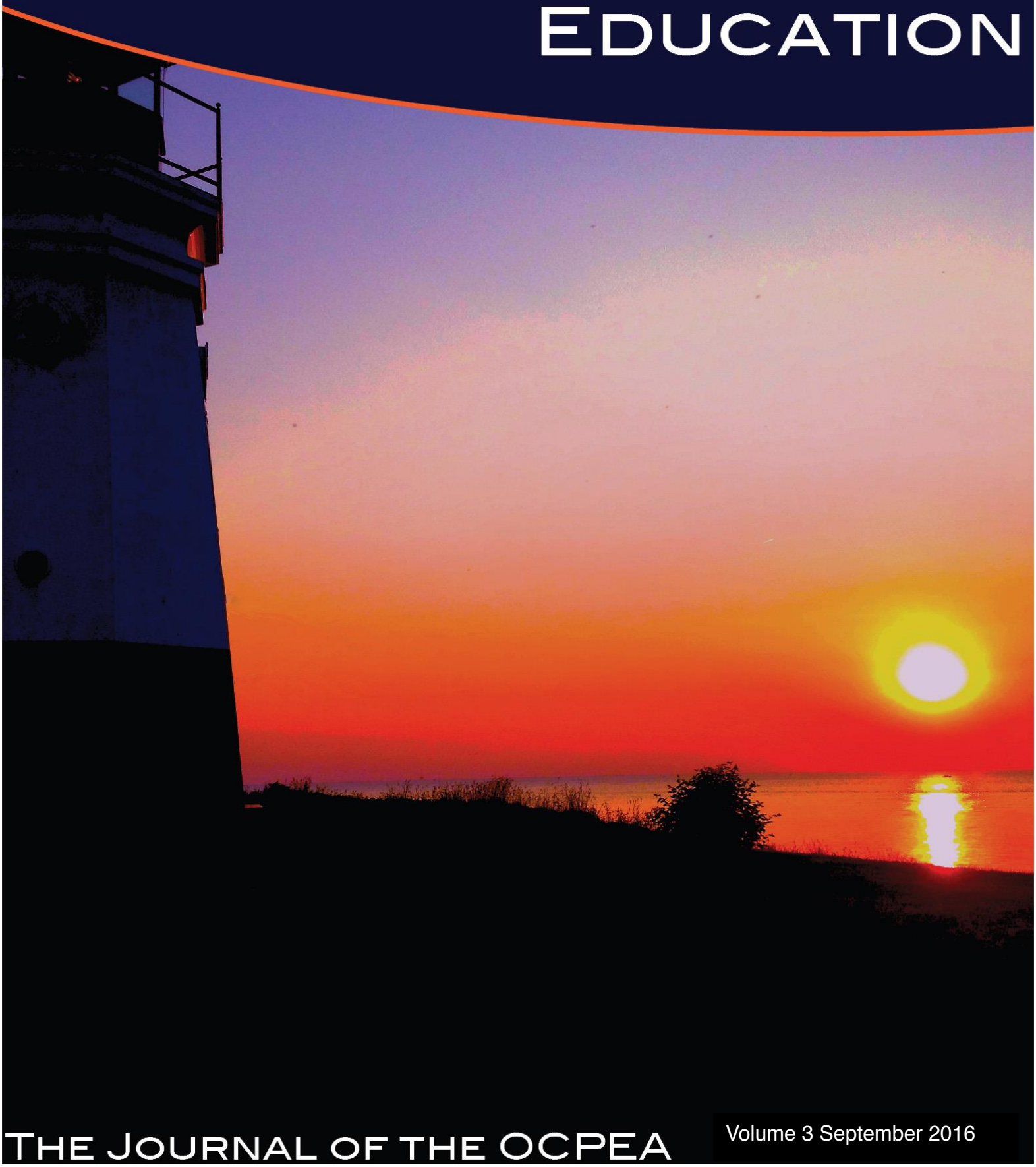
Leadership and Research In Education



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Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA)

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Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the OCPEA has been peer reviewed by Professors of Educational Administration, OCPEA, and accepted and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration as a significant contribution to the preparation and practice of school administration.

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration

Vision and Mission

Vision:

Organic. **C**reative. **P**rofessional. **E**ngaging. **A**ccessible.

Mission:
Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the OCPEA offers an academic forum for scholarly discussions of education, curriculum and pedagogy, leadership theory, and policy studies in order to elucidate effective practices for classrooms, schools, and communities.

The mission of the OCPEA journal is to not only publish high quality manuscripts on various political, societal, and policy-based issues in the field of education, but also to provide our authors with opportunities for growth through our extensive peer review process. We encourage graduate students, practitioners, and early career scholars to submit manuscripts, as well as senior faculty and administrators. We accept quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods, and action research based approaches as well as non-traditional and creative approaches to educational research and policy analysis, including the application of educational practices.

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the OCPEA is a refereed online journal published twice yearly since the inaugural edition in 2014 for the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA). The journal will be indexed in the Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE), and will be included in the Education Resources Information Center (ERIC) database.

Submitting to the OCPEA Journal

OCPEA Call for Papers and Publication Information, 2016

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the OCPEA accepts original manuscripts detailing issues facing teachers, administrators, schools, including empirically based pieces, policy analysis, and theoretical contributions. Submissions must include a one-hundred-word abstract and five keywords. Send one electronic copy of the manuscript to the editor using MS Word as well as a signed letter by the author(s) authorizing permission to publish the manuscript. Additionally, a separate cover page must be included containing the article title, author name(s), professional title(s), highest degree(s) obtained, institutional affiliation(s), email address(es), telephone and FAX numbers. Only the article title should appear on the subsequent pages to facilitate a triple-blind reviewing of the manuscript. Submissions should be approximately 15-20 pages including references. Submissions must align to the standards of the *APA Manual* (6th ed.). Submissions must be double-spaced, 12 point Times New Roman font with one inch margins on all sides, each page numbered.

To submit materials for consideration, send one electronic copy of the manuscript and additional requested information to:

OCPEA Journal Editors at
ocpeajournal@gmail.com

This Call for Papers for the 2016 Journal is posted on the OCPEA website, http://www.cehs.wright.edu/ocpea/

General Submission Guidelines

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the OCPEA accepts original manuscripts detailing issues facing teachers, administrators, schools, including empirically based pieces, policy analysis, and theoretical contributions.

General Areas of Focus:

Advocacy
We seek manuscripts identifying political issues and public policies that impact education, as well as actions that seek to dismantle structures negatively affecting education in general and students specifically.

Policy Analysis
We seek analysis of policies impacting students, teachers, educational leaders, schools in general, and higher education. How have policy proposals at the state or national level, such as the introduction and adoption of national and state standards, affected curriculum, instruction, or assessment of leadership preparation and administrative credential programs?

Preparing Educational Leaders
We seek manuscripts that detail effective resources and practices that are useful to faculty members in the preparation of school leaders.

Diversity and Social Justice
We seek manuscripts on issues related to diversity that impact schools and school leaders, such as strategies to dismantle hegemonic practices, recruit and retain under-represented populations in schools and universities, promote democratic schools, and effective practices for closing the achievement gap.

Technology
We seek manuscripts that detail how to prepare leaders for an information age in a global society.

Research
The members of OCPEA are interested in pursuing the following: various research paradigms and methodologies, ways to integrate scholarly research into classrooms, ways to support student research and participatory action research, and how to use educational research to influence public policy.

For more information, contact OCPEA Journal Editors: Jennifer Martin at martinjl@mountunion.edu or Kathy Crates at crates@findlay.edu

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA)

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A Note from the Editors

Jennifer L. Martin, Co-editor
The University of Mount Union

Kathy Crates, Co-editor
The University of Findlay

Welcome to the Volume 3, Issue 1 of Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA). In the tradition of the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA), we offer this venue to regional researchers and practitioners to bridge the divide between them, providing research that is relevant, regional, and relatable and from a grassroots perspective. The collegial work and growth that produced this publication foreshadows our continued success both for the journal and OCPEA in general.

Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA) is peer reviewed by members of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Leadership (OCPEA) and their colleagues. OCPEA is honored to bring forth this important and timely publication and hope not only to inform readers with our work, but also to inspire practitioners, graduate students, novice and seasoned faculty members to write for our journal. Part of our mission is to mentor beginning scholars through the writing and publishing process. We would appreciate if our readers would pass on our mission, vision, and call for papers to graduate students and junior faculty as well as to colleagues who are already experts in their fields.

OCPEA is pleased to present an eclectic mix of research and theoretical articles in this issue that are both timely and thought provoking for scholars and practitioners alike in the fields of education, curriculum and instruction, and educational leadership. The manuscripts in this issue detail many of the current controversies in the field of education as we currently experience them, including legal issues impacting school leaders, issues of funding inequities for public schools, and the intersection of schooling and politics.

We would like to acknowledge the many who have helped to shepherd *Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration* (OCPEA) into a living entity. First, we thank our authors for submitting their work. Second, we thank our board of editors who worked tirelessly to create the policies and procedures and who took the idea of an NCPEA journal for the state of Ohio to fruition. Third, we wish to

express gratitude to our esteemed panel of reviewers. Each manuscript goes through an extensive three-person peer review panel, and we are quite proud of the mentoring that has resulted as a part of this process. Fourth, we give a special thanks to the Board of OCPEA who has supported the vision and mission of *Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration* (OCPEA). The support and guidance of the Board throughout the process of publishing this issue has been inestimable. We also wish to thank Linda Scott, Head of Technical Services and Curriculum Resource Center Director at The University of Mount Union, and Tabitha Martin, M.A. at Write Start Business Consulting, for their assistance with editing this manuscript.

