoring relationship that was once viewed as satisfying to be seen as disappointing. An example is when a mentor becomes disappointed in his mentee because the mentee becomes romantically involved with a district administrator who is married (Eby & McManus, 2004).

4. Submissiveness: The mentee is submissive, over-dependent, and passive during the mentoring relationship, which reinforces the balance of power (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2010, p. 77).

Eby and McManus (2004), cited by Scandura and Pellegrini (2010), also found in their study that deception, jealousy, and competition between the mentor and mentee are possible detriments of the mentoring relationships. Jealousy and competition can lead to suspicion, lack of trust, and counterproductive behavior. According to Scandura and Pellegrini (2003) and Lewicki and Bunker (1995), trust is an essential part of close relationships; therefore, if the mentor suspects that the mentee is being deceptive, the mentor may psychologically or physically withdraw from the relationship.

Summary

In this chapter, there was a review of research literature, which focused on the evolution, importance, rewards, and challenges of the principal's and assistant principal's roles in today's schools, issues and trends of women and minority representation in school administration, the definition and basis for administrator mentoring, theoretical viewpoints of mentoring, and the benefits and drawbacks of mentoring. Allen and Eby (2010) noted, "Interest in mentoring as a means to foster individual growth and development continues to flourish among researchers, practitioners, policymakers, educators, and the public at large" (p. 3).

In Chapter 3, an explicit explanation of the methods used during this research study is given in order to find a possible correlation between types of administrator mentoring, gender, ethnicity, and retention of secondary school administrators in the River Heritage Region of Alabama.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

Introduction

School administration is the single most-important contributing factor to the success of an effective school (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2009). Though principals' and assistant principals' salaries have increased across the United States within the past five years, salaries for secondary principals and assistant principals do not relate to the consumer price index (CPI). In addition, there are instances in which the salary increase is not commensurate with the vast responsibilities associated with the job (Draper, 2008).

Given the high demands of school administration, school systems not only find it difficult to retain those who are currently in school administrative positions, but also attracting candidates for vacant administrative positions (Educational Research Service, 2000; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Shen, Cooley, & Wegenke, 2004; Whitaker & Vogel, 2005). The demand to fill assistant principal and principal positions is at an all-time high because of increased accountability pressures, retirement of current principals, and increased enrollments in many school districts (Malone & Caddell, 2000; Shen et al., 2004; Whitaker & Vogel, 2005).

The average length of time for school administrators to assume and fulfill their roles is five years or less. In addition, there is the projection that the retirement rates of veteran school administrators will increase (Gajda & Militello, 2008; Michael & Young, 2006; Norton, 2003; Schuman 2004). Peters (2010) indicated that the United States Department of Labor forecasts 40 percent of the nation's 93,200 principals are approaching retirement age. As a result, there will

be an increase in principal attrition within the next five to ten years. Gajda and Militello (2008) and Quinn (2002) described the looming administrator shortage nationwide as reaching crisis proportions.

The purpose of this study was to determine if types of administrator mentoring relationships played a key factor in retaining secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region. The results also were examined for a possible relationship between types of administrator mentoring relationships and the retention of minority secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region. Additionally, the research focused on the characteristics of effective mentoring relationships involving secondary school administrators in this particular geographical region. The remainder of this chapter describes the research questions, research design, participants, instrumentation, data collection, and data analyses.

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between the types of administrator mentoring and retention of secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region?
2. What is the relationship between the types of administrator mentoring and retention of minority secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region?

Research Design

A correlational research design was used for this study. Correlational research design was appropriate for this study because it is a statistical technique that measures the strength of associations, or relations, among two or more variables. Gravetter and Wallnau (2007) stated that a correlation measures three characteristics of the relationship between two or more variables:

1. Direction of the relationship: This involves either the variables moving in the same direction (positive correlation) or the variables moving in opposite (negative correlation).
2. Form of the relationship: The determination of how well the data fit the specific form being considered.
3. Degree of the relationship: The measurement of the strength of the relationship between the variables.

During this study, the collection of data was used to determine if a relationship existed between types of administrator mentoring relationships (independent variable) and the retention rate of secondary school administrators (dependent variable). Moreover, the collection of data was used to determine if a relationship existed between gender, ethnicity, types of administrator mentoring relationships (independent variables) and the retention rate of secondary school administrators (dependent variable).

Population

The participant population of this study included secondary school administrators, primarily principals and assistant principals, currently employed by public school systems located in the River Heritage Region of Alabama. The River Heritage Region encompassed 22 counties and 39 public school systems. Participation in the study was strictly voluntary. The selection of participants was met by the researcher's request of the system superintendents to grant permission in order for the survey instrument used in the research to be disseminated electronically. There were not any vulnerable participants in this population. Sixteen superintendents granted permission for researcher to conduct the study in their prospective

counties. In order to ensure a high response rate, all secondary school administrators in each school system were asked to participate after permission was granted.

Instrumentation

The data collection instrument was a survey developed by the researcher through Survey Monkey software. The general format of the survey included multiple-choice and open-ended question items. There were 30 question items:

1. Seven items were demographic questions which explored variables based on respondent's gender, ethnicity, administrative role, type of school where they were assigned, years of service as assistant principal and principal, and if he had a mentor.
2. Ten items were questions that addressed respondents who had a mentor and asked about the longevity of the mentoring relationship, type of mentoring relationship, description of the mentor, setting where the mentoring took place, current relationship with mentor, and the origin of the mentoring relationship.
3. Six items were questions that addressed respondents who had a mentor and asked if they were mentors of other school administrators, type of mentoring relationship, description of the mentee, longevity of being a mentor, and current relationship with mentee.
4. Four items were questions that addressed respondents who did not have a mentor and asked if mentoring would have made an impact on their professional growth, reason for not having a mentor, factors influencing administrative role, and five-year goal.
5. Three items were questions that addressed respondents who had a mentor and asked if mentoring made an impact on their professional growth, factors influencing administrative role, and five-year goal (see Appendix E).

6. After the Institutional Review Board at Auburn University and system superintendents in the River Heritage Region of Alabama granted permission, the participants were sent informational letters electronically. The information letter stated key information such as the purpose of the study, the approximate length of time for survey completion, the 30-day timeline of the survey link, and what the results would help to identify. The informational letter also included a link that directed the participants to the actual survey. Survey was developed and disseminated through Survey Monkey software. When the participants clicked on the survey link, completed the survey, and submitted the survey, those actions indicated that the participants granted consent to participate in the research study. The respondents' names and IP addresses were not collected in order to maintain confidentiality.

Data Collection

An application to conduct the research study was submitted for approval to the Institutional Review Board at Auburn University on July 21, 2010. The application included CITI completion certificates for the researcher and committee members, permission letter for system superintendents, information letter for the participants, and survey instrument. IRB Approval was granted on August 2, 2010.

The names, email addresses, and phone numbers of the system superintendents in the Alabama River Heritage Region were obtained from the Alabama State Department of Education website. A permission letter was sent to each system superintendent electronically. The permission letter stated key information such as the purpose of the study, how the survey instrument would be disseminated to the participants, the approximate length of time for survey

completion, and what the results would help to identify (see Appendix F). When the superintendent granted permission to the researcher, the participants' email addresses were obtained from the superintendent or his designee.

An email that contained the information letter was sent to prospective participants in school systems that granted permission. The information letter stated the purpose of the study, the approximate length of time for survey completion, the 30-day timeline of the survey link, and what the results would help to identify. The information letter also included the link that directed the participants to the actual survey (see Appendix G). Survey was developed and disseminated through Survey Monkey software. When the participants clicked on the link, completed the link, and submitted the link, those actions indicated that the participants granted consent to participate in the research study. A follow up reminder of the survey link and its timeline were sent to all participants during the 30-day time period in which the survey link was still active. The respondents' names or IP addresses were not collected in order to maintain confidentiality.

After the survey link expired, the researcher downloaded the data through Survey Monkey software on a secure computer located in the committee chair's office at Auburn University.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed in response to the following research questions:

1. What is the relationship between the types of administrator mentoring and retention of secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region?
2. What is the relationship between the types of administrator mentoring and retention of minority secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region?

Using SPSS version 20, the researcher applied correlation procedures and factorial analysis of variance to answer these research questions. To determine statistical significance, tests were conducted at the .05 level. The .05 level was chosen since it marks the highest level of acceptable risk for the researcher (Green & Salkind, 2008).

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher analyzed the data found during the investigation of the following variables: types of administrator mentoring relationship, gender, ethnicity, number of years principals held position (principal retention rate), and number of years assistant principals held position (assistant principal retention rate). The data were analyzed relative to the research questions presented in the study. Particularly, the researcher determined if a significant difference existed on each variable between mentoring relationships and the retention rate of secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region.

The purpose of this study was to determine if types of administrator mentoring relationships played a key factor in retaining secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region. The results also were examined for a possible relationship between the types of administrator mentoring and the retention of minority secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region. Moreover, the research focused on the characteristics of effective mentoring relationships involving secondary school administrators in this particular geographical region.

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between the types of administrator mentoring and retention of secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region?

2. What is the relationship between the types of administrator mentoring and retention of minority secondary school administrators in Alabama’s River Heritage Region? A discussion involving the response rates as well as the demographic characteristics is presented first. Then, this discussion is followed by the data analysis for each research question.

Demographics

The researcher requested permission from 39 public school system superintendents to conduct the research. Sixteen superintendents responded favorably to the request. The survey was disseminated to a total of 152 secondary school administrators located in 15 counties in the River Heritage Region of Alabama. The total number of respondents was 47; therefore, a 31 percent return rate was achieved. The demographics of the 47 respondents are depicted in Figures 2–6.