Finally, OCPEA is indebted to Jim Berry, Ted Creighton, and Brad Bizzell of NCPEA Publications for their direction and support. On behalf of the Board of *Leadership and Research in Education: The Journal of the Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration*, the OCPEA Board, and the general membership of OCPEA, we collectively thank the readers of this publication. We hope the information provided will guide readers toward a deeper understanding of the many facets of the fields of education, curriculum and instruction, and educational leadership. OCPEA hopes to continue to provide readers with insightful and reflective research.

The Preparation of New Teachers for the Profession:

Ohio's Resident Educator Program

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Ohio Northern University

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University of Dayton

Nicole V. Williams
The University of Findlay

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to learn if teachers believe their experience with the Resident Educator Program improved their ability to meet the Ohio Standards for the Teaching Profession and increased support and retention. The 189 participants completed a 33 question Likert-based survey and provided more than 406 comments. The findings indicate that the teachers do not believe the Resident Educator Program improved their ability to enact the Ohio Standards for the Teaching Profession and the program requirements impeded them from receiving the support they needed.

Keywords: Teacher induction, resident educator, educational leadership

Teacher evaluation systems and teacher induction programs are not new to the state of Ohio. However, they have recently undergone significant changes that have created immense concern in the field. In 2006, the Ohio State Board of Education adopted educator standards based on what teachers and principals should know and be able to do at various stages of their careers. In continuation of that work, in 2007, the Ohio Department of Education worked with stakeholders to perform a comprehensive analysis of teacher induction programs. The result of these combined efforts is the Ohio Resident Educator Program (Ohio Department of Education, 2011).

According to the Ohio Department of Education, "the Ohio Resident Educator Program is a formal four-year program of support for beginning teachers" (Ohio Department of Education, 2014, p. 4). More specifically, it is "part of a comprehensive system that provides job-embedded, professional growth for Ohio's teachers from pre-service and throughout their professional life" (p. 4). During the first and second year in the Resident Educator program, teachers (referred to as "resident educators") discover, practice, and refine their teaching as they learn to self-assess, adjust their teaching, reflect upon their progress, and continually strengthen their teaching practices. In the third and fourth years of the program, resident educators assess their teaching through the Resident Educator Summative Assessment (RESA). The RESA is a performance-based assessment that requires teachers to demonstrate knowledge and skills in real time

through five tasks: 1) first lesson cycle, 2) formative and summative assessment, 3) second lesson cycle, 4) communication and professional growth, and 5) reflection on teaching practice from students and/or colleagues (Ohio Department of Education, 2014b).

Although the Resident Educator Program is currently in its fourth year, there is limited research on the implementation and impacts of this program on the resident educators that it is intended to "support." The purpose of this study is twofold: 1) to determine if teachers believe their experiences with the Resident Educator Program improved their ability to meet the Ohio Standards for the Teaching Profession and 2) to learn if teachers believe their experiences with the Resident Educator Program improved teacher support and retention.

Review of the Literature

The researchers were interested to determine if teachers believe their experiences with the Resident Educator Program improved their ability to teach (as defined by the state standards) and if it improved teacher support and retention. California's Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment (BTSA) Induction program was a predecessor to Ohio's state reforms and process for supporting and mentoring new teachers. As a program to support new teacher candidates, BTSA sought to improve retention rates while also providing a pathway for early-license California teachers to move to credentials (Gillham, 2008). Parallels between the California program BTSA and Ohio's Resident Educator Program include a plan to support early career teachers, a program to help increase teacher quality, and a means for teachers to move from a provisional teaching license to a professional teaching license." Although the BTSA program has been in existence for several years, currently minimal research exists on the program. Research on Ohio's Residential Educator Program has been limited to studying the role of "intermediates" assigned to supporting the implementation of the RESA program (Owens, 2014). This study is in response to the need for further research on these types of teacher induction programs and their teacher-perceived impacts on support and retention.

Teacher Perceptions of Induction Programs

How can a school district be certain that it has a quality induction program? A quick way to assess a program is through teacher feedback. In Joest's (2003) study of select Texas school districts, teachers who had experienced quality induction programs were quick to voice their pleasure with these programs: "the novice teachers who teach in the districts and campuses with the strongest support could not say enough positive comments about how the support program helped them through the first year" (p. 155). Other studies of induction programs have also received positive comments from participants (Grammatikopoulos, Tsigilis, Gregoriadis, & Bikos, 2013; Marshall, et al., 2013; Allen, 2013). However, teacher feedback about induction programs is not always positive. In California, teachers in two school districts reported broad discontent with the state's induction program (Gillham, 2008), while other studies also reported some dissatisfaction with induction programs (Cherubini, Kitchen, Goldblatt, & Smith, 2011). However,

Shockley notes that "teacher satisfaction and motivational factors are generally not included or are not part of the intent of most induction programs" (Shockley, Watlington, & Felsher, 2013, p. 373).

In addition, sometimes the perceptions of teachers are mixed in respect to their induction programs in that teachers perceive some aspects of the induction program to be more helpful than others. For example, in one multi-year study, teachers valued the instructional resource teacher, coaching, collaboration with colleagues, and professional development as the most valuable aspects of their induction, while they valued other aspects of the program much less (Nielsen, Lundmark, Barry, & Addison, 2006). In their study of induction programs in North Carolina, Algozzine, Gretes, Queen, and Cowan-Hathcock (2007) identified 21 factors that 80% or more participants favorably described as effective and 9 factors that participants described less favorably.

Teacher Support and Retention in Induction Programs

Teaching is a profession with chronically high turnover (Ingersoll, 2003; Maddox, 1997), which researchers have recognized since at least 1932. According to the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF), "about one-third of the country's new teachers leave teaching sometime during their first three years on the job" (NCTAF in Colgan, 2004a, p. 23). About a third of all beginning teachers leave within their first 3 years of teaching and by the end of 5 years, nearly half of all new teachers (46%) will leave the profession (Colgan, 2004a). American schools hire more than 200,000 new teachers annually, but by the time summer arrives, at least 22,000 of these new hires have quit (Graziano, 2005). In recent years, the number of new hires has been roughly equal to the number of teachers leaving the profession. Statistics such as these have led some students of education to refer to the hiring and subsequent attrition of teachers as a "revolving door" (Easly, 2000, p. 4).

What is it that makes teachers leave the profession in such high numbers? There are numerous reasons why teachers leave their school or leave the profession, some of which are chronicled in particular studies. Unfortunately, a lack of commonly accepted definitions for attrition factors makes comparisons difficult. However, taken as a whole, work-related factors that are associated with attrition can be organized into nine researcher-generated categories: one, working environment (Cochran & Smith, 2004; Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Kirby & Grissmer, 1993; Ruhland, 2001); two, working conditions (Easly, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 2003; Graziano, 2005; Ruhland 2001); three, organizational climate (Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004); four, salary and benefits (Darling-Hammond, 2003); five, retirement (Graziano, 2005; Ingersoll, 2003); six, the degree of a teacher's human capital (Kirby & Grissmer, 1993); seven, the extent to which an individual is beholden to the organization (Kirby & Grissmer, 1993); eight, the quality of pre-service preparation (Graziano, 2005); and nine, the changing expectations of today's teachers (Johnson in Cochran-Smith, 2004). Some attrition factors cannot be reduced by induction programs, for example a life event unrelated to the family (such as a spouse's job transfer or needing to care for a sick relative). However, attrition factors more closely connected to the workplace can be mitigated by induction programs. These would include job-related stress, class

management issues, deciding 'teaching wasn't for me,' and a lack of administrative support/recognition.

Methods

Research Questions

The purpose of this study was twofold: one, to determine if teachers believe their experiences with the Resident Educator Program improved their ability to meet the Ohio Standards for the Teaching Profession and two, to learn if teachers believe their experiences with the Resident Educator Program improved teacher support and retention. To guide this investigation, the following research questions will be utilized:

1. Do teachers believe their experiences with the Resident Educator Program improved their ability to meet the *Ohio Standards for the Teaching Profession* (1) Students, 2) Content, 3) Assessment, 4) Instruction, 5) Learning Environment, 6) Collaboration and Communication, and 7) Professional Responsibility and Growth?
2. Do teachers believe their experiences with the Resident Educator Program improved teacher support and retention?

Data Collection and Instrument

The researchers used survey research in this study to learn more about new teacher beliefs related to the Resident Educator Program. More specifically, they created a survey that consisted of 33 Likert-based questions (four-point scale: strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree) that focused on the first research question: Do teachers believe their experiences with the Resident Educator Program improved their ability to meet the Ohio Standards for the Teaching Profession. The 33 questions asked participants the level to which they believe their experience with the Resident Educator Program improved their ability to meet the Ohio Standards for the Teaching Profession: 1. Students (4 questions), 2. Content (5 questions), 3. Assessment (5 questions), 4. Instruction (7 questions), 5. Learning Environment (5 questions), 6. Collaboration and Communication (3 questions), and 7. Professional Responsibility and Growth (3 questions). The language of the thirty-three questions mirrored the precise language of the Ohio Standards of the Teaching Profession. To address the second research question on teacher support and retention, after each of the seven sections, the participants were provided with a comment box to discuss any of the items in that section. The survey also included a brief demographics section to determine the participant's school district type (rural, urban, suburban), licensure band (early childhood, middle childhood, adolescent/young adult, multi-age), OTES rating (accomplished, skilled, developing, ineffective), year in the Resident Educator Program, and type of education program (undergraduate, graduate).