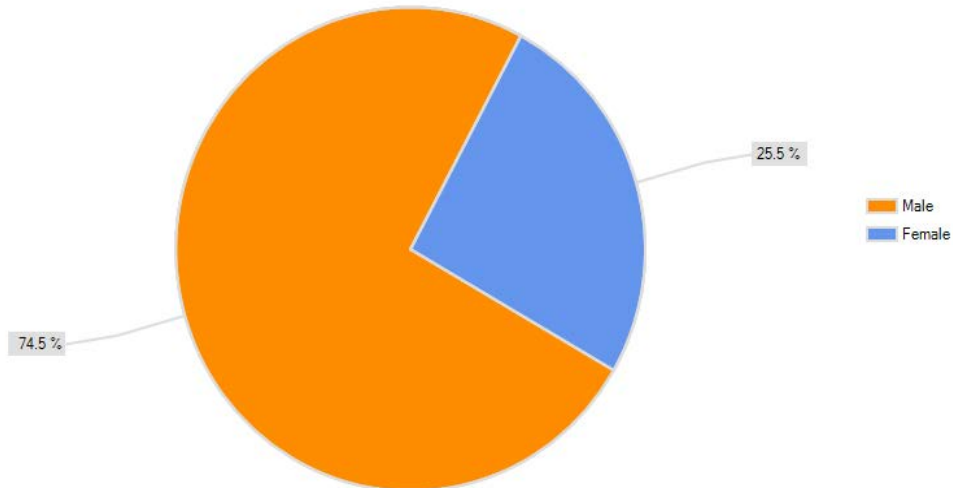


Figure 2. Sample by Gender

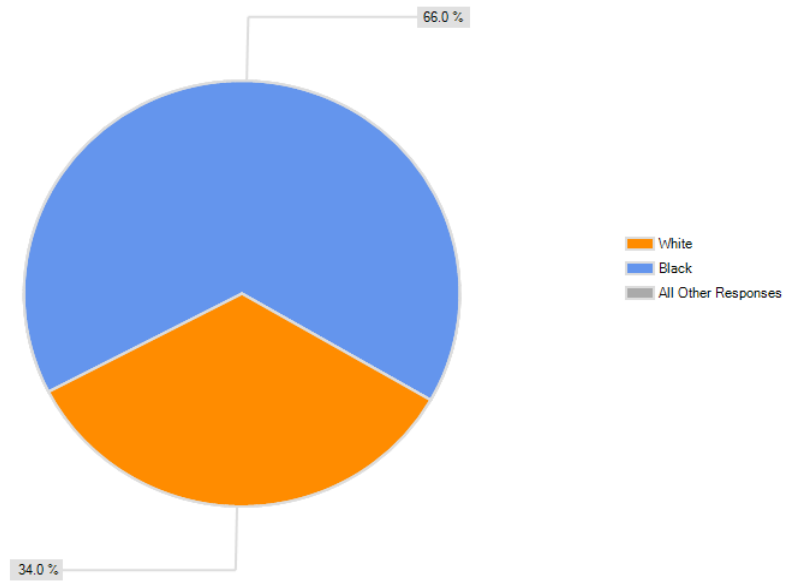


Figure 3. Sample by Ethnicity

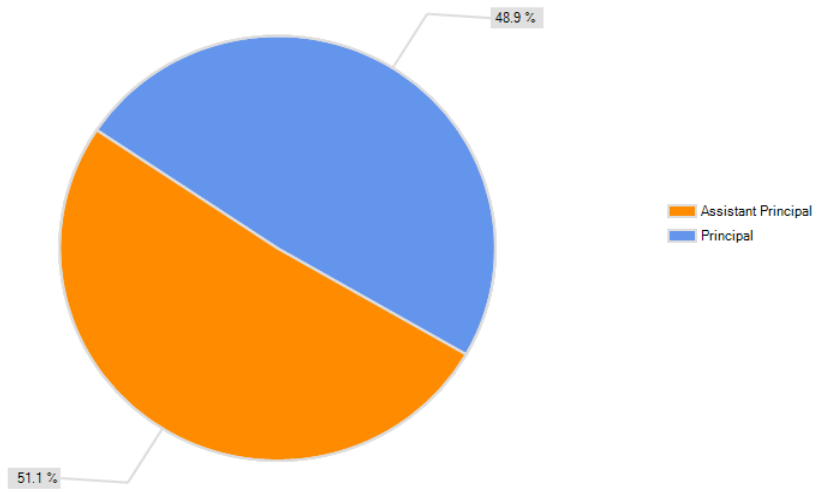


Figure 4. Current School Administrative Role

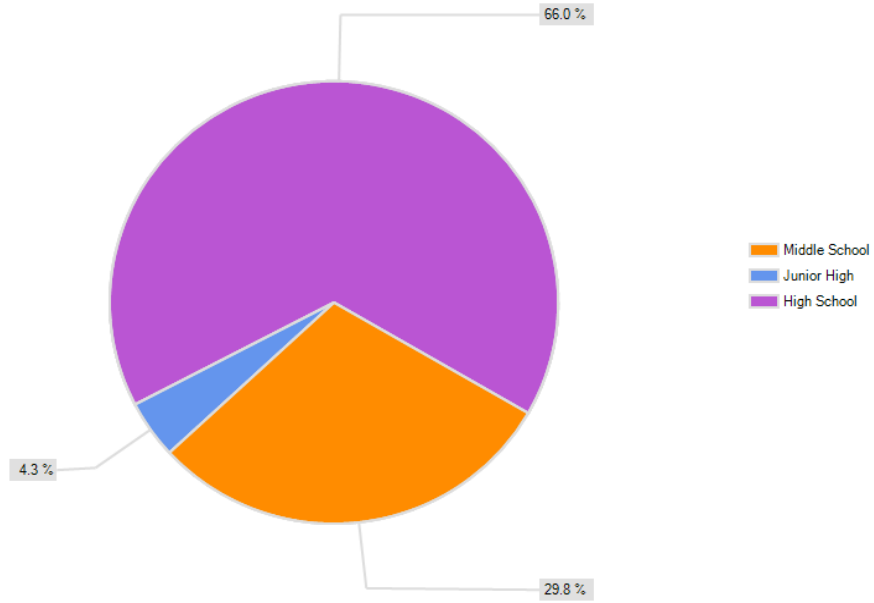


Figure 5. Assigned School Type

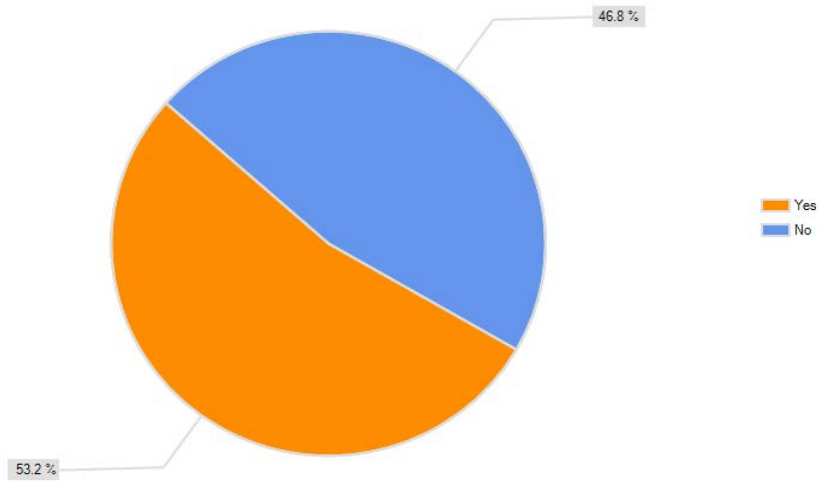


Figure 6. Administrators who had Mentors

In terms of the retention rate, 69% of the respondents were assistant principals who held their positions up to 5 years and 31% held their positions for more than 5 years. Seventy-eight percent of the respondents were principals who held their positions up to 5 years and 22% held their positions for more than 5 years.

Data Analysis

The data provided are in response to the two research questions. Additionally, the research questions are supported by data depicted in appropriate tables. The Mentoring Survey consisted of three components: Respondent Demographic Information (gender, ethnicity, administrative role, assigned school type, retention rate, and whether he is mentored or not); Mentored Administrator Information (19 items); Non-Mentored Administrator Information (4 items). The Mentoring Survey consisted of 30 items. All respondents were informed that the data would be treated confidentially.

Data were examined using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and three-way ANOVA. Statistically significant difference was established at the .05 level of probability. If the p-value was greater than .05, then the null hypothesis was accepted. Statistical tests for correlation were conducted to determine relationships between variables. The three-way ANOVA was used to determine the effect of three factors on differences in the dependent variable as well as if there were any interactions between the factors considered. An interaction implied that differences in one of the factors were dependent on differences in another factor. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 20 was used.

Research Question 1

Research question 1 was, “What is the relationship between the types of administrator mentoring and retention of secondary school administrators in Alabama’s

River Heritage Region?” The results of the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient test showed that the correlation between the formality of the administrator mentoring and the administrator retention rate was not significant, $r(22) = (-.270)$, $p > .05$ for ayears and $r(22) = (-.444)$, $p > .05$ for prinyear. The number in parenthesis after the coefficient r represents the degrees of freedom associated with the significance test, which is equal to the number of cases (N) minus 2. Based on the data, the null hypothesis was accepted. Table 3 depicts the correlation analysis results using types of administrator mentoring (formality) and the assistant principal retention rate (ayears). Table 4 depicts the correlation analysis results using types of administrator mentoring (formality) and the principal retention rate (prinyear).

Table 3

Correlation between Administrator Mentoring and Assistant Principal Retention

		Formalty	Ayears
	Pearson Correlation	1	-.270
Formalty	Sig. (2-tailed)		.263
	N	24	19
	Pearson Correlation	-.270	1
Ayears	Sig. (2-tailed)	.263	
	N	19	38

Table 4

Correlation between administrator mentoring and principal retention

		Formalty	Prinyear
Formalty	Pearson Correlation	1	-.444
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.074
	N	24	17
Prinyear	Pearson Correlation	-.444	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.074	
	N	17	33

Research Question 2

Research question 2 asked, “What is the relationship between the types of administrator mentoring and retention of minority secondary school administrators in Alabama’s River Heritage Region?” The three-way ANOVA statistical procedure was conducted to evaluate the effects of three factors—types of administrator mentoring (formality), gender, and ethnicity—on the administrator retention (dependent variable). Two separate tests were run for the two dependent variables, ayears and prinyear.

In the first three-way ANOVA test, there were three levels of formality: very informal, somewhat informal, and mixture of formal and informal; two levels of gender: male and female; and two levels of ethnicity: White and Black. Table 5 shows the factor levels and the group size of each factor level (N).

Table 5

Between-Subject Factors involving Formality, Gender, and Ethnicity of Assistant Principals

		Value Label	N
	1.00	Very Informal	3
Formalty	2.00	Somewhat Informal	13
	3.00	Mixture of Informal and Formal	3
	1.00	Male	14
Gender	2.00	Female	5
	1.00	White	8
Ethnic	2.00	Black	11

Table 6 shows that the mean of White males who have very informal mentoring relationships ($M = 5.00$) is higher than Black males ($M = 3.50$). The mean of White males who have somewhat informal mentoring relationships ($M = 3.80$) is higher than Black males ($M = 2.33$). In addition, the mean of White females who have somewhat informal mentoring relationships ($M = 4.00$) is higher than Black females (2.50). The mean of White males who have a mixture of informal and formal mentoring relationships ($M = 4.00$) is higher than Black males ($M = 2.00$). The mean of White females who have a mixture of informal and formal mentoring relationships ($M = 4.00$) is higher than Black females ($M = 2.00$).