To disseminate the survey, the researchers utilized the graduate contact information for their three universities. In addition, an email was sent to all Ohio Confederation of Teacher Educator Organization (OCTEO) Field Directors and all Ohio building administrators requesting them to forward the recruitment email to their graduates/teachers in their third and fourth year of the Resident Educator Program. The

email included the link to the survey to be completed electronically and anonymously through Survey Monkey.

Participants

A total of 189 resident educators participated in the study. Of the 189 participants, 169 of them reported their demographic information. The majority (52.66%) of the resident educators identified their district as rural, while 32.54% identified suburban and 21.89% urban. Within these districts, 37.28% of the participants teach in the Early Childhood licensure band, 26.04% in Middle Childhood, 28.99% in Adolescent/Young Adult, and 20.71% in Multi-Age. Although the survey was intended for third and fourth year resident educators, some of the participants were only in their first and second of the Resident Educator program. Approximately 54% of the participants were in the third year, 25.44% in their fourth year, 11.24% in their second year, and 4.14% in their first year. Of the 169 participants who reported their Ohio Teacher Evaluation System (OTES) rating, 35.5% reported that they earned an Accomplished rating, 49.11% Proficient, and 3.55% were Developing, with 11.83% who selected N/A. None of the participants reported receiving an Ineffective OTES rating. Finally, the majority (79.88%) of the participants obtained their initial licensure in an undergraduate teacher education program and 20.12% at the graduate level.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed through the computation of descriptive statistics (means, standard deviation, and frequencies) to compute the overall perception reported for each statement (Ohio Standards for the Teaching Profession grouped by each of the seven standards) and the demographic information. In addition, factor scores were generated by calculating the mean participant response to all statements associated with each of the research questions. A frequency analysis was conducted on all responses, and responses were grouped by the items' associated research questions.

Research Question 1

For Research Question 1 (Do teachers believe their experiences with the Resident Educator Program improved their ability to meet the Ohio Standards for the Teaching Profession?), each item was grouped by its relation to the seven standards: Students, Content, Assessment, Instruction, Learning Environment, Collaboration and Communication, and Professional Responsibility and Growth and then analyzed. For Standard 1: Students: Teachers understand student learning and development, and respect the diversity of the students they teach, the resident educators overwhelming did not believe their experience with the Resident Educator Program improved their ability to understand student learning and development and to respect the diversity of the students they teach. Thirty-seven percent of the resident educators disagreed and 33.54% strongly disagreed, while only 4.44% strongly agreed and 24.98% agreed (see Table 1).

Table 1
Response Frequency to Research Question 1- Summary of All Standards (N = 189)

My experience with the Resident Educator Program improved my ability to:	SA	A	D	SD
Standard 1: Students	4.44%	24.98%	37.04%	33.54%
Standard 2: Content	2.87%	25.69%	36.71%	34.73%
Standard 3: Assessment	3.13%	30.65%	34.34%	31.88%
Standard 4: Instruction	3.66%	26.92%	37.84%	31.57%
Standard 5: Learning Environment	4.09%	22.96%	37.39%	35.57%
Standard 6: Collaboration and Communication	6.13%	28.54%	30.65%	34.66%
Standard 7: Professional Responsibility and Growth	6.91%	27.83%	30.71%	34.55%

For Standard 1, they perceived the Resident Educator Program most improved their ability to "display knowledge of how students learn and of the developmental characteristics of age groups." However, they believed the program least improved their ability to "expect that all students will achieve to their full potential."

The resident educators reported similar concern with Standard 2: Content: Teachers know and understand the content area for which they have instructional responsibility. Again, the resident educators overwhelmingly did not believe their experience with the Resident Educator Program improved their ability to know and understand the content area for which they have instructional responsibility. Of the 182 participants who answered the Standard 2 questions, 36.71% of the resident educators selected disagree and 34.73% selected strongly disagree, only 2.87% and 25.69% selected strongly agree and agree respectively (see Table 1). Their agreement was strongest in respect to "understand and use content-specific instructional strategies to effectively teach the central concepts and skills of the discipline" and weakest in respect to "understand the relationship of knowledge within discipline to other content areas."

For Standard 3, the resident educators were more positive in that more of them perceived that their experience with the Resident Educator Program improved their ability to meet Standard 3: Assessment: Teachers understand and use varied assessments to inform instruction, evaluate and ensure student learning. Of the 179 participants who answered the questions on Standard 3, only 34.34% chose disagree and 31.88% chose strongly disagree, while 30.65% and 3.13% chose agree and strongly agree respectively (see Table 1). In the area of Assessment, the resident educators thought the program most improved their ability to "be knowledgeable about assessment types, their purposes and the data they generate" and least improved their ability to "collaborate and communicate student progress with students, parents and colleagues."

For Standard 4, the resident educators were still positive in that a greater number of them perceived that their experience with the Resident Educator Program improved their ability to meet Standard 4: Instruction: Teachers plan and deliver effective instruction that advances the learning of each individual student. However, 37.84% and 31.57% of 176 resident educators still selected disagree and strongly disagree respectively, while only 3.66% and 26.92% selected strongly agree and agree

respectively (see Table 1). For this standard, they felt more confident in their improved ability to align instructional goals and activities with school and district priorities and Ohio's academic content standards but were quite a bit less confident in their ability to use information about students' learning and performance to plan and deliver instruction that will close the achievement gap.

In respect to the classroom learning environment, the resident educators reported the most skepticism. For Standard 5: Learning Environment: Teachers create learning environments that promote high levels of learning and achievement for all students, a total of 176 participants responded: 37.39% of the resident educators disagreed, 35.57% strongly disagreed, 22.96% agreed, and 4.09% strongly agreed (see Table 1). The highest level of confidence for Standard 5 was in response to "create learning situations in which students work independently, collaboratively and/or as a whole class" and the lowest level of confidence was in response to "create an environment that is physically and emotionally safe."

For Standard 6, the resident educators were again more positive in that a greater number of them perceived that their experience with the Resident Educator Program improved their ability to meet Standard 6: Teachers collaborate and communicate with other educators, administrators, students and parents and the community to support student learning. However, the majority (65%) still responded within the disagreement categories. Thirty-five percent of them strongly disagreed, 30.65% disagreed, 28.54% agreed, and 6.13% strongly agreed that their experiences in the Resident Educator Program improved their ability to address this standard (see Table 1). The resident educators were most confident in their ability to "collaborate effectively with other teachers, administrators and school and district staff," and least confident in their ability to "share responsibility with parents and caregivers to support student learning, emotional and physical development and mental health."

Finally, for Standard 7: Professional Responsibility and Growth: Teachers assume professional responsibility for professional growth, performance, and involvement as an individual and as a member of a learning community, the resident educators were most positive. Of the 174 participants who responded to the Standard 7 questions, thirty-five percent of them still selected strongly disagree, 30.71% disagree; however, 27.83% agreed, and 6.91% strongly agreed for this standard (see Table 1). They perceived an improved ability to "take responsibility for engaging in continuous, purposeful professional development" and yet they perceived a lower ability to "understand, uphold and follow professional ethics, policies and legal codes of professional conduct."

Research Question 2

For Research Question 2 (Do teachers believe their experiences with the Resident Educator Program improved teacher support and retention?), the researchers coded the 8 comment boxes for themes related to teacher support and retention. The participants left 406 comments: Standard 1 - 79 comments; Standard 2 - 56 comments; Standard 3 - 49 comments; Standard 4 - 44 comments; Standard 5 - 40 comments; Standard 6 - 36 comments; Standard 7 - 25 comments; and Overall General Comments - 77 comments.

New teacher support. The majority of the resident educator participants did not believe the Resident Educator Program supported them as a new teacher. Overwhelmingly, the participants who provided comments in respect to support perceived the Resident Educator Program requirements were in opposition to the purpose of the program to support them as new teachers. For example, one participant stated in respect to the language in Standard 6:

> Going into my first year I believed that the Resident Educator Program would be somewhat of a support system for new teachers; a place where we would be able to share ideas and give feedback to one another about our current practices and ways to improve them. In reality, the meetings have become a mixture of a step-by-step instruction manual on "how to pass" combined with the grumblings of teachers trying to find time to do what their job titles decree: teach!

A second participant shared similar concerns with the requirements of the program and provided possible recommendations for improvement:

> I think that it is very important to support beginning teachers. However, completing the tasks of the RESA has felt more like busy work than a process for expanding my pedagogical knowledge and skills. I think that one of the things that would greatly improve the RESA is timely feedback NOT a numerical score more than a year later. If you truly want beginning teachers to improve their skills, then timely and constructive feedback that teachers can immediately incorporate would be most helpful.

The paperwork was perceived as an especially problematic requirement of the Resident Educator Program, shown by the fact that the word “paperwork” was mentioned 45 times in 30 comments (7.39%) out of the 406 comments. One participant did note, however, that there was a positive aspect that resulted from his/her experience in the mentor program related to the mentor requirement, even though he/she did not perceive the program as beneficial:

> I don't believe the RESA program helped me in any way be a better teacher. It was just added stress for the first very stressful years of teaching. The only good thing that came out of it was meeting the mentor I had for years 1 and 2. She was a knowledgeable retired educator and it was very helpful to meet with her for support those first two years and learn from her experience. However, these helpful conversations took place when we were discussing real-life teaching issues or lesson planning and did not have anything to do with the documents provided for the RE program.

While other participants made positive comments about mentors, an equal number of participants reported negative experiences with their mentors.

New teacher retention. Overwhelmingly, the resident educator participants in this study did not perceive that the Resident Educator Program helped retain them in the profession. More specifically, they believed the Resident Educator Program added unnecessary stress to their already stressful first years in the profession. Of the 406 comments, 39 comments, or almost 10% of the total comments, contained the word "stress." Similar to the previous section on new teacher support, the participants perceived the Resident Educator Program requirements as a hindrance to retention. For example, one participant stated: "I do not feel the resident educator program has increased my abilities as a teacher. I feel it has done nothing but add a large amount of stress and unneeded busy work." Another participant explained, "Beginning teachers have enough to deal with when it comes to keeping their head above water navigating the day to day inner workings of their school building." One participant even described how the Resident Educator Program actually made him/her contemplate leaving the profession: "These tasks did nothing but make me consider strongly just stopping and quitting education well before I've hardly started. I'm 8 years into this because of switching states, and this is the most ridiculous program I have ever seen."

An additional common theme akin to the stress the participants reported as a result of the program was their belief that the Resident Educator Program should be aligned with the Ohio Teacher Evaluation System (OTES), which is another accountability system for teachers. Forty-three comments (11%) of the 406 comments provided by the participants contained the acronym "OTES." One participant explained:

> Keep the mentors and let new teachers use the OTES as proof of our dedication and work ethic. Require new teachers to keep a portfolio and have the mentor keep tabs on it and the teacher, but please do something about the load of paperwork required for this program—or revisit the questions again and make them less complicated and repetitive. If the idea of the program was to retain new teachers—think again. This has almost burned me out and I truly LOVE teaching.

Again, much like the previous comments, this resident educator participant also speaks to the problematic paperwork but also the "saving grace of this program" in his/her mentor.

Findings and Discussion

Based on the descriptive analysis of the data, the resident educator participants do not believe the Resident Educator Program improved their ability to meet the Ohio Standards for the Teaching Profession. They reported the most positive improvement in Standard 7: Professional Responsibility and Growth, most strongly agreeing with "take responsibility for engaging in continuous, purposeful professional development." Participants also responded relatively positively to "collaborate effectively with other teachers, administrators and school and district staff" in Standard 6. The participants reported the least improvement in Standard 5: Learning Environment. However, the item with which they most strongly disagreed was in Standard 2: "know the content I teach and how to use the knowledge of content-area concepts, assumptions and skills to plan instruction."

Standard 2: Content was the standard in which the resident educator participants believed they improved the second least (see Table 1). In summary, the participants believed their experience with the Resident Educator Program helped them improve their ability to meet the standards on professional responsibility and growth the most, and the learning environment the least.

In addition, the participants who provided comments in respect to the second research question on support perceived the Resident Educator Program requirements to be in opposition to the purpose of the program to support them as new teachers. This was especially true of the paperwork. Regarding the program's ability to retain them, they were equally as negative in that they reported the Resident Educator program actually made them think about leaving the profession due to the immense stress it created. Prior research on teacher induction programs indicates that job-related stress is a cause of teacher attrition (Kirby & Grissmer, 1993; Ruhland, 2001) and a teacher's resilience to factors such as stress is also associated with greater retention (Bernshausen & Cunningham, 2001).

Implications and Recommendations

The findings of this study have immense implications for the field in respect to teacher induction programs and their ability to prepare teachers for the profession, as well as to support and retain them. These findings are particularly relevant to Educational Administration programs in that they have the ability to train future administrators to work with new teachers through teacher induction programs such as Ohio's Resident Educator Program. The participants in this study were particularly supportive of their administrators' abilities to evaluate and support them, stating "my principal is more than capable of evaluating me" and "I feel my university equipped me with all I needed to be an effective teacher and my principal is able to determine how I am as a teacher with OTES" and, finally, "it is my principal's job to tell me that and to help me improve." This is reflective of previous research in the field (Eberhard, Reinhardt-Mondragon, & Stottlemyer, 2000; Ruhland, 2001; Starzynski, 2001). Ohio Educational Administration Programs should better prepare their administration candidates to leverage this type of feedback to: 1. help new teachers further develop their ability to meet Standard 5: Learning Environments, followed closely by Standard 2: Content and 2. provide increased support to new teachers and a reduction in their perceived stress levels through and in addition to the Resident Educator Program by aligning the requirements as much as possible to OTES and reducing the paperwork. However, there is a continued need for further research in this area. A large, statewide, longitudinal study, similar to this study is needed to better determine not only teacher perceptions on how they feel with respect to preparation for the profession through these types of induction programs but also how they specifically feel supported and retained through these types of programs. In addition, research needs to be conducted to determine the level of effectiveness in the implementation of these teacher induction programs as well as the evidence to support their continued existence.

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Alternate Realities:

Racially Disparate Discipline in Classrooms and Schools and its Effects on Black and Brown Students

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Abstract

This study examines the Civil Rights Data Collection of 2014, consisting of 49,605,534 students from 95,635 public schools covering grades from Kindergarten to 12th grade. The primary focus of this study was to examine the relative distribution of different types of discipline between ethnic groups and genders. In every category, the levels reported for either African-American or Native American students were much higher than any other group. Native American levels were highest for referral to law enforcement and for expulsion with or without school services. For almost every gender comparison within each ethnic group, male students were more likely to receive punishment than female students. For Native American students, girls were more likely than boys to receive in-school suspension, out-of-school suspension, expulsion either with or without educational services, and to be referred to law enforcement or experience school-related arrest.

Keywords: Black and Brown students, Civil Rights Data Collection of 2014, cultural mismatch, dehumanization, institutional discrimination

Introduction

In early 2014, the Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights released data illustrating how racism and structural inequalities impact schools today. Some of the most startling findings from these data include the following: although African American students account for only 18 percent of U.S. pre-K enrollment, they account for 48 percent of preschoolers [our emphasis] with multiple suspensions; African American students are expelled three times more than their white counterparts; African American and Latina/o students account for 40 percent of enrollment at schools offering gifted programs, but only 26 percent of students in said programs; African American, Latina/o students and Native American students attend schools with higher percentages of first-

year teachers (3 to 4 percent) than their white counterparts (1 percent); and African American students are more than three times as likely to attend schools where less than 60 percent of teachers meet all state requirements for certification and licensure. The above findings have great implications for our K-12 schools, for higher education, and for society in general.

According to Asher (2007) pre-service teachers, most of whom are white, often come into their teacher education programs with little to no exposure to multicultural education or diversity. Perhaps more concerning, some students go through their entire teacher education programs without specific training in multicultural education or culturally responsive pedagogy, thus graduating unprepared for successful teaching of students unlike themselves. If pre-service teachers are provided the opportunities to "explicitly, and critically interrogate the historical and present-day intersections of race, culture, gender, and foster a self-reflexive engagement with difference" (Asher, 2007, pp. 65-66), teachers can uncover more significant and self-reflexive ways to know the self and others in relation to race, power, and privilege.

Previous research has suggested that not only are disciplinary techniques negatively associated with educational outcomes, but also they are inequitably levied toward students of color (Casella, 2003; Lewis, Butler, Bonner, & Joubert, 2010; McCarthy & Hoge, 1987; Monroe, 2005; Perry & Morris, 2014; Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002). In this study, we will identify and discuss the impetus and consequences of racially disparate disciplinary techniques, identify current trends, and offer recommendations for educators and districts to discontinue practices that both reflect and reinforce institutional racism in our social and educational milieu. Our primary research focus is to examine to what extent different levels of punitive disciplinary responses accrue to students of different ethnic backgrounds, both overall and by gender.

Additionally, revealing the disparate treatment of students of color in terms of discipline and tracking based on our analysis of recent civil rights data, this paper will address the urgent need for multicultural education and to expose pre-service teachers to culturally responsive pedagogical practices, particularly in light of the pervasive notion that we live in a post-racial society, despite glaring evidence to the contrary: the June 2015 massacre in Charleston, South Carolina; the exposure of police brutality through the killings of unarmed Black citizens; the violent treatment of Black adolescents attending a summer pool party; the violent removal of a Black female adolescent from her seat at the hand of a school resource officer; and the apparent cover-up of the murder of Sandra Bland. We will also address the difficulties in delivering said curriculum as well as strategies to combat and overcome white student resistance to this critical content.

Literature Review

This study is informed by the concepts of critical multiculturalism (Castro, 2010) and critical race/critical whiteness studies (Spencer, 2008). Critical multiculturalism seeks through social justice to transform society "by confronting and disrupting institutions and the structures of power that maintain disparities across race, class, and gender" (Castro, 2010, p. 199). Critical whiteness studies, informed by critical race theory, deals with how to engage "white uncomfortableness" (DiAngelo, 2012; Spencer, 2008) when

discussing race. According to Spencer, "A critical race perspective suggests that themes having to do with inequity and injustice are uncomfortable for [w]hites, given assumptions about 'earned status'" (p. 257). Privilege serves to protect whites from having to think about racism and serves to create a distorted self-image including notions of efficacy, competency, and "earned" outcomes (Spencer, 2008). Blanchett (2006) defines white privilege as individual, structural, political, economic, or social phenomena that serve to privilege whites while oppressing people of color.

Factors that influence white pre-service teachers to hold these lower expectations include the following:

1. Failure to recognize racism and inequality based on race;
2. Adherence to deficit views and low expectations for students based on race;
3. Adherence to a colorblind mindset;
4. Failure to possess a cultural sense of themselves (whiteness as the norm) (Castro, 2010).

White privilege serves to maintain these structures. White privilege and racism contribute to and maintain the following: (a) insufficiently funded schools attended primarily by African American and poor children, (b) culturally inappropriate and unresponsive curricula, and (c) inadequately prepared educators to effectively teach African American learners and other students of color (Blanchett, 2006). "Master Scripting" (Blanchett, 2006) has much to do with these problems of schools, as is defined by the hegemonic monopoly on determining the official curriculum and the subsequent pedagogical practices used to deliver it: "Master Scripting is employed at both the institutional and individual levels to mute the stories and voices of African Americans and thereby prevent their counter-voices and counter-storytelling from challenging [w]hite authority and power" (p. 26). It is thus crucial that pre-service teachers are actively engaged in critical multiculturalism and in interrogating power, privilege, and white supremacy so that they can be better prepared to teach in a diverse democracy.