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics Involving Formality, Gender, Ethnicity, and Assistant Principal Retention

Dependent Variable: Apyears						
Formalty	Gender	Ethnic	Mean	Standard Deviation	N	
Very Informal	Male	White	5.00	.	1	
		Black	3.50	2.121	2	
		Total	4.00	1.732	3	
	Total	Total	White	5.00	.	1
			Black	3.50	2.121	2
			Total	4.00	1.732	3
		Male	White	3.80	1.304	5
			Black	2.33	.577	3
			Total	3.25	1.282	8
Somewhat Informal	Female	White	4.00	.	1	
		Black	2.50	1.732	4	
		Total	2.80	1.643	5	
	Total	Total	White	3.83	1.169	6
			Black	2.43	1.272	7
			Total	3.08	1.382	13
		Male	White	4.00	.	1
			Black	2.00	1.414	2
			Total	2.67	1.528	3
Mixture of Informal and Formal	Total	White	4.00	.	1	
		Black	2.00	1.414	2	
		Total	2.67	1.528	3	
	Male	Total	White	4.00	1.155	7
			Black	2.57	1.272	7
			Total	3.29	1.383	14
		Female	White	4.00	.	1
			Black	2.50	1.732	4
			Total	2.80	1.643	5
Total	Total	White	4.00	1.069	8	
		Black	2.55	1.368	11	
	Total	Black	2.55	1.368	11	
		Total	3.16	1.425	19	

The Tests of Between-Subjects Effects table indicated that there were neither significant main effects nor significant interactions between formality, gender, and ethnicity. It is important to note the following variable representations in Table 7:

1. q0010=formality main effect
2. q0001=gender main effect
3. q0002=ethnicity main effect
4. (q0010*q0001)=formality and gender interaction
5. (q0010*q0002)=formality and ethnicity interaction
6. (q0001*q0002)=gender and ethnicity interaction
7. (q0010*q0001*q0002)=formality, gender, and ethnicity interaction

Results of the formality main effect on assistant principal retention: $F(2,11) = .732$; $p = .503$; $p > .05$. Results of the gender main effect on assistant principal retention: $F(1,11) = .0365$; $p = .853$; $p > .05$. Results of the ethnicity main effect on assistant principal retention: $F(1,11) = 3.253$; $p = .099$; $p > .05$. Results of the formality and ethnicity interaction and assistant principal retention: $F(2,11) = .035$; $p = .966$; $p > .05$. Results of the gender and ethnicity interaction and assistant principal retention: $F(1,11) = .000$; $p = .987$; $p > .05$.

Table 7

Output Table indicating No Significant Main Effect or Significant Interaction between Variables

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Apyears

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	13.560 ^a	7	1.937	.928	.522	.371	6.494	.241
Intercept	120.345	1	120.345	57.640	.000	.840	57.640	1.000
q0010	3.055	2	1.527	.732	.503	.117	1.463	.144
q0001	.075	1	.075	.036	.853	.003	.036	.053
q0002	6.791	1	6.791	3.253	.099	.228	3.253	.377
q0010 * q0001	.000	0000	.000	.
q0010 * q0002	.146	2	.073	.035	.966	.006	.070	.054
q0001 * q0002	.001	1	.001	.000	.987	.000	.000	.050
q0010 * q0001 * q0002	.000	0000	.000	.
Error	22.967	11	2.088					
Total	226.000	19						
Corrected Total	36.526	18						

a. R Squared = .371 (Adjusted R Squared = -.029)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

For the second three-way ANOVA test, the independent variables were formality, gender, and ethnicity. The dependent variable was the principal retention (prinyear). Table 8 shows the factor levels and the group size of each factor level (N).

Table 8

Between-Subjects Factors Table involving formality, gender, and ethnicity of principals

		Value Label	N
Formalty	1.00	Very Informal	3
	2.00	Somewhat Informal	12
	3.00	Mixture of Informal and Formal	2
Gender	1.00	Male	12
	2.00	Female	5
Ethnic	1.00	White	6
	2.00	Black	11

Table 9 illustrates that the mean of Black males who have very informal mentoring relationships ($M = 13.50$) is higher than White males ($M = 13.00$). The mean of Black males who have somewhat informal mentoring relationships ($M = 2.67$) is higher than White males ($M = .25$). Lastly, the mean of White females who have somewhat informal mentoring relationships ($M = 10.00$) is higher than Black females ($M = 4.75$).

Table 9

*Descriptive Statistics involving Formality, Gender, Ethnicity, and Principal Retention***Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable: Prinyear

Formalty	Gender	Ethnic	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	
Very Informal	Male	White	13.00	.	1	
		Black	13.50	12.021	2	
		Total	13.33	8.505	3	
	Total	Total	White	13.00	.	1
			Black	13.50	12.021	2
		Total	13.33	8.505	3	
		Male	White	.25	.500	4
Somewhat Informal	Female	Black	2.67	2.887	3	
		Total	1.29	2.138	7	
		White	10.00	.	1	
	Total	Black	Black	4.75	2.363	4
			Total	5.80	3.114	5
		Male	White	2.20	4.382	5
			Black	3.86	2.610	7
Mixture of Informal and Formal	Total	Total	3.17	3.380	12	
		Black	5.50	7.778	2	
		Total	5.50	7.778	2	
	Male	Black	Black	5.50	7.778	2
			Total	5.50	7.778	2
		Total	White	2.80	5.718	5
			Black	6.57	7.807	7
Total	Female	Total	5.00	6.994	12	
		White	10.00	.	1	
		Black	4.75	2.363	4	
	Total	Total	Total	5.80	3.114	5
			White	4.00	5.899	6
		Male	Black	5.91	6.252	11
			Total	5.24	6.016	17

Table 10 depicts that there was a significant main effect of formality on the principal retention, but no significant interactions between formality, gender, and ethnicity on the principal retention. The results of the formality main effect on principal retention were $F(2,10) = 5.661$; $p = .023$; $p < .05$. Results of the gender main effect on principal retention: $F(1,10) = 3.194$; $p = .104$; $p > .05$. Results of the ethnicity main effect on principal retention: $F(1,10) = .181$; $p = .679$; $p > .05$. Results of the formality and ethnicity interaction and principal retention: $F(1,10) = .074$; $p = .792$; $p > .05$. Results of the gender and ethnicity interaction and principal retention: $F(1,10) = 1.341$; $p = .274$; $p > .05$.

Table 10

Output Table indicating only a Significant Main Effect of Formality on Principal Retention

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Prinyear

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	339.892 ^a	6	56.649	2.369	.109	.587	14.212	.538
Intercept	583.214	1	583.214	24.385	.001	.709	24.385	.993
q0010	270.778	2	135.389	5.661	.023	.531	11.322	.733
q0001	76.379	1	76.379	3.194	.104	.242	3.194	.366
q0002	4.332	1	4.332	.181	.679	.018	.181	.067
q0010 * q0001	.000	0000	.000	.
q0010 * q0002	1.763	1	1.763	.074	.792	.007	.074	.057
q0001 * q0002	32.061	1	32.061	1.341	.274	.118	1.341	.183
q0010 * q0001 * q0002	.000	0000	.000	.
Error	239.167	10	23.917					
Total	1045.000	17						
Corrected Total	579.059	16						

a. R Squared = .587 (Adjusted R Squared = .339)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Due to the significant main effect of formality on principal retention, a LSD post hoc test was conducted. The results indicated that there was a significant pairwise comparison between very informal and somewhat informal ($p_{pc} = .009$; $p < .05$). The result of the insignificant pairwise comparison between very informal and mixture of informal and formal was $p_{pc} = .110$; $p > .05$. The result of the insignificant pairwise comparison between somewhat informal and mixture of informal and formal was $p_{pc} = .546$; $p > .05$. These results are shown in Table 11.

Table 11

LSD Post Hoc Results Showing a Significant Pairwise Comparison between Very Informal and Somewhat Informal Administrator Mentoring

Dependent Variable: Prinyear

LSD

(I) Formalty	(J) Formalty	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Very Informal	Somewhat Informal	10.17*	3.157	.009	3.13	17.20
	Mixture of Informal and Formal	7.83	4.464	.110	-2.11	17.78
Somewhat Informal	Very Informal	-10.17*	3.157	.009	-17.20	-3.13
	Mixture of Informal and Formal	-2.33	3.735	.546	-10.66	5.99
Mixture of Informal and Formal	Very Informal	-7.83	4.464	.110	-17.78	2.11
	Somewhat Informal	2.33	3.735	.546	-5.99	10.66

Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) = 23.917.

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Summary of Major Findings

This was a correlational study. The types of administrator mentoring relationships, gender, ethnicity, and administrator retention were evaluated in order to determine if there were any correlations between them. There were 47 respondents from 16 public school systems; 35 male administrators and 12 female administrators. Thirty-one respondents were Black and 16 were White. Twenty-four respondents were secondary assistant principals and 23 were secondary principals. Lastly, 25 administrators had mentors and 22 administrators did not have mentors.

Data analysis in this chapter showed that was not a significant correlation at the .05 level for Research Question 1 (What is the relationship between the types of administrator mentoring and the retention of secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region?). However, there was a significant correlation at the .05 level for Research Question 2 (What is the relationship between the types of administrator mentoring and retention of minority secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region?) Black male and White female principals who had very informal or somewhat informal administrator mentoring relationships had higher retention rates than their White male and Black female counterparts.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine if types of administrator mentoring relationships played a key factor in retaining secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region. The research questions were:

1. What is the relationship between the types of administrator mentoring and retention of secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region?
2. What is the relationship between the types of administrator mentoring and retention of minority secondary school administrators in Alabama's River Heritage Region?

Moreover, this chapter will address the summary, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for practice and further research.

Summary

This correlational study examined the following variables: types of administrator mentoring relationships, gender, ethnicity, and retention. There were 47 respondents representing 16 public school systems located in 15 counties throughout the River Heritage Region of Alabama. Seventy-five percent of the survey respondents were males; 25% were females. Sixty-six percent of the respondents were Black and 34% were White. Fifty-one percent were assistant principals and 49% were principals. Sixty-six percent were high school administrators, 30% were middle school administrators, and 4% junior high administrators.

Fifty-three percent were mentored and 47% were not mentored. Sixty-nine percent were inexperienced assistant principals and 31% were experienced assistant principals. Seventy-eight percent were inexperienced principals and 22% were experienced principals. The percentage of respondents in terms of gender and experience were closely connected to secondary school principal characteristics depicted in Table 14 (see Appendix C). However, the percentage of Black respondents was surprisingly higher compared to the percentage of Blacks noted in Table 14.

Two Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient tests were conducted to answer Research Question #1. The first test showed that there was not a statistical significant correlation at the .05 level found between types of administrator mentoring and the retention of assistant principals. The second test showed that there was not a statistical significant correlation at the .05 level found between types of administrator mentoring and the retention of principals. The researcher realized that when the two tests were conducted, the sample sizes were small. According to Green and Salkind (2008), due to the small sample sizes, possible correlations may falsely show as being insignificant. Therefore, these results should not be generalized to the secondary school administrator population in this particular geographical region.

Three-way ANOVA test was conducted twice to answer Research Question #2. The first test indicated that there was not a statistical significant correlation at the .05 level between secondary school assistant principals, their retention, and the types of administrator mentoring. On the contrary, the second test indicated that there was a statistical significant correlation at the .05 level found between Black male and White female secondary school principals, their retention, and the types of administrator mentoring. Furthermore, there was not a statistical significant correlation at the .05 level between White male and Black female secondary school

principals, their retention, and the types of administrator mentoring. These results were unanticipated by the researcher because of the research findings of Sperandio (2010), Lumby and Morrison (2010), Eagly and Carli (2009), Derrington and Sharratt (2009) mentioned in Chapter 2. Lack of mentors was one of the primary barriers for women and minorities school administrators found in the studies of Sperandio (2010), Lumby and Morrison (2010), Eagly and Carli (2009), and Derrington and Sharratt (2009). On the other hand, the results of this study indicated that on average, Black male and White female principals were mostly involved in mentoring relationships.

Conclusions

The following conclusion was made based upon the study findings:

1. There was a relationship between the types of administrator mentoring and the retention of minority secondary school principals in Alabama's River Heritage Region. Data analysis showed that there was a significant correlation between the formality of the administrator mentoring relationship and administrator retention. Black male and White female principals who had very informal and somewhat informal mentoring relationships had higher retention rates than White male and Black female principals.

Implications

The results of this study determined the value of administrator mentoring relationships. Based on the current research effort and other research by Ensher and Murphy (2011), Scandura and Pellegrini (2010), Villani (2006), Payne and Huffman (2005), Enrich, Hansford, and Tennent (2004), Daresh (2004), and Singh, Bains, and Vinnicombe (2002) relative to administrator

mentoring, the following implications are submitted for consideration by local school systems as well as novice school administrators:

- Each school system should consider establishing administrator mentoring programs. It is pertinent for all program participants to receive training.
- Novice school administrators should take a proactive approach in forming their own mentoring relationships if their school systems do not offer formal administrator mentoring programs. Informal mentoring relationships are just as beneficial as formal mentoring relationships.
- Mentoring is an invaluable tool to help the retention of women and minority school administrators. It is important for school systems with formal administrator mentoring programs to ensure that there is a climate of respect, equitability, and cultural awareness and to ensure that the training supervisors and mentors are trained with this in mind. If this does not occur, then gender and racial stereotypes may greatly sever mentoring relationships and the climate will be of distrust, disrespect, and bias.
- In terms of informal administrator mentoring, there is the propensity for novice women administrators to feel more comfortable being mentored by women administrators. In addition, novice minority school administrators may feel more comfortable with those mentors who belong in the same ethnic group as the mentees. This is due to the mentees' perceptions of the mentors being more empathetic and understanding of the challenges and issues that they may face due to having the same backgrounds. Villani (2006) stated that when mentoring in the educational field first began in the mid-1980's, it was common practice for mentees to select their own

- mentors based upon same backgrounds and comfort level, which resulted in like relationships.
- Mentored administrators may have higher earning potentials compared to their non-mentored counterparts due to increased confidence, competence, satisfaction, and productivity.
 - As discussed earlier in Chapter 2, Ensher and Murphy (2011), Scandura and Pellegrini (2010), Villani (2006), Enrich, Hansford, and Tennent (2004), and Daresh (2004) found that school systems with formal administrator mentoring programs have improved productivity compared to those systems that do not have the programs.
 - Despite limited fiscal resources, school officials should push for funding of administrator mentoring programs based upon this and other research studies.

Recommendations for Future Research

The following future research efforts are recommended:

1. A study should be conducted comparing mentored secondary school administrators to non-mentored secondary school administrators relative to retention.
2. A study should be conducted comparing minority secondary school administrators who are mentored to minority secondary school administrators who are not mentored relative to retention.
3. A study should be conducted analyzing the effects of types of administrator mentoring on the retention, pay, and performance of secondary school administrators.
4. A study should be conducted analyzing the effects of types of administrator mentoring on the retention, pay, and performance of minority secondary school administrators.

5. A study should be conducted to determine a relationship between types of administrator mentoring and retention of secondary school administrators in the state of Alabama.
6. A study should be conducted to determine a relationship between types of administrator mentoring and retention of secondary school administrators in the United States.
7. A study should be conducted to determine a relationship between types of administrator mentoring and retention of elementary school administrators.
8. A study should be conducted to determine a relationship between types of administrator mentoring and retention of post-secondary administrators.
9. A study should be conducted to determine a relationship between types of administrator mentoring and retention of elementary, secondary, and post-secondary administrators.
10. A study should be conducted comparing mentored K–12 school administrators to non-mentored K–12 school administrators relative to retention.

REFERENCES

- Allen, T. D., & Eby, L. T. (2010). *The Blackwell handbook of mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach*. Malden: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Alsbury T. L., & Hackmann, D. (2006). Learning from Experience: Initial findings of a mentoring/induction program for novice principals and superintendents. *Planning and Changing*, 37(3 & 4), 169–189.
- Angelle, P. S. (2002). *T.O.S.S. it to the new teacher: The principal's role in the induction process*. Austin: Southwest Educational Research Association.
- Ashburn, E. A., Mann, M., & Purdue, P. A. (1987, April). Teacher mentoring: ERIC clearinghouse on teacher education. Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W.H. Freeman.
- Banks, C. M. (1995). Gender and race as factors in educational leadership and administration. In J. A. Banks, & C. M. Banks (Eds.), *Handbook of research on multicultural education* (pp. 65–80). New York: McMillan.
- Barnett, B. G. (1995). Developing reflection and expertise: Can mentors make the difference? *Journal of Educational Administration*, 3(5), 45–59.
- Barnett, K., & McCormick, J. (2003). Vision, relationships, and teacher motivation: A case study. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 41(1), 55–73.

- Barth, R. (2003). *Lessons learned: Shaping relationships and the culture of the workplace* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Baugh, S. G., & Scandura, T. A. (1999). The effect of multiple mentors on protege attitude towards the job setting. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 14*, 503–521.
- Beach, G., & Keiser, K. (2011). To be or not to be...a school leader: Motivators of education administration candidates. *NCPEA Education Leadership Review: Portland Conference Special Edition*. Portland: NCPEA.
- Beekley, C. (1999). Dancing in red shoes: Why women leave the superintendency. In C. C. Brunner, *Sacred dreams: Women and the superintendency*. Albany: State University of New York.
- Bova, B. M., & Phillips, R. R. (1984). Mentoring as a learning experience for adults. *Journal of Teacher Education, 35*(3), 16–20.
- Brause, R. (2002). *Doctoral dissertations: Dilemmas for doctoral students doctoral courses, and doctoral faculty*. New Orleans: American Educational Research Association.
- Brown, F. (2005, October). African-Americans and school leadership: An introduction. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 41*(4), 585–590.
- Browne-Ferrigno, T. (2003). Becoming a principal: role conception, initial socialization, role-identity transformation, purposeful engagement. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 39*, 468–503.
- Brunner, C. C. (1999, July). *Sacred dreams: Women and the superintendency* (Vol. 9). New York: State University of New York Press.
- Bucceri, E. (2006, May). The role of the principal. *EdCal*, 1-6. Retrieved from <http://www.acsa.org>

- Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2011, Winter). Occupations with the greatest retiree replacement needs; projected 1998-2008. *Occupation Outlook Quarterly*, 45(1). Retrieved from stats.bis.gov/pub/ooq/oochart.htm
- Bush, T. (2003). *Educational management* (3rd ed.). London: Sage Publications.
- Cambron-McCabe, N., & McCarthy, M. M. (2005, January/March). Educating school leaders for social justice. *Educational Policy*, 19(1), 201–222.
- Carrigan, J., Brown, C., & Jenkins, K. (1999). *Principal's salaries: Incentives or deterrents to professional advancement*. Seattle, WA: American Education Finance Association.
- Chao, G. T., Walz, P., & Gardner, P. D. (1992). Formal and informal mentorships: A comparison on mentoring functions and contrast with nonmentored counterparts. *Personnel Psychology*, 45(3), 619–636.
- Chickering, A. W., & Havighurst, R. J. (1981). The life cycle. In A. W. Chickering & Associates, *The modern American college: Responding to the new realities of diverse students and a changing society* (pp. 16–50). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Coleman, M., & Campbell-Stephens, R. (2010). Perceptions of career progress: The experience of Black and minority ethnic school leaders. *School Leadership and Management*, 30(1), 35–39.
- Collin, P. A. (2009). Female special education administrators' perceptions of mentoring relationships. ProQuest UMI.
- Cranston, N. C. (2007). Through the eyes of potential aspirants: Another view of the principalship. *School Leadership and Management*, 27, 109–128.
- Cross, K. (1981). *Adults as learners: Increasing participation and facilitating learning* (1st ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

- Crow, G. M. (2006). Complexity and the beginning principal in the United States: Perspectives on socialization. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 44(4), 310–325.
- Crow, G. M., & Glascock, C. H. (1995, July). Transformational leadership: Attractions of women and minority recruits to the principalship. *Journal of School Leadership*, 5, 356–378.
- Crow, G., & Matthews, L. J. (1998). *Finding one's way: How mentoring can lead to dynamic leadership*. Thousand Oaks: Corwin Press.
- Crow, G. M., Matthews, L. J., & McCleary, L. E. (1996). *Leadership: A relevant and realistic role for principals*. Princeton: Eye on Education.
- Cunningham, W. G., & Cordeiro, P. A. (2006). *Educational leadership: A problem-based approach* (3rd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Cunningham, W. G., & Cordeiro, P. A. (2009). *Educational leadership: A bridge to improved practice* (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Daloz, L. A. (1999). *Mentor: Guiding the journey of adult learners*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Daresh, J. (2004, October). Mentoring school leaders: Professional promise or predictable problems? *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 40(4), 495–517.
- Daresh, J. C. (1995). Research base on mentoring for educational leaders: What do we know? *Journal of Educational Administration*, 33(5), 7–16.
- Daresh, J., & Laplant, J. (1985). Developing a research agenda for administrator in-service. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 18(2), 39–43.
- Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., Meyerson, D., Orr, M., & Cohen, C. (2007). *Preparing school leaders for a changing world: Lessons from exemplary leadership development programs*. Stanford: Stanford University, Stanford Educational Leadership Institute.