Institutional Discrimination in Education: Disparate Educational Practices Based on Race

In the 60 years post Brown, we are situated in a re-segregated educational system that simultaneously purports to be post-racial. Many students of color experience structural inequalities within schools (Lee, 2003), which can cause many to feel they have to choose between their home cultures and the cultures of the school (Suad Nasir & Saxe, 2003). In essence, most white students do not attend the same schools as students of color (Gay & Howard, 2000). Sharma, Joyner, and Osment (2014) found that such segregation/racial isolation results in the decreased performance of minority students on standardized English and mathematics examinations, which may serve to reinforce the stereotypical ideology that blacks are less intelligent than whites (Penner & Saperstein, 2013; Steele and Aronson, 1995), and subsequently, that Black students are unable to perform as well as whites because of cultural deficits (Spencer, 2012) or inherent intellectual ineptitude (Goff, Jackson, Di Leone, Culotta, & DiTomasso, 2014).

Sharma, Joyner, and Osment (2014) also found that teachers can exacerbate these issues. For example, disparities in educational opportunities for Black students involve teacher quality: the percentage of novice teachers increases as the percentage of Black

students increases, and segregated schools actually reduce the level to which Black students meet their academic promise (Wildhagen, 2012). In schools where disciplinary climates are harsh, Black students are less likely to reach their full potential, regardless of whether or not they were subject to discipline themselves. These students, whom Perry and Morris (2014) deem as "collateral consequences" of harsh disciplinary environments, showed reduced academic outcomes and were stunted in their educational attainment in general.

Factors Contributing to Disparate Educational Practices based on Race

There are many factors that contribute to differential treatment based upon race. Some of these factors include: benign racism, dehumanization, and language differences. These phenomena serve to confirm and reinforce stereotypes that some teachers hold of Black and Brown students, which in turn can create stereotype threat for these students—causing additional stress and anxiety (Steele, 2010).

Benign racism. Benign racism, where continued struggles of people of color are made invisible to whites through the mask of colorblindness, pervades our school cultures. Moreover, the history and legacies of slavery, Jim Crow, and radical resistance movements are commonly removed altogether from school curriculum, which leads to the perpetuation of stereotypes of people of color; but this too serves a purpose. The continued stereotypes of people of color exonerate whites from complicity in white supremacy. Whites require stereotypes of people of color to relieve them from complicity in a system from which they unfairly benefit; for if all people are created equal, then whites are allowed believe they have earned their places in society (Lensmire & Snaza, 2010).

The dehumanization of blackness. "Blackness" in general carries with it a negative connotation in American society (Sharp-Grier, 2015). African Americans have been labeled as violent, unintelligent, quick to anger, and dangerous (Goff, Jackson, Di Leone, Culotta, & DiTomasso, 2014; Penner, & Saperstein, 2013). Black children have been labeled as culturally deprived, and ascribed a lower status within classroom settings, including being disproportionately referred for special education services (Spencer, 2012).

In a recent study, Goff, Jackson, Di Leone, Culotta, & DiTomasso (2014) found that Black youth were more likely to be perceived as older and thus more culpable than their same-aged white counterparts, both in schools and within their communities. Black children are thus 18 times more likely to be sentenced as adults within the criminal justice system. The researchers argue that it is the dehumanization of Black children that contributes to this attribution of "adult severity" (p. 527). Essentially, all children are not thought to be deserving of the privilege of innocence. Black children are more likely to be seen as being more similar to adults than are their white peers and thus less worthy of societal protections. In short, Goff et al. found that Black children were less likely to be granted the "full essence of childhood and its definitional protections" (p. 539), which demonstrates the devastating effects racism still plays in the U.S. for Black children.

Language differences. Cultural mismatches stemming from language variation between students and teachers contribute to misunderstandings that harm students. For example, differences in intonation when asking questions, responding to questions, and in

everyday interactions may be viewed as a lack of interest and enthusiasm, disrespect, or even lack of ability and can account for the larger percentages of students of color receiving behavioral referrals and referrals for special education services from white teachers (and standard English speakers) than their white counterparts (Charity Hudley & Mallinson, 2012). Schools with higher populations of non-dominant or minority students refer more students for special education services; this mislabeling affects African American children twice as much as white children (Smitherman, 2006).

The un-bridged gulf between home and school literacies also plays a large part in these connections. Part of the problem may be the fact that despite the increasing diversity of our student population, the vast majority of the K-12 teaching force is white (84%) (Feistritzer, 2011). Hegemonic teacher training programs, or programs that do not provide culturally responsive instruction, exacerbate this problem (Milner, 2013). According to Lan Rong (1996), white teachers may perceive Black students negatively based upon their presentation styles, their use of African American Language (AAL), and students' styles of walking and dress (particularly for Black male students), which can create, "fear, apprehension, and overreaction by many teachers and school administrators" (p. 282). Lan Rong further argues that the use of AAL symbolizes deviance, both socially and culturally, in the minds of white teachers and contributes to their negative perceptions of Black students.

Stereotype threat. Students of color are susceptible to stereotype threat when they find themselves in situations where they feel at risk of confirming stereotypes about the racial or ethnic group to which they identity. The fear of confirming these negative stereotypes can result in stress and thus negative academic outcomes (Morris & Monroe, 2009). Both teachers and students are influenced by stereotypes. Teachers may ask students less challenging questions if they view said student's culture from a deficit perspective.

Likewise, pressures of representing their culture as a whole may derail students determined to defy the stereotypes held for their cultural group. As Morris and Monroe (2009) argue, "stereotype threat most affects young people who closely identify with their ethnicity or gender, are critically aware of societal stigmas, are accepting of stereotypes, and see intelligence as a relatively fixed enterprise" (p. 30). Most young people are not equipped to cope with or understand such injustices at an institutional level. Moreover, any questioning of the status quo may be viewed as deviance and can exacerbate the already dangerous stereotypes of Blackness.

Evidence of Disparate Educational Practices Based on Race

The aforementioned phenomena impacting disparate educational practices based on race most adversely affecting Black and Brown students include a higher level of students of color in special education, and a disproportionate number of students of color referred for discipline infractions, as will be discussed below.

The Disproportionality of Students of Color in Special Education

Artiles (2011) argues that special education policies do nothing to dismantle the hierarchical structure of schools, which makes special education "complicit in the

perpetuation of educational inequities for certain subgroups of students, most notably poor students and racial minority learners" (p. 433). White middle-class children are the "unmarked norm" against which the developmental progress of other children is measured (O'Connor & Fernandez, 2006). Blanchett (2006) argues that, ironically created near after Brown v. Board, special education as a field has done much to re-segregate students of color, and thus further limits their academic, educational, psychological, and future employment potential. For example, throughout the history of the field, Black students have been disproportionately placed in the most severe categories of special education diagnoses; they are less likely to exit these programs once placed; and they are less likely to be mainstreamed. Schools create mean differences that serve to increase minority special education referrals and more of these students being labeled as disabled because behaviors are perceived differently, which can also increase the likelihood of minority children being referred for special education services (O'Connor & Fernandez, 2006).

However, if African American Language (AAL) was the norm within schools, then the speakers of AAL would be perceived as academically competent, literate, and successful. Thus, as O'Connor & Fernandez argue, "the underachievement of minority students is not a function of deficient parenting practices but is rooted in the 'arbitrary' standards of schools that are represented as if they were rational and culturally neutral" (p. 9).

Further, O'Connor and Fernandez (2006) argue that the underachievement of minority students is exacerbated by their disproportionality in underfunded schools with unqualified or uncertified teachers lacking experience. However, when those same students do attend predominantly white schools, "they are resegregated into basic and remedial courses, where their achievement suffers under low standards and poor instruction. . . . These inequities prevent minority students from performing competently on standard indexes of achievement" (p. 9). In sum, racism and white privilege serve to maintain the disproportionate numbers of students of color in special education through various means: insufficiently funded schools, culturally unresponsive curriculum, and underprepared teachers (Blanchett, 2006).

The Disproportionality of Students of Color Referred for Discipline Infractions

As previously stated, the construction of Blackness as deviant has severe implications for education, and school discipline is perhaps the area where this is most glaring. Students of color are referred for more arbitrary and subjective concerns and for less serious offences that may not result in a referral for a white student. The perception of a threat (by Black students) is an issue (for white teachers). What is perceived as a threat when committed by a Black student is commonly not considered a threat when committed by a white student. White male infractions are often labeled as "boys being boys;" however, Black male infractions are deemed as pathological behaviors and, often, criminal offenses, because, "Blackness is relegated to deviance and [w]hiteness is normalized" (O'Connor & Fernandez, 2006, p. 9).

Despite the fact that education has long been lauded as a meritocracy: an egalitarian setting wherein students are given the tools to aspire to heights limited only by their personal ideals and efforts, Zion and Blanchett (2011) identify a second, latent,

function of education: social control. As they suggest, "Historically, public schools have served the dual role of controlling and sorting children deemed problematic or undesirable by society" (p. 2). The function of education as a mechanism of social control is manifest in the utilization of disciplinary techniques to manage and control students identified as disruptive (Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002). In an effort to ensure safety and control, particularly post-Columbine (Lickel, Schmader, & Hamilton, 2003), disciplinary policies fashioned after the "zero tolerance" model have become standard (Lewis, Butler, Bonner, Fred, & Joubert, 2010; Skiba & Peterson, 1999).