- DeAngelis, K. J., & Kawakyu O'Connor, N. (2012). Examining the pipeline into educational administration: An analysis of applications and job offers. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 48(3), 468–505.
- Derrington, M. L., & Sharratt, G. (2009). Self-imposed barriers: What does it take for female leaders to move beyond the limits they set themselves to reach the superintendency? *The School Administrator*, 66(8). Retrieved from <http://www.aasa.org>
- Dimmock, C., & Walker, A. (2000). Developing comparative and international educational leadership and management: A cross-cultural model. *School Leadership and Management*, 20, 144.
- Draper, J. (2008). *Answering the critics of public schools*. Arlington: Educational Research Service.
- Eagly, A. H., & Carli, L. L. (2009, September). Navigating the labyrinth. *The School Administrator*, 66(8). Retrieved from <http://www.aasa.org>
- Eagly, A. H., Johannessen-Schmidt, M. C., & van Engen, M. L. (2003, July). Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles: A meta-analysis comparing women and men. *Psychol Bull*, 129(4), 569–591.
- Eby, L. T., & McManus, S. E. (2004). The protege role in negative mentoring experiences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65, 255–275.
- Educational Research Service. (2000). *The principal, keystone of a high-achieving school: attracting and keeping the leaders we need*. Retrieved December 3, 2008, from Educational Research Service: <http://www.ers.org>

- Ehrich, L. C., Hansford, B., & Tennent, L. (2004, October). Formal mentoring programs in education and other professions: A review of the literature. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 40*, 518–540.
- Ellinger, A. D. (2002). Mentoring in contexts: The workplace and educational institutions. In C. Hansman, *Critical Perspectives on Mentoring: Trends and Issues*.
- Elmore, R. F. (2006). *Leadership as the practice of improvement*. London, UK: OECD.
- Ensher, E. A., & Murphy, S. E. (2011). The mentoring relationship challenges scale: The impact of mentoring stage, type, and gender. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 79*, 253–266.
- Forum on Child and Family Statistics. (2011). *Number of Children, ages 0–17, living in the United States from 1994–2011 Tables*. Retrieved December 3, 2008, from Forum on Child and Family Statistics: <http://www.childstats.gov>
- Gajda, R., & Militello, M. (2008). Recruiting and retaining school principals: What we can learn from practicing administrators? *Journal of Scholarship and Practice, 5*(2), 14–20.
- Gardner, J. M. (2008, March/April). The multifaceted role of principals. *Principal, 34*.
- Geismar, T. J., Moms, J. D., & Lieberman, M. G. (2000). Selecting mentors as principalship interns. *Journal of School Leadership, 10*(3), 233–247.
- Gillborn, D. (2005). Education policy as an act of White supremacy: Whiteness, critical race theory, and education reform. *Journal of Education Policy, 20*(4), 485–505.
- Glanz, J. (2004). *The Assistant Principal's Handbook: Strategies for success*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Goertz, M. E., & Duffy, M. C. (2001). *Assessment and accountability systems in the 50 states: 1999–2000*. Philadelphia: Consortium for Policy Research in Education.

- Goodman, C. C., & Berry, C. S. (2011). *Great assistant principals and the (great) principals who mentor them*. Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.
- Grady, M., Krumm, B., & Peery, K. (1998). Pathways to administrative positions. (B. & Irby, Ed.) *Women Leaders: Structuring Success*, 88–99.
- Gravetter, F. J., & Wallnau, L.B. (2007). *Statistics for the behavioral sciences* (7th ed.). Belmont: Thomason-Wadsworth.
- Green, S. B., & Salkind, N. J. (2008). *Using SPSS for Windows and Macintosh: Analyzing and understanding data* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice-Hall.
- Grogan, M. (1996). *Voices of women aspiring to the superintendency*. Albany, NY: State University of New York.
- Grogan, M., & Shakeshaft, C. (2011). *Women and Educational Leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Grubb, W. N., & Flessa, J. J. (2006, October). A job too big for one: Multiple principals and other nontraditional approaches to school leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 42(4), 518–550.
- Guterman, J. (2007, April). *Where have all the principals gone?: The acute school-leader shortage*. Retrieved December 6, 2008, from Edutopia: www.edutopia.org/where-have-all-principals-gone
- Haar, J. M., & Robicheau, J. W. (2008). *Minority school leaders: Contribution of the development of an inclusive multicultural environment*. Mankato, MN: Minnesota State University Mankato.
- Hansford, B., & Ehrich, L. C. (2006). The principalship. How significant is mentoring? 44(1), 36–52.

- Hart, A. (1995, September). Reconceiving school leadership: Emergent views. *The Elementary School Journal*, 96(1), 9–28.
- Hartley, D. (2009). *Solving the assistant principal's puzzle*. Larchmont: Eye on Education.
- Henze, R., Katz, A., Norte, E., Sather, S. E., & Walker, E. (2002). *Leading for diversity: How school leaders promote positive interethnic relations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hess, F. M. (2003). *A license to lead? A new leadership agenda for America's schools*. Washington, DC: Progressive Policy Institute.
- Hess, F., & Kelly, A. (2007). Learning to lead: What gets taught in principal-preparation programs. *Teachers College Record*, 109(1), 244–274.
- Higgins, M. C., & Kram, K. E. (2001). Reconceptualizing mentoring at work: A developmental network perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 26, 264–288.
- Hopkins, G. (2000, November 1). *From the principal files: The principal shortage—What can schools do to attract a new generation of school leaders?* Retrieved December 6, 2008, from Education World: www.educationworld.com/a_admin/admin/admin197_b.shtml
- Hopkins, G. (2000, October 31). *From the principal files: The principal shortage—Why doesn't anybody want the job?* Retrieved December 6, 2008, from Education World: www.educationworld.com/a_admin/admin/admin197_a.shtml
- Hopkins-Thompson, P. (2003). *Making the case for principal mentoring*. (National Association of Elementary School Principals, & Education Alliance at Brown University, Eds.) Retrieved July 2011, from Education Alliance at Brown University: <http://www.alliance.brown.edu/pubs/pln/prncpalmntrg.pdf>

- Huang, C. A., & Lynch, J. (1995). *Mentoring: The Tao of giving and receiving wisdom* (1st ed.). New York: HarperCollins and Publishers.
- Jackson, B., & Kelly, C. (2002). Exceptional and innovative programs in educational leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 38(2), 192–212.
- Jones, E. H., & Montenegro, X. P. (1982). *Recent trends in the representation of women and minorities in school administration and problems in documentation*. Arlington, VA: American Association of School Administrators.
- Jonson, K. F. (2002). *Being an effective mentor: How to help beginning teachers succeed*. Thousand Oaks, VA: Corwin Press.
- Kersten, T. A., & Israel, M. S. (2005). Teacher evaluation: Principals' insights and suggestions for improvement. *Planning and Changing*, 36(1/2), 47–67.
- Knowles, M. (1980). *The Modern Practice of Adult Education: From pedagogy to andragogy*. Chicago: Follett.
- Koppich, J. (2005, Winter). All teachers are not the same: A multiple approach to teacher compensation. *Education Next*, 5(1), 13–15.
- Kram, K. (1985). *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life*. Glenview: Scott, Foresman.
- Kwan, P., & Walker, A. (2008, March). Vice-Principalship in Hong Kong: Aspirations, competencies, and satisfaction. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 19(1), 73–97.
- Lambert, L. (1998). *Building Leadership Capacity in Schools*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

- Levine, A. (2005). *Educating school leaders*. Retrieved from The Education Schools Project:
<http://www.edschools.org/pdf/Final313.pdf>
- Levinson, D. J., Darrow, C. N., Klein, E. B., Levinson, M. H., & McKee, B. (1978). *Seasons of a Man's Life*. New York: Knopf.
- Lewicki, R. J., & Bunker, B. B. (1995). Trust in relationships: A model of trust development and decline. In B. B. Bunker, & J. Z. Rubin (Eds.), *Conflict, cooperation, and justice* (pp. 133–173). San Francisco: Josey-Bass.
- Lindle, J., & Mawhinney, H. B. (2003). Introduction: School leadership and the politics of education. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 39(1), 3–9.
- Long, J. (1997). The dark side of mentoring. *The Australian Educational Researcher*, 24(2), 115–133.
- Lumby, J., & Coleman, M. (2007). *Leadership and diversity: Challenging theory and practice in education*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Lumby, J., & Morrison, M. (2010). Leadership and diversity: Theory and research. *School Leadership and Management*, 30(1), 3–17.
- Lunenburg, F. C., & Ornstein, A. C. (2008). *Educational administration concepts and practices* (5th ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomason and Wadsworth.
- Malone, B., & Caddell, T. (2000, January/February). A crisis in leadership: Where are tomorrow's principals? *The Clearinghouse*, 162–164.
- Marshall, C., & Hooley, R. M. (2006). *The assistant principal: Leadership, choices, and challenges* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

- Marzano, R. J., Waters, T., & McNulty, B. A. (2005). *School leadership that works: From research to results*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- McCann, I., & Radford, R. (1993). Mentoring for teachers: The collaborative approach. In B. Caldwell, & E. Carter (Eds.), *The return of the mentor: Strategies for workplace learning* (pp. 61–90). London: Palmer.
- McCreight, C. (2001, May). *Solutions to securing qualified principals*. Retrieved December 3, 2008, from ERIC: www.eric.ed.gov
- McEwan, E. K. (2003). *Ten traits of highly effective principals*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- McGuire, M. Y. (2002, Winter). The changing role of school leaders: Michigan leaders address the issue of principal certification. *Leading Change*, p. 2. Retrieved from http://www.cenmi.org/Portals/3/Documents/Publications/Lead%20ChangeW04_Goodman_Sharpe.pdf
- McKay, G. (1999, August 22). *Back to school: A matter of principals*. Retrieved December 3, 2008, from Post-Gazette: www.postgazette.com/regionstate/19990802principaipal1.asp
- Meggison, D., & Clutterback, D. (1995). *Mentoring in action*. London: Kogan Page.
- Mendez-Morse, S. (2004). Constructing mentors: Latina educational leaders' role models and mentors. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 40, 561–590.
- Mertz, N. T. (2004). What's a mentor, anyway? *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 40(4), 541–560.
- Michael, C. N., & Young, N. D. (2006). Preparing the next generation of school administrators: Advice from veteran leaders. *ERIC Database*. Retrieved from <http://www.eric.ed.gov>

- Montenegro, X. (1993). *Women and racial minority representation in school administration*. Alexandria, VA: American Association of School Administrators.
- Moore, T. (2009, September/October). Let's end the ambiguous role of assistant principals. *Principal*, 66–67. Retrieved from <http://www.naesp.org>
- Murphy, J., & Vriesenga, M. (2006, April). Research on school leadership preparation in the United States: An analysis. *School Leadership and Management*, 26(2), 183–195.
- Murtadha, K., & Watts, D. M. (2005). Linking the struggle for education and social justice: Historical perspectives of African-American leadership in schools. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 41(4), 591–608.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2011). *Characteristics of School Principals tables and Children in the United States Ages 0-17 by Race and Ethnic Origin*. Retrieved from National Center for Education Statistics: <http://nces.ed.gov>
- Nelson, S. W., De la Colina, M. G., & Boone, M. D. (2008). Lifeworld or systemworld: What guides novice principals? *Journal of Educational Administration*, 46(6), 690–701.
- Norton, M. A. (2003). Let's keep our quality principals on the job. *The High School Journal*, 86, 50–56.
- Ortiz, F. I. (2000). Who controls succession in the superintendency? A minority perspective. *Urban Education*, 35(5), 557–566.
- Parkay, F. W., Currie, G., & Rhodes, J. (1992). Professional socialization: A longitudinal study of first-time high school principals. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 28(1), 43–75.
- Payne, S. C., & Huffman, A. H. (2005, February). A longitudinal examination of the influence of mentoring on organizational commitment and turnover. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 48(1), 158–168.