In keeping with zero tolerance policies, school districts have employed a model of discipline that holds students responsible, at times criminally so, for infractions running the gamut from low level to violent (Perry & Morris, 2014). Moreover, sanctions of preventative detention levied against Black males have been lodged at higher levels than are utilized against all other population groups (Lewis, Butler, Bonner, Fred, & Joubert, 2010; McCarthy & Hoge, 1987; Monroe, 2005; Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002). The skewed ratio of Black male preventative sanctioning to all others holds constant, despite similar rates and levels of school infractions demonstrated by other groups (Gregory, Skiba, & Noguera, 2010; McCarthy & Hogue, 1987).

In general, students who deviate from ascribed cultural norms are vulnerable to sanctioning, which has resulted in the misinterpretation of behavior by teachers and administrators and the subsequent sanctioning of students of color for subjective interpretations of infractions, e.g., loitering, excessive noise, and threat, as opposed to their white counterparts, who are punished for objective, measureable misconduct, e.g., smoking and vandalism (Monroe, 2005; Perry & Morris, 2014; Skiba, et al., 2002; Zion & Blanchett, 2011). Presumed disobedience, argumentation, and disrespect are frequently cited as reasons for disciplinary referral for students of color (Monroe, 2005); however, these supposed infractions are often subjective misinterpretations of critical cultural, linguistic, and behavioral patterns exhibited by young men in the African American community (Zion & Blanchett, 2011).

Casella (2003) illuminated a very clear nexus between the disparate disciplinary treatment of minority (African American and Latino) students in the form of preventative detention—suspension, expulsion, and secondary placement—and subsequent incarceration. In other words, students of color are frequently the most adversely affected by preventative disciplinary policies and techniques (Livingston & Nahimana, 2006; Skiba & Peterson, 1999; Zion & Blanchett, 2011).

Methods

Data Source

The data analyzed in this study is from the Civil Rights Data Collection (CRDC, 2012). The Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights (OCR) has collected data on key education and civil rights since 1968, in accordance with its charge to enforce federal civil rights laws. The current charge to the OCR to collect these data derives from the 1980 Department of Education Organization Act, as well as 34 C.F.R. Section 100 6(b) of the Department of Education (www.ed.gov/ocr). The data for this study came from the 2011-2012 wave of data collection, which is the most recent wave of data collection

available for public use. The files accessed were those concerning in-school and out-of-school suspensions, corporal punishment, expulsions, referrals to law enforcement, and school related arrests. While state-level data were also available, we focused this study on national level data.

Sample Description

The 2009-2010 wave of data consists of 49,605,534 students from 95,635 public schools covering grades from Kindergarten to 12th grade. In the full sample, 13.8% of these students were recorded as having disabilities, including those served only under section 504 and students with disabilities served under IDEA. The analytic sample for this study examined only those students designated without disabilities, a sample size of 42,780,631 students.

Of the analytic sample, 50.9% were female and 49.1% were male. Table 1 shows the distribution of ethnicities across the analytic sample described above. The count is given in the first column, while the percent relative to the full analytic sample is provided in the second column.

Table 1
Distribution of Ethnic Groups across the Analytic Sample of Students without Disabilities

Ethnic Group	Count	Percent
Total Sample	42,780,631	100.00
American Indian or Alaska native	478,559	1.12
Asian	2,171,846	5.08
Hispanic/Latino any race	10,281,194	24.03
Black or African American	6,621,724	15.48
White	21,916,423	51.23
Native Hawaiian/other Pacific Islander	196,822	0.46
Two or more races	1,120,259	2.62

It is interesting to note that the level of White/Caucasian students was only about half of the analytic sample. Fifteen percent were African American, and almost a full quarter of these students were identified as Hispanic/Latino. Students identified as Hispanic/Latino included those of European, African, Central and South American origin. Other studies that organize groups by racial category would identify these students differently.

Table 2 shows the overall distribution of students reported for each discipline type. As in Table 1, the count is given in the first column, while the percent relative to the full analytic sample is provided in the second column.

Table 2
Distribution of Different Discipline Types across the Analytic Sample of Students without Disabilities

Discipline Type	Count	Percent
Total Sample	42,780,631	100.00
Corporal punishment	166,807	0.39
One or more in-school suspensions	2,719,369	6.36
One or more out-of-school suspensions	2,451,475	5.73
Expulsions with or w/out educational services	337,967	0.79
Referral to law enforcement	190,947	0.45
School-related arrest	13,049	0.03

Of these various discipline types, the most commonly reported was one or more in-school suspensions, while the least commonly reported was school-related arrest. However, the counts in each group were sufficient enough to examine each category for differences by ethnic group.

Data Analyses

The primary focus of this study was to examine the relative distribution of different types of discipline between different ethnic groups. We analyzed whether students of different ethnic backgrounds differed significantly in their experience of discipline by type using a crosstab or cross-tabulation analysis with a chi-square test statistic. Cross-tabulation uses categorical predictors and outcomes, comparing the observed frequency of each cell to the expected frequency one would expect under the assumption of no relationship. Hence, this process provides the best analytic approach to this question. We used an alpha level of .001 to test for significance, because the large sample size can lead chi-square to liberal estimates of probability. The more conservative significance level helps adjust for this problem. In addition, we provided each estimate of the percent of students receiving the relevant punishment with an odds-ratio comparison of that group to White students (as the baseline majority group). As Fleiss (1994) explained, an odds-ratio calculation is preferable to a standardized mean different as an effect-size index in group designs when the outcome data are truly dichotomous (e.g., being arrested or not, being suspended or not). The equation used to calculate these odd-ratios was as follows:

$$OR = [(PR_{eth})(1-PR_{eth})] / [(PR_{white})(1-PR_{white})]$$

where

PR_{eth} indicates the proportion of students in the specific ethnic group who received this punishment

PR_{white} indicates the proportion of White students who received this punishment

Each odds-ratio can be interpreted as the difference for that group in likelihood of receiving that type of punishment compared to White students. As such, it provides an effect-size estimate of the difference between students in each ethnic group and White students.

We then conducted sub-group analyses for each type of discipline separately by gender of the student. These chi-square analyses followed the same structure as those with the full analytic sample, with the same adjustment to the alpha level. These analyses

allowed us to examine whether gender may interact with the severity of discipline experienced by students of different ethnic groups. In these analyses, because the focus was on differences between male and female students within each ethnic group, the odds-ratio provided compares the likelihood of receiving the given punishment between male students and female students. The equation used to calculate these odd-ratios was as follows:

$$OR = [(PR_{male})(1-PR_{male})] / [(PR_{female})(1-PR_{female})]$$

where

PR_{male} indicates the proportion of male students in the specific ethnic group who received this punishment

PR_{female} indicates the proportion of female students in the specific ethnic group who received this punishment

Each odds-ratio can be interpreted as the difference for males compared to females in likelihood of receiving that type of punishment. As such, it provides an effect-size estimate of the difference between genders in each ethnic group.

Findings

Comparison of Discipline Type by Ethnic Group for Non-Disabled Students

Table 3 shows the comparisons of ethnic groups indicated as having received each discipline type. Each row is a separate chi-square analysis, showing the percent within each ethnic group and then the odds-ratio comparing the likelihood of receiving that punishment for that ethnic group compared to White students. The chi-square estimate is shown under each row.

If there was no relationship between ethnicity and likelihood of receiving a given discipline, the percent of each ethnic group would be the same. The results reported in Table 3 make it clear that, while the levels indicated for each discipline type were small compared to the overall sample, the proportional differences between each group were substantial. In every category, the levels reported for either African American or Native American students were much higher than any other group.

Table 3
Results of Cross-Tabulation of Types of Disciplinary Actions by Ethnicity for Students Without Disabilities with Odds-Ratio Compared to White Students

Discipline type	Amr. Indian/ Alaskan Ntv percent (OR)	Asian percent (OR)	Hispanic/ Latino percent (OR)	Black/Afr American percent (OR)	White percent (OR)	Two races percent (OR)
Corporal punishment	0.67%	0.02%	0.12%	0.75%	0.34%	0.02%
$\chi^2_{(6df)} = 58{,}648.9$, $p < .001$	(1.96)	(0.06)	(0.35)	(2.20)	(1.0)	(0.06)
One or more in-school suspensions	7.21%	1.43%	6.15%	12.88%	5.02%	5.77%
$\chi^2_{(6df)} = 1{,}123{,}168.5$, $p < .001$	(1.40)	(0.30)	(1.22)	(2.35)	(1.0)	(1.14)
One or more out-of-school suspensions	7.05%	1.36%	5.35%	14.53%	3.69%	5.46%
$\chi^2_{(6df)} = 1{,}202{,}902.2$, $p < .001$	(1.84)	(0.37)	(1.42)	(3.49)	(1.0)	(1.45)
Expulsions with or w/out educational services	9.3%	0.05%	0.2%	0.6%	0.1%	0.2%
$\chi^2_{(6df)} = 3{,}168.9$, $p < .001$	(84.44)	(0.50)	(2.00)	(6.00)	(1.0)	(2.00)
Referral to law enforcement	0.91%	0.13%	0.46%	0.79%	0.36%	0.38%
$\chi^2_{(6df)} = 28{,}504.1$, $p < .001$	(2.51)	(0.36)	(1.28)	(2.19)	(1.0)	(1.06)
School-related arrest	0.21%	0.03%	0.12%	0.21%	0.09%	0.10%
$\chi^2_{(6df)} = 9{,}469.2$, $p < .001$	(2.33)	(0.33)	(1.33)	(2.33)	(1.0)	(1.11)

For example, African American students were more than twice as likely as white students to have been suspended in school (OR of 2.35), and more than six times as likely to receive this punishment than Asian students (12.88% compared to 1.43%). Similarly, African American students were three and a half times more likely to have received an out-of-school suspension than were white students (OR of 3.49), and were over 10 times more likely to receive this punishment than were Asian students (14.53% compared to 1.36%). In fact, African American levels were highest for suspensions (both in-school and out-of-school) and corporal punishment. Native American levels were highest for referral to law enforcement and for expulsion with or without school services, and these two groups were at the same level of school-related arrests. Across all types of discipline, Asian students had the lowest reported levels, with odds-ratio calculations below .50 (indicating 50% less likely to receive this punishment compared to white students).

Of the six types of disciplines, three specifically remove a child from school. Figure 1 shows the distribution of reported levels within each ethnic group that result in removal of children from the school environment.

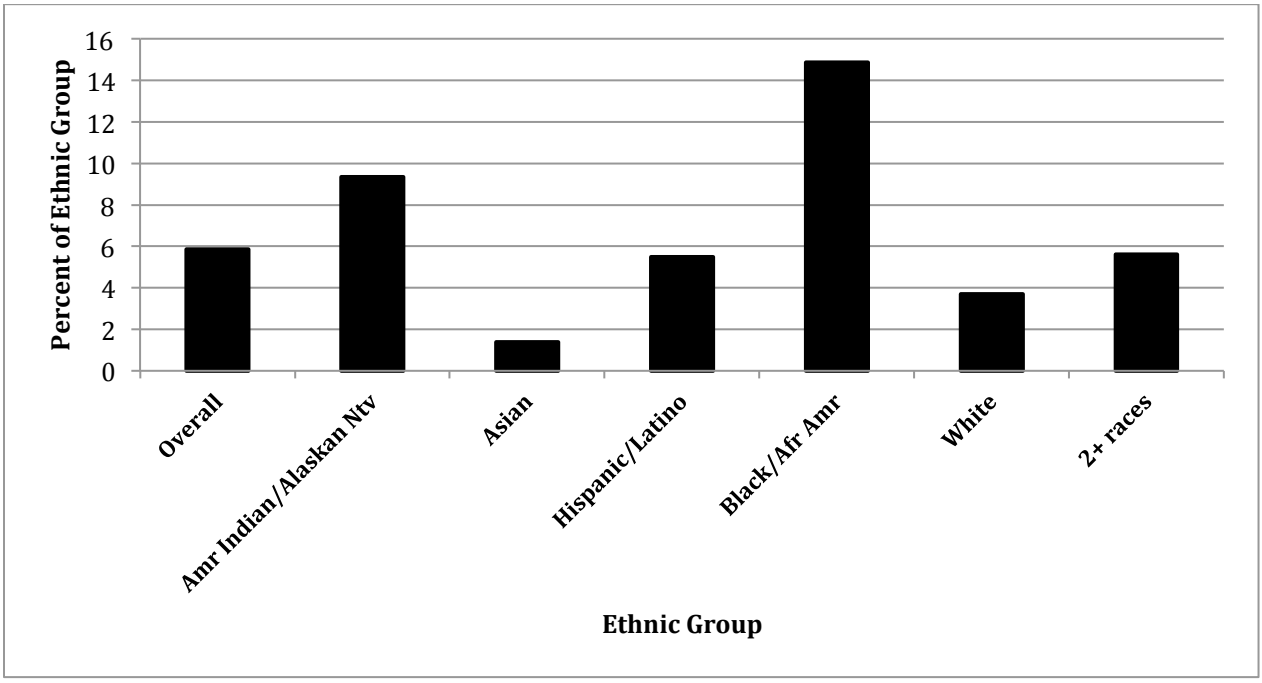

Figure 1. Percent of each ethnic group reported receiving punishments that remove the student from school in school year 2011-2012.

This figure clearly demonstrates that the different ethnic groups face a very different set of experiences that remove students from school. Across the different ethnicities, Asian children were the least likely to receive this level of punishment. Interestingly, the levels experienced by white students and by Hispanic/Latino students are somewhat similar, although white students were still about half as likely to be removed from school as were Hispanic/Latino students (3.7% compared to 5.5%). This result might shift critically if the designation of Hispanic/Latino were to incorporate race in its identification. However, this figure shows clearly that African American students were at a much greater risk for this level of punishment. Almost 15% of these children, or three out of every 20 students, received this level of punishment in the 2011-2012 school year.

Gender Subgroup Comparison of Discipline Type by Ethnic Group for Non-Disabled Students

Given the differences observed in Table 3, we followed with a post-hoc examination within each ethnic group, examining the pattern of differences between male and female students. Table 4 shows the comparisons by gender within each ethnic group who were indicated as having received each discipline type. Each row is a separate chi-square analysis, showing the percent within each ethnic group for male and then female students. The next column shows the chi-square statistic testing the difference in distribution between male and female students receiving that punishment, and the final column shows

the odds ratio of male/female, which indicates the difference in odds of receiving that punishment between male and female students within that ethnic group.

Within each ethnic group, the gender distribution was approximately the same. Therefore, if there was no relationship between gender and punishment, the percentage of boys who received each punishment would be about the same as the percentage of girls. However, for almost every gender comparison within each ethnic group, male students were more likely to receive punishment than female students, with only one set of exceptions.

Table 4

Results of Cross-Tabulation of Types of Disciplinary Actions by Gender Overall and Within Each Ethnic/Racial Group for Students Without Disabilities

Discipline Type	% of Male w/in Ethnic Grp	% of Female w/in Ethnic Grp	χ^2 Gender w/in Ethnic Grp	Odds-Ratio Male/Female
Corporal punishment				
Overall	0.50%	0.20%	2809375.39***	2.49
Ntv. American/Alaskan Ntv	0.40%	0.30%	5.56*	1.33
Asian	0.03%	0.01%	161.37***	3.00
Hispanic/Latino	0.20%	0.10%	3399.13***	2.00
Black/Afr. American	1.10%	0.40%	9158.87***	2.73
White	1.00%	0.10%	24129.24***	9.91
Two+ races	0.20%	0.10%	482.41***	2.00
One or more in-school suspensions				
Overall	8.40%	4.40%	286373.77***	2.16
Ntv. American/Alaskan Ntv	3.00%	5.50%	6206.90***	0.56
Asian	2.00%	0.60%	5918.09***	3.29
Hispanic/Latino	7.80%	4.50%	49360.24***	1.67
Black/Afr. American	15.10%	10.60%	29464.32***	1.35
White	6.60%	3.40%	129648.94***	1.89
Two+ races	7.10%	4.40%	3935.54***	1.57
One or more out-of-school suspensions				
Overall	7.90%	3.70%	340844.95***	2.04
Ntv. American/Alaskan Ntv	3.10%	5.00%	2355.55***	0.63
Asian	2.10%	0.60%	8274.08***	3.45
Hispanic/Latino	7.20%	3.40%	73431.09***	2.03
Black/Afr. American	17.60%	11.30%	53275.15***	1.45
White	5.10%	2.20%	135917.22***	2.25
Two+ races	7.10%	3.70%	6374.89***	1.85
Expulsions with or without educational services				
Overall	0.30%	0.10%	20517.93***	2.99
Ntv. American/Alaskan Ntv	9.00%	10.10%	194.94***	0.90
Asian	0.10%	0.02%	327.95***	5.00
Hispanic/Latino	0.30%	0.10%	73431.09***	2.99
Black/Afr. American	1.00%	0.30%	4062.92***	3.31
White	0.20%	0.10%	7088.75***	2.00
Two+ races	0.30%	0.10%	308.05***	2.99
Referral to law enforcement or School-related arrest				
Overall	0.80%	0.30%	37151.90***	2.65
Ntv. American/Alaskan Ntv	0.50%	0.80%	209.94***	0.63
Asian	2.40%	0.10%	778.60***	23.45
Hispanic/Latino	0.80%	0.40%	8661.11***	2.00
Black/Afr. American	1.30%	0.70%	4677.13***	1.85

White	1.00%	0.30%	14190.36***	3.32
Two+ races	1.00%	0.30%	459.52***	3.31

For Native American students, girls were more likely than boys to receive in-school suspension, out-of-school suspension, expulsion either with or without educational services, and to be referred to law enforcement or experience school-related arrest. For every other group and for every type of punishment, boys were more likely to receive it than girls. In every case, boys range from being almost twice as likely (for example, Black/African American referral to law or school-related arrest, OR of 1.85 with boys more likely to receive than girls) to more than 20 times as likely (for example, Asian referral to law or school related arrest, OR of 23.45 indicating that boys were more than 23 times more likely to receive than girls). Apart from the experiences of Native American students, there was a strong gender bias at play in which boys were more likely than girls to be punished.

Recommendations and Strategies

Farrington (2014) argues that two contradictory types of policies and practices impacting high schools involve either "selection and stratification" or "equity and excellence" (p. 6). The former serve to classify and place students based upon their "expected position" (p. 6). By contrast, the latter holds that "regardless of race, class, gender, nationality, language, social position, or disability—should receive the same high-quality education" (p. 6). We must dismantle this dichotomous structure pertaining to the purpose of schooling and put all students on an equal footing, allowing them to decide their life paths for themselves. We can begin these discussions within teacher education programs. Lensmire and Snaza (2010) argue that because most teachers and professors of education are white, "Whatever is happening in teacher education has much to do with social relations among [w]hite people" (p. 420). Likewise, our results demonstrate that teacher education programs must be revamped to include critical multiculturalism (including gender issues) and the interrogation of white supremacy in schools and in society.

According to Milner (2006), for pre-service teachers to be prepared to work in diverse settings, they must be well versed in the following areas: cultural and racial awareness, critical reflection, and the merging of theory and practice. We must do better in preparing future teachers for diversity by reframing teacher education through critical multiculturalism: reconceptualizing our instruction to create the belief that educational opportunities should be granted to every student, regardless of race, culture, language, gender, or any other identity marker (Akiba, 2011). We must also defy the notion that lack of student success, particularly in urban schools, is the fault of students, their parents, their home cultures, and their communities (Milner, 2008). To this end, we must advocate for multicultural education courses that seek to challenge and confront the dominant social order (Bolotin Joseph, Luster Bravmann, Windschitl, Mikel, & Stewart Green, 2000). Although this work is difficult and students tend to resist it (Martin, 2015; Milner, 2013), there are steps that professors can do to minimize this resistance.

According to Akiba (2011), professors who value their students' opinions enabled a level of comfort within the classroom where students felt comfortable expressing themselves, when students were able to learn from one another, and where the professors created a learning community within the classroom; when these conditions are met,

students are more likely to develop positive views on diversity. Being sensitive to students' own cultural backgrounds and presenting concepts in a constructivist environment are also effective techniques (Akiba, 2011).
Dover (2013) provides further suggestions for fostering positive views on diversity in teacher education. Pre-service teachers must cultivate the following beliefs:

1. "assume all students are participants in knowledge construction, have high expectations for students and themselves, and foster learning communities;
2. acknowledge, value, and build upon students' existing knowledge, interests, cultural and linguistic resources;
3. teach academic skills and bridge gaps in students' learning;
4. work in reciprocal partnership with students' families and communities;
5. critique and employ multiple forms of assessment; and
6. explicitly teach about activism, power, and inequity in schools and society" (p. 90).

Finally, teacher education candidates and professors of education must:

- Deconstruct white privilege and racism (Blanchett, 2006);
- Defy colorblindness;
- Confront stereotypes of Blackness;
- Interrogate the notion that schools are neutral, fair, and equitable spaces, where all students are treated equally and can expect they be offered the same chance at success (Bartolome, 1994).

Schools much change their policies, and teachers their attitudes that success is a white domain (Carter Andrews, 2012). Carter Andrews (2012) argues that teachers must examine race, racism, whiteness, and how these concepts relate to teaching and learning. Finally, teacher education programs should utilize Gay's (2000) approach to culturally responsive pedagogy, where pre-service teachers are encouraged to utilize the "cultural knowledge, prior experiences, frames of reference, and performance styles of ethnically diverse students to make learning encounters more relevant to and effective for them" (p. 29). If these changes do not occur, then stereotypes and the dehumanization of non-hegemonic populations will prevail—furthering perpetrating the miseducation and criminalization of many of our youth.

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Identifying the Administrative Dispositions Most Preferred by Urban School Leaders and School Leadership Candidates

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Abstract

This research study delves into the newly crafted ISSLC national school leadership standards asking current school leaders and school leadership candidates to prioritize their perceived level of importance of 20 administrative dispositions. 128 school principals and 165 school leadership candidates in the NYC schools responded to an electronic survey. Although an overall moderate correlation existed between the two constituencies, significant differences also emerged. For example, using a wider range of technology applications and protecting scheduled instructional time were seen as critical by the aspiring school leader, whereas current school leaders placed a heavier emphasis on building positive relationships with staff and using student test score data to drive instructional change. Implications for professional practice were drawn for both the role of the principal as well as for improving school leadership preparation programs.

Keywords: Urban education, administrative dispositions, school leadership, academic leadership, school leadership preparation programs, staff development, national core leadership standards and school climate

Background of the Study: Instructional Dispositions Needed by the School Leader

There is little doubt that principals need to focus on the instructional process for both the benefit of their students as well as their teachers to help them reach higher achievement levels. For the past several decades, research indicates that higher performing schools are most frequently connected to the active engagement of the school leader in the learning process (Leithwood, 2003; Morrison, 2009). More than ever, school administrators are expected to be change agents leading the instructional mission (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2009).

Determining the best way to accomplish relationship building with staff members and finding a way to forge consensus to improve instructional practices is a skill set that must be acquired and refined by the school leader (Fullan, 2012). The more that school leaders focus their relationships, their daily work, and their personal learning to the core business of teaching and learning, the greater is their influence on student outcomes (Robinson, 2008).

In particular, the skill set needed by urban school leaders seem to be identifiable as being distinct from other geographic settings (Marcos, 2011). When the Principal's Academy in the California urban schools focused greater attention on the understanding of "self" with school leader candidates and promoted taking courageous leaps into action,

their students demonstrated marked improvement in their performances (p. 253). In urban locales, the issue of persistent student transiency (and dealing with student resiliency in crisis) demands knowledge not traditionally found in educational preparation environments (Tobin, 2016).

Researchers have found that a positive correlation exists between certain types of school leadership dispositions and the academic performance of students (Marzano & McNulty, 2005). Specifically, a handful of "personal dispositions exhibited by the school leaders are critical to explain a high percentage of positive educational changes" (Leithwood, 2003, p. 3). Therefore, educational leadership preparation programs have an obligation not only to identify appropriate leadership dispositions in their own university's curricula but also to embed the study of these desirable dispositions into our future school leader training programs via persistent modeling and rehearsal.

Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards identify foundational core values required by practicing school leaders to accomplish their tasks. Recently, these national standards have been reconfigured to accentuate the evolving body of research on the student learning process and to identify administrative dispositions used in a learning-supportive school environment.

Focusing on administrative dispositions to enhance student learning is a key concept. "Collectively, this new tier of prioritization can be characterized as leadership for learning. This leadership for learning requires school leaders to primarily focus on supporting student needs and to complement adult learning" (CCSSO, 2014, p. 2). These newly adopted ISSLC standards form the perspective for this study and as such dominate our review and analysis.

In conducting a study of national core standards on educational leadership it is important to note that a model of "one size fits all" is not the exclusive school leadership preparation paradigm. When critical administrative dispositions are cited in the national core standards, this overarching construct becomes more restrictive and may not have direct relevancy to each institution. Hoy and Miskel (2013) would argue that this type of closed system severely curtails critical thought. Once the organization of schools becomes a bureaucratic process developed by agents external to the system, initial creativity and potential energy of the staff dissipates.

Spillane and Diamond (2010) would expand this theory by asserting that leadership is best served when designed by and tied to current organizational members influencing the practices of others. This research project does not debate the relative merits of an open or a closed review system but acknowledges that more than one administrative platform is certainly worthy of greater analysis.

Additional research is needed on how to create the conditions so that leaders can acquire the most appropriate dispositional skills to advance student learning in their setting. Being sensitive and responsive to teachers' needs and knowing how to grasp the subtle nuances inherent in a trusting internal culture also demands further reflection (Hallinger & Heck, 2010). Currently, individual states and school systems have been asked to engage all stakeholders in a discourse on the knowledge, skills, and dispositions related to the new standards suggested in the ISLLC redraft (CCSSO, 2014).

The field of educational leadership training has scant representation in terms of the content contained in its programs (Orr, 2010; Hess & Kelly, 2007). With the release of the ISLLC's updated dispositional standards, it seems an appropriate moment to

examine the suggested administrative skills and dispositions cited in the 2014 revision. In particular, identifying differing preferences and interpretations of these new standards emanating from varied educational constituents would clarify their value and potential impact.

The constituency group of urban school leaders is searching for ways to hone their personal administrative dispositional skills based on these new guidelines. In a study of school leadership that focuses on the student learning function, it is suggested that a crucial disposition necessary to stimulate instructional improvement would be for the school leader to become a consummate relationship builder with diverse people (Edgerson & Kritsonis, 2006). It is inferred that when transformational and shared instructional relationships co-exist in an integrated form, substantial reform occurs in the quality of pedagogy and the achievement levels of students (Marks & Printy, 2010).

Another constituency group, frequently missing from educational research, is the that of school leadership candidates. There is little research that systematically documents the content of leadership preparatory programs, their instructional focus, or even in the required readings assigned within their programs (Orr, 2010).

Presently, there appears to be distinguishable performance gaps in the ability of administrators immediately graduating from instructional leadership programs and the degree of exigent demand that school leaders initially face (Storey, 2013). Instructors of educational leadership preparation programs must be cognizant of these performance gaps, assess their theoretical implications, and then align their present curriculum to better meet national standards.

Significance of the Study

Given that research implies that differing school leadership styles significantly impact student learning, as well as the fact that little discrete research exists on the specific content in educational leadership preparation programs, an opportunity is created to examine basic constituency preferences for effective leadership dispositions. A study that measures the degree of congruence for preferences for critical leadership dispositions as suggested by ISLLC for school leaders and for school leadership candidates is a worthwhile area of investigation.

An initial research decision suggested that surveying school leaders alone might provide only a limited perspective on the question at hand. For that reason, the second constituency group of school leadership candidates was added. The opinions of school leadership candidates were seen as a critical dimension as they will be intricately involved in implementing instructional standards in their individual schools.

The phraseology suggested in the newly drafted national ISLLC core standards provides a baseline to analyze perceptual differences; it also allows for insightful research into how these particular standards might be seen as priorities by different educational constituencies. The differences in the preferred leadership dispositions held by each group can be first ascertained and then tested in terms of the strength of their relationship. An analysis of these differences would enrich our conceptualization of leadership practice as well as fulfill the request of the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO, 2014) to engage in greater local dialogue on the value and appropriateness of the proposed newly written ISLLC standards.

There are four research questions being examined in this study:

1. From the list of revised draft ISLLC standards in 2014, which instructional dispositions are most preferred