- Peel, H. A., Buckner, K. G., Wrenn, S. L., & Evans, R. (1998, December). Improving leadership preparation programs through a school, university, and professional organization partnership. *NASSP Bulletin*, 82(602), 26–34.
- Peters, A. (2010, January 1). Elements of successful mentoring of a female school leader. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 9(1), 108–129.
- Peterson, K. D. (2002). The professional development of principals: Innovations and opportunities. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 38(2), 213–232.
- Phillips-Jones, L. L. (1982). *Mentors and proteges*. New York: Arbor House.
- Playko, M. A., & Daresh, J. C. (1992). *Field-based preparation programs: Reform of administrator training or leadership development?* Retrieved July 2006, from ERIC: <http://www.eric.ed.gov>
- Pont, B., Nusche, D., & Moorman, H. (2008). *Improving school leadership, Volume 1: Policy and Practice*. Paris, FR: OECD.
- Portin, B., Alejano, C., Knapp, M., & Marzolf, E. (2006). *Redefining roles, responsibilities, and authority of school leaders*. Seattle, WA: Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy.
- Pounder, D. G., & Merrill, R. J. (2001). Job desirability of the high school principalship: A job choice theory perspective. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 37, 27–57.
- Queen, J. A., & Schumacher, D. (2006, November/December). A survival guide of frazzled principals. *Principal*, 18–26. Retrieved from <http://www.naesp.org>
- Quinn, T. (2002). Successful planning: Start today. *Principal Leadership*, 3(2), 24–28.
- Ragins, B. R., & Kram, K. E. (2007). *The handbook of mentoring at work: Theory, research, and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

- Rusch, E. A. (2004, February). Gender and race in leadership preparation: A constrained discourse. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 40(1), 14–46.
- Sacken, D. (1994). No more principals! *Phi Delta Kappan*, 75(9), 664–670.
- Sanchez, J. E., Thornton, B., & Usinger, J. (2009, October). Increasing the ranks of minority principals. *Educational Leadership*, 67(2). Retrieved from <http://www.ascd.org>
- Scandura, T. A., & Pellegrini, E. K. (2003). A multidimensional model of trust and LMX. *Southern Management Association*. Clearwater Beach, FL.
- Scandura, T. A., & Pellegrini, E. K. (2010). Workplace mentoring: Theoretical approaches and methodical issues. In T. D. Allen, & L. T. Eby, *The Blackwell handbook of mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach* (pp. 71–91). Malden: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Schlechty, P. (2005). *Creating great schools: Six critical systems*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schuman, D. (2004). *American schools, American teachers: Issues and perspectives*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Shen, J., Cooley, V., & Wegenke, G. (2004). Perspectives on factors influencing application of principalship: A comparative study of teachers, principals, and superintendents. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 7(1), 57–70.
- Shoho, A. R., & Barnett, B. G. (2010). The realities of new principals: Challenges, joys, and sorrows. *Journal of School Leadership*, 20(5), 561–596.
- Shoho, A. R., Barnett, B. G., & Tooms, A. K. (2010). *The challenges for new principals in the 21st century: Developing leadership capabilities through professional support*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Singh, A., Vinnicombe, S., & Kumra, S. (2006). Women in formal corporate networks: An organizational citizenship perspective. *Women in Management Review*, 21(6), 458–482.

- Singh, V., Bains, D., & Vinnicombe, S. (2002). Informal mentoring as an organisational resource. *Long Range Planning*, 35, 389–405.
- Sperandio, J. (2009). Confronting issues of gender and ethnicity: Women's experiences as aspiring urban principals. *Journal of Research on Educational Leadership*, 4(4), 67–95.
- Sperandio, J. (2010). Modeling cultural context for aspiring women educational leaders. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 48(6), 716–726.
- Stefkovich, J. A., & Shapiro, J. (2005). *Ethical leadership and decision making in education* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Stevenson, H. (2006). Moving towards, into, and through principalship: Developing a framework for researching the career trajectories of school leaders. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 44(4), 408–420.
- Tallerico, M. (2000, February). Gaining access to the superintendency: Headhunting, gender, and color. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 36(1), 18–43.
- Thody, A. (1993). Mentoring for school principals. In B. Caldwell & E. Carter (Eds.), *The return of the mentor: Strategies for workplace learning*, 111–127.
- Tirozzi, G. (2000, March). *The principalship*. Retrieved June 29, 2012, from Education Week: <http://www.edweek.org>
- Tirozzi, G. (2001, February). The art of leadership: The evolving role of the secondary school principal. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 82(6), 434–439.
- Turner, M. (1993). The role of mentors and teacher tutors in school based teacher education and induction. *British Journal of In-Service Education*, 19(1), 36–45.
- U.S. Army JROTC. (2005). *Citizenship in action and leadership theory and application*. Boston: Pearson Custom Publication.

- Ubben, G., Hughes, L., & Norris, C. (2001). *The principal: Creative leadership for effective schools*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- United States Congress. (2001). *No Child Left Behind Act of 2001*. Retrieved from United States Department of Education: <http://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/esea02/107-110.pdf>
- United States Department of Education. (2008). *A Nation Accountable: Twenty-fives Years After A Nation at Risk*. United States Department of Education. Retrieved from <http://www.edpubs.org>
- Usdan, M., McCloud, B., Podmostko, M., & Cuban, L. (2001). *Leadership for learning: Restructuring school district leadership*. Washington, DC: Institute for Educational Leadership.
- Van Maanen, J., & Schein, E. (1979). Toward a theory of organizational socialization. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 1, 209–254.
- Villani, S. (2006). *Mentoring and induction programs that supports new principals*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Wasden, D. (1988). *The mentoring handbook*. Provo, UT: Brigham Young University.
- Webber, M., & Bezanson, K. (2008). *Rethinking society in the 21st century: Critical readings in sociology*. Toronto: Canadian Scholars' Press, Inc.
- Weingarter, C. (2009). *Mentoring for principals: A safe, supportive and simple approach*. Thousands Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Whitaker, K., & Vogel, L. R. (2005). Joining the ranks: Opportunities and obstacles in obtaining principal positions. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, 14(4).
- Wilkin, M. (1992). *Mentoring in schools*. London: Kogan Page.

- Williams, A. (2006). *Principals' pay fails to keep pace with cost of living: Annual survey examines five years of salaries*. Retrieved December 3, 2008, from Educational Research Service: www.ers.org
- Williams, E. A. (2000). Team mentoring: New directions for research on employee development in organizations. *Academy of Management Meeting*. Toronto.
- Williams, E. A., Scandura, T. A., & Hamilton, B. A. (2001). Dysfunctional mentoring relationships and negative social exchange: Uncovering some unpleasant realities in mentoring relationships. *Southern Management Association* (pp. 62–66). New Orleans.
- Winans, D. (2005, October). *The bill's come due*. Retrieved December 3, 2008, from NEA: www.nea.org/neatoday/0510/coverstory.html
- Woodruff, S. B., & Kowalski, T. J. (2010). Problems reported by novice high school principals. In A. Shoho, B. Barnett, & A. K. Tooms (Eds.), *International research on school leadership: The challenges for new principals in the 21st century*. Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Wynn, S. (2003). *Leadership skilled women teachers who say no to school administration: A case of career choice or career constraint?* Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina.
- Yerkes, D. M., & Guaglianone, C. L. (1998, November/December). Where have all the high school administrators gone? *Thrust for Educational Leadership*, 28(2), 10–15.
- Young, P., Sheets, J., & Knight, D. (2005). *Mentoring principals: Framework, agendas, tips, and case stories for mentors and mentees*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Zachary, L. J. (2000). *The mentor's guide: Facilitating effective learning relationships* (1st ed.). San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Zachary, L. J. (2011). *The mentor's guide: Facilitating effective learning relationships* (2nd ed.).

San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Zimpher, N., & Rieger, S. (1988). Mentoring teachers: What are the issues? *Theory into*

Practice, 27(3), 175–182.

APPENDIX A

Table 12—Characteristics of Secondary School Principals (1999-2008): Administrative Experience, Teaching Experience, Median Annual Salary, Annual Salary

Principal characteristic	Secondary					
	1999-2000			2007-08		
	All	Public	Private	All	Public	Private
Total, number	23,100	20,500	2,600	24,500	21,600	2,900
Total, percentage	100.0	88.6	11.4	100.0	88.0	12.0
Number of years as a principal	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
3 or fewer	29.6	30.3	23.4	35.0	35.5	31.0
4-9	33.5	33.7	32.0	35.6	36.6	28.8
10-19	26.2	25.9	28.8	22.7	22.5	24.3
20 or more	10.8	10.1	15.8	6.6	5.4	15.9
Number of years of teaching experience prior to becoming a principal	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
3 or fewer	7.4	6.4	15.5	8.4	6.8	20.4
4-9	31.1	31.6	27.3	34.5	34.9	31.5
10-19	44.0	44.8	37.7	39.7	41.5	26.7
20 or more	17.5	17.2	19.6	17.4	16.8	21.4
Median annual salary, in constant 2009-10 dollars ⁴	\$84,800	\$86,900	\$66,500	\$88,000	\$90,100	\$67,600
Annual salary, in constant 2009-10 dollars, percentage ⁴	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than \$30,000	1.2	0.1	10.7	0.7 ¹	‡	5.7 ¹
\$30,000-44,999	1.5	0.6	9.1	1.8	0.8 ¹	8.8
\$45,000-59,999	7.9	6.3	21.5	5.8	3.6	22.2
\$60,000-74,999	21.1	21.3	20.1	19.6	19.4	21.2
\$75,000-99,999	42.4	44.8	23.1	39.5	41.8	22.2
\$100,000 or more	25.8	27.0	15.6	32.6	34.3	19.8

— Not available.

¹ Interpret with caution. The standard error of the estimate is equal to 30 percent or more of the estimate's value.

[‡] Reporting standards not met.

¹ Included in the total but not shown separately are principals in combined schools. This analysis focuses on principals in elementary and secondary schools. These principals made up 90 percent of all principals in 1999-2000 and 87 percent in 2007-08.

² Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. In 1999-2000, "Asian" and "Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander" were not reported separately; therefore, "Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander" is included in "Asian." Respondents were not able to report two or more races in the 1999-2000 questionnaire. For more information on race/ethnicity, see *supplemental note 1*.

³ "Education specialist or professional diploma" is a certificate of advanced graduate studies. See glossary for the definition of this type of degree and for a list of first-professional degrees.

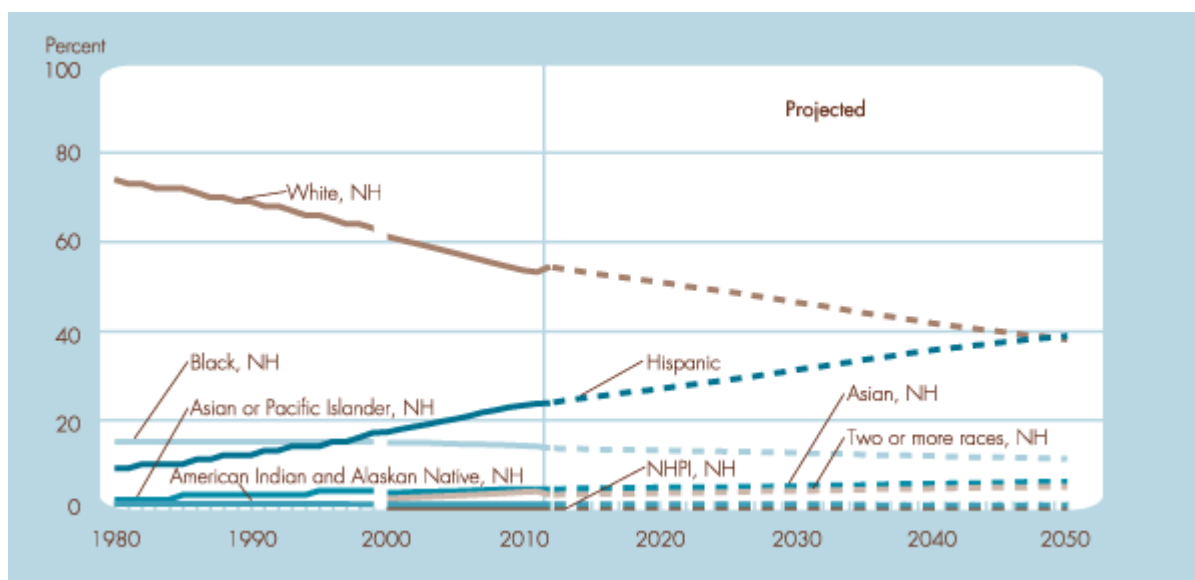
⁴ Median annual salary was calculated in 2009-10 school year constant dollars and adjusted using the Consumer Price Index (CPI). For more information on the CPI, see *supplemental note 10*.

NOTE: Principals from Bureau of Indian Education schools were excluded from the analysis. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. For more information on the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), see *supplemental note 3*.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), "Public School Principal and Private School Principal Data Files," 1999-2000 and 2007-08, and "Charter School Principal Data File," 1999-2000.

APPENDIX B

Percentage of Children Ages 0–17 in the United States by Race and Hispanic Origin, 1980–2011 and Projected 2012–2050



NOTE: The acronym NH refers to non-Hispanic origin. The acronym NHPI refers to the Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander population. Each group represents the non-Hispanic population, with the exception of the Hispanic category itself. Race data from 2000 onward are not directly comparable with data from earlier years. Data on race and Hispanic origin are collected separately. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race. Population projections are based on Census 2000 and may not be consistent with the 2010 Census results.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Decennial Censuses and Population Estimates and Projections.

APPENDIX C

Table 13—School Principal Characteristics (1993-2004): Sex, Age, Race/Ethnicity, & Highest Degree Earned

Characteristic	All principals ¹	Elementary ²			Secondary ²		
		All	Public	Private	All	Public	Private
1993–94							
Total, number	104,600	67,000	53,700	13,400	20,600	18,300	2,300
Total, percentage	100.0	69.0	80.1	19.9	21.2	88.8	11.2
Sex							
Male	60.9	53.6	58.9	32.3	84.0	86.2	66.0
Female	39.1	46.4	41.1	67.7	16.0	13.8	34.0
Age							
Under 40	10.3	9.3	7.4	16.9	8.2	7.6	13.0
40–44	18.1	18.3	18.8	16.4	18.3	18.2	19.5
45–49	29.2	29.3	31.2	21.6	32.3	33.9	20.0
50–54	22.0	22.0	23.7	15.1	23.7	23.5	25.7
55 and over	20.4	21.1	18.9	30.0	17.4	16.8	21.8
Race/ethnicity³							
White	86.2	84.6	83.0	91.1	89.1	88.2	96.1
Black	8.7	9.7	10.8	5.0	6.6	7.3	1.5
Hispanic	3.6	4.0	4.5	2.1	3.1	3.2	2.1
Asian	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.3	0.3	0.2
Pacific Islander	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
American Indian/Alaska Native	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.1
Highest degree earned							
No degree	1.6	1.1	#	5.3	#	#	0.2
Associate's	0.4	0.3	#	1.8	#	#	#
Bachelor's	7.3	6.4	1.5	26.1	1.7	1.2	6.0
Master's	60.6	62.2	64.1	54.2	63.5	63.1	67.4
Education specialist or professional diploma ⁴	21.6	22.2	25.7	8.0	24.1	25.4	14.0
Doctoral or first-professional ⁵	8.5	7.8	8.6	4.7	10.5	10.3	12.4
1999–2000							
Total, number	110,000	75,900	60,100	15,800	23,100	20,500	2,600
Total, percentage	100.0	69.0	79.2	20.8	21.0	88.6	11.4
Sex							
Male	53.7	44.9	48.2	32.4	76.9	78.3	66.3
Female	46.4	55.1	51.8	67.6	23.1	21.8	33.7
Age							
Under 40	11.1	10.5	9.9	12.9	9.9	10.0	9.6
40–44	12.7	12.5	12.6	12.5	13.1	12.9	14.6
45–49	22.6	22.6	23.7	18.6	22.8	23.1	20.4
50–54	30.0	30.0	32.0	22.4	32.8	33.5	28.0
55 and over	23.7	24.3	21.9	33.6	21.4	20.6	27.3
Race/ethnicity³							
White	83.9	82.2	81.2	86.2	86.6	85.6	94.5
Black	9.8	11.1	11.8	8.1	7.6	8.4	1.3!
Hispanic	4.7	5.1	5.6	3.2	4.0	4.1	3.1!
Asian	0.9	1.0	0.7!	1.9	0.7!	0.8!	0.3!
Pacific Islander	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
American Indian/Alaska Native	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	1.1	1.1	0.9!
Highest degree earned							
No degree	1.5	0.9	#	4.2	0.1!	#	1.1
Associate's	0.3	0.2!	#	0.7!	#	#	0.1!
Bachelor's	7.0	6.5	1.8	24.4	2.7	1.4	13.3
Master's	53.5	54.1	53.9	54.7	56.1	55.8	58.6
Education specialist or professional diploma ⁴	28.1	29.5	34.6	9.9	29.6	31.3	16.0
Doctoral or first-professional ⁵	9.8	8.9	9.7	6.1	11.5	11.6	10.9

See notes at end of table.

Characteristic	All principals ¹	Elementary ²			Secondary ²		
		All	Public	Private	All	Public	Private
2003–04							
Total, number	115,000	78,200	61,500	16,700	22,200	19,700	2,500
Total, percentage	100.0	67.8	78.6	21.4	19.3	88.7	11.3
Sex							
Male	50.3	41.3	44.0	31.4	73.1	74.0	66.6
Female	49.7	58.7	56.0	68.6	26.9	26.0	33.4
Age							
Under 40	15.0	14.9	14.8	15.2	12.8	12.6	14.3
40–44	10.9	10.6	10.5	10.9	11.0	11.2	8.7
45–49	17.5	17.5	18.3	14.3	18.5	18.8	15.9
50–54	26.0	26.6	28.0	21.5	25.9	27.3	15.4
55 and over	30.7	30.5	28.5	38.2	31.9	30.1	45.7
Race/ethnicity³							
White	84.2	82.4	81.0	87.5	85.9	84.8	95.0
Black	9.3	10.3	11.4	6.6	8.7	9.4	3.2
Hispanic	4.8	5.5	6.0	3.3	4.1	4.4	1.2
Asian	0.7	0.8	0.6	1.6	0.4	0.3	0.4
Pacific Islander	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	#
American Indian/Alaska Native	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.1
Highest degree earned							
No degree	1.8	1.4	#	6.6	0.4	#	3.2
Associate's	0.8	0.7	0.1	2.7	0.1	#	0.8
Bachelor's	6.8	6.0	1.0	24.1	3.6	2.9	9.3
Master's	56.9	57.8	59.9	50.0	57.1	56.4	62.9
Education specialist or professional diploma ⁴	25.6	26.5	30.5	12.0	28.7	30.7	13.0
Doctoral or first-professional ⁵	8.2	7.7	8.5	4.6	10.1	10.0	10.9

— Not available.

¹ Interpret data with caution (estimates are unstable).

Rounds to zero.

² Included in the totals but not shown separately are principals of combined elementary and secondary schools.

³ Roughly 900 cases were missing data for the school level variable in 1993–94; these cases were excluded from the school-level analyses.

⁴ Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Before 2003–04, Asian and Pacific Islander were not reported separately; therefore, Pacific Islander is included in Asian for the 1993–94 and 1999–2000 survey administrations.

⁵ At least 1 year beyond the master's level.

⁶ An award that requires completion of a degree program that meets all of the following criteria: (1) completion of the academic requirements to begin practice in the profession; (2) at least 2 years of college work before entering the degree program; and (3) a total of at least 6 academic years of college work to complete the degree program, including previously required college work plus the work required in the professional program itself. See glossary for a complete list of first-professional degrees.

NOTE: Data are only for principals, not assistant principals. Principals from Bureau of Indian Affairs schools were excluded from the analysis. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. See *supplemental note 3* for more information on the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS). Some estimates have been revised from previous publications.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), "Public School Principal Data File" and "Private School Principal Data File," 1993–94, 1999–2000, and 2003–04 and "Charter School Principal Data File," 1999–2000.

APPENDIX D

Table 14—Secondary School Principal Characteristics (1999-2008): Sex, Age, Race/Ethnicity, & Highest Degree Earned

Principal characteristic	Secondary					
	1999-2000			2007-08		
	All	Public	Private	All	Public	Private
Total, number	23,100	20,500	2,600	24,500	21,600	2,900
Total, percentage	100.0	88.6	11.4	100.0	88.0	12.0
Sex	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Male	76.9	78.2	66.3	70.6	71.5	64.4
Female	23.1	21.8	33.7	29.4	28.5	35.6
Age	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under 40	9.9	10.0	9.6	18.7	19.0	16.2
40-44	13.1	12.9	14.6	14.4	14.6	12.9
45-49	22.8	23.1	20.4	15.1	15.4	12.8
50-54	32.8	33.5	28.0	21.0	21.5	17.3
55 and over	21.4	20.6	27.3	30.8	29.5	40.8
Race/ethnicity ²	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
White	86.6	85.6	94.5	85.0	84.1	91.2
Black	7.6	8.4	‡	9.2	9.8	4.9!
Hispanic	4.0	4.1	3.1!	4.1	4.5	‡
Asian	0.7!	0.8!	‡	‡	‡	‡
Native Hawaiian/ Pacific Islander	—	—	—	0.1!	0.1!	‡
American Indian/ Alaska Native	1.1	1.1	‡	0.6!	0.4!	‡
Two or more races	—	—	—	‡	‡	‡
Highest degree earned	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Bachelor's degree or less	2.9	1.4	14.5	3.3	1.3!	18.0
Master's	56.1	55.7	58.6	60.8	61.0	59.5
Education specialist or professional diploma ³	29.5	31.3	16.0	26.6	28.6	11.8
Doctoral or first-professional	11.5	11.6	10.9	9.3	9.1	10.7

APPENDIX E

MENTORING SURVEY

Mentoring is a tool that gives assistance to new administrators and can be paramount to their success. (Alsbury and Hackman, 2006; Daresh, 2004; Barth, 2003; Thody, 1993; Daresh and Laplant, 1985) It is an informal or formal arrangement where experienced practitioners [mentors] are accessible in providing guidance and support to inexperienced administrators [mentees]. (Ashburn, Mann, and Purdue, 1987) Mentoring relationships may be created informally or may be assigned formally through established programs.

For this survey, please answer each question based upon your experience having someone who was influential to you while serving as school administrator.

1. Gender: M_____ F_____
2. Ethnicity: White_____ Black_____ Hispanic_____ Native American_____
Asian_____ Pacific Islander_____
3. School Administrative Role: Assistant Principal_____ Principal_____
4. At what type of school are you an administrator: Middle School/Junior High_____
High School_____ Alternative School_____
5. How long have you been assistant principal? _____Years
6. How long have you been principal? _____Years
7. Did you have a special person involved with your professional development whom you would call a mentor? Yes_____ No_____ (**If no, please skip to question 24**)
8. Number of mentors that you have had: _____
9. How long did the mentoring relationship with the **most** influence on your administrative career last? _____Years

10. Please rate the formality of how you were paired with your most influential mentor: **(Choose only one)**

Very Informal (1) _____ Somewhat Informal (2) _____
Mixture of Informal and Formal (3) _____ Somewhat Formal (4) _____
Very Formal (5) _____

11. Which category best describes your most influential mentor? **(Check all that apply)**

_____ School Teacher _____ Counselor _____ Friend
_____ College Professor _____ Minister/Pastor _____ Role Model
_____ Relative _____ Spouse _____ School Administrator
_____ Supervisor _____ Athletic Coach _____ District Administrator
_____ Colleague/Peer _____ Family Friend
_____ Spouse _____ Consultant

12. Was your most influential mentor a school or district administrator? Yes _____ No _____
(If no, please skip to question 14)

13. If yes, what was his/her position: _____

14. If no, what area of expertise did your mentor have: _____

15. In what type of environment did your mentoring experiences primarily take place? **(Check all that apply)**

_____ In a social setting (i.e. restaurant, church) _____ At the school
_____ At a college or university
_____ At central office
_____ Other (Please specify) _____

16. How would you describe your current relationship with your most influential mentor? **(Check all that apply)**

_____ Friends _____ Frequent contact
_____ Lost contact with mentor _____ Supervisor
_____ Mentor has passed away
_____ Mentoring relationship has severed _____ Infrequent contact
_____ Mentor moved or transferred _____ Mentor promoted to new position
_____ Peer/colleague _____ Other (specify) _____
_____ Positive mentoring relationship _____ Negative mentoring relationship

17. When did your mentoring relationship begin?

_____ When you became a teacher
_____ When you became a graduate student
_____ When you became an assistant principal
_____ When you became a principal

18. Have you been a mentor to another administrator? Yes _____ No _____ **(If no, please skip to question 26)**

19. How many administrators have you mentored? _____

20. For the most significant mentee, what was his/her position: _____

21. Please rate the formality of how you were paired with your most significant mentee (**Choose only one**):

Very Informal (1) _____ Somewhat Informal (2) _____
Mixture of Informal and Formal (3) _____ Somewhat Formal (4) _____
Very Formal (5) _____

22. How would you describe your current relationship with your most significant mentee? (Check all that apply)

_____ Friends _____ Frequent contact
_____ Lost contact with mentee _____ Negative mentoring relationship
_____ Mentee has passed away _____ Peer/colleague
_____ Mentee moved or transferred to another school _____ Mentee promoted to new position
_____ Mentoring relationship has severed _____ Infrequent contact
_____ Other (specify) _____ Positive mentoring relationship

23. How long has your mentoring relationship with your most significant mentee last?

_____ Years (**After answering question 23, please skip to question 26**)

24. **Answer this question only if you marked “No” for question 7.**

Would it have made a difference on your administrative preparation and professional development if you had a mentor? _____ Yes _____ No

25. **Answer this question only if you marked “No” for question 7**

Why do you not have a mentor? (**Check all that apply and then go to question 26**)

_____ There is not a mentoring program at my school system
_____ I completed a degree program in educational administration
_____ I do not feel a need to have a mentor
_____ I had a bad experience with a mentor
_____ I am not familiar with the concept of mentoring
_____ Other (specify) _____

26. Please rank in order the factors you think were influential to your current administrative role.

Please number in the order of significance: **1(most influential) to 7(least influential)**

_____ Academic degree program in educational administration
_____ Formal mentoring program
_____ Informal mentoring relationships
_____ On the job training as an administrator
_____ Personal and professional experiences as an administrator
_____ Leadership qualities and abilities
_____ The guidance of a particular role model

27. Within the next five years, which position do you foresee yourself holding in the educational field?

_____ Assistant Principal
_____ Principal
_____ District Administrator (i.e. Director of Special Education, Superintendent)
_____ School Teacher
_____ College Professor
_____ Other (specify) _____

Survey References

- Alsbury T.L. & Hackmann, D. (2006). "Learning from Experience: Initial findings of a mentoring/induction program for novice principals and superintendents". *Planning and Changing* , 37 (3 & 4), 169-189.
- Ashburn, E. M. (1987, April). Teacher mentoring: ERIC clearinghouse on teacher education. *American Educational Research Association*. Washington, DC.
- Barth, R. (2003). *Lessons learned: Shaping relationships and the culture of the workplace* (2nd Edition ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Daresh, J. (2004). "Mentoring School Leaders: Professional Promise or Predictable Problems?". *Educational Administration Quarterly* , 40 (4), 495-517.
- Daresh, J. &. (1985). "Developing a research agenda for administrator in-service". *Journal of Research and Development in Education* , 18 (2), 39-43.
- Grubb, W. &. (2006). "A Job Too Big for One: Multiple Principals & Other Nontraditional Approaches to School Leadership". *Educational Administration Quarterly* , 42 (4), 518-550.
- Hopkins, G. (2000, November 1). "From the Principal Files: The Principal Shortage—What Can Schools Do to Attract a New Generation of School Leaders?". Retrieved December 6, 2008, from Education World: www.educationworld.com/a_admin/admin/admin197_b.shtml
- Thody, A. (1993). "Mentoring for school principals. In B. Caldwell & E. Carter (Eds.)". *The return of the mentor: Strategies for workplace learning* , 111-127.
- Williams, A. (2006). "Principals' Pay Fails to Keep Pace With Cost of Living: Annual survey Examines Five Years of Salaries". Retrieved December 3, 2008, from Educational Research Service: www.ers.org

APPENDIX F

Permission Letter to Administer Surveys

July 16, 2010

RE: Permission letter to administer surveys for doctoral dissertation

I am a doctoral candidate at Auburn University. With the supervision of Dr. James E. Witte, I am writing a dissertation involving a possible relationship between mentoring relationships and retaining secondary school administrators in the River Heritage Region of Alabama. The purpose of this letter is to request your permission to disseminate, by email, a mentoring survey instrument to the secondary school principals and assistant principals in your school system.

The survey will take approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete. The results of the study will help to identify the types of mentoring relationships used by administrators as well as the characteristics of effective mentoring relationships. Participation is strictly voluntary. In addition, confidentiality is very important. Neither the administrators' names nor school names will be identified in this study.

After the study is completed, I will be more than happy to share the results of your school system's surveys upon request.

If you would like, I can discuss this study with you in person, via email, or via telephone. My telephone numbers are (334) 821-2063[H] / (334) 320-5768 [C]. My email address is flowerc@auburn.edu. Thank you in advance for your assistance and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Robbi C. Flowers

APPENDIX G

INFORMATION LETTER

FOR

The Effects of Formal Administrator Mentoring Programs and the Retention Rate of Secondary School Administrators in the River Heritage Region of Alabama

My name is Ms. Robbi C. Flowers, a doctoral candidate at Auburn University under the direction of Dr. James E. Witte. You are invited to participate in a study involving mentoring relationships and retaining secondary school administrators. The results of this study will help to identify different types of mentoring relationships that administrators have as well as the characteristics of effective mentoring relationships. You are invited to participate because you are a secondary school administrator at one of the public school systems located in Alabama's River Heritage Region.

If you decide to complete the study, simply click on the survey link located at the end of this letter. The survey includes questions which ask about your experience having someone who may have been influential to you while serving as school administrator. The survey link is active for 30 days. It will take you approximately fifteen to twenty minutes to complete. The information you provide in the survey will not be identified with your name or school's name when the data is analyzed. In addition, SurveyMonkey, the software used to develop and disseminate the survey, will not collect e-mail addresses or IP addresses in order to protect your privacy. All measures will be taken to protect the confidentiality of participants. The results of the study may be used by school systems in determining whether formal mentoring programs is a viable solution in decreasing the attrition rate of school administrators.

There will be no cost to you as a participant in order to complete this survey.

Your decision whether or not to participate in this study will not jeopardize your relations with Auburn University or the Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Training. Further, you may discontinue participation at any time without penalty by closing your browser. <https://www.surveymonkey.com/optout.aspx> Please note that after your survey is submitted, we will not be able to withdraw your data since it will be anonymous.

If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to contact me at flowerc@auburn.edu or (334) 821-2063/(334) 320-5768. You may also contact Dr. James E. Witte at witteje@auburn.edu or (334) 844-3054.

For more information regarding your rights as a subject, you may contact the Office of Research Compliance, 307 Samford Hall, Auburn University; Phone: 334-844-5966 e-mail: hsubjec@auburn.edu

Please remember that the survey link is active for only 30 days. Once you click on the survey link below, complete the survey, and submit the survey, you are granting consent to participate in the survey.

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx>

The Auburn University Institutional Review Board has approved this document for use from August 2, 2010 to August 1, 2011. Protocol #10-213 EX 1008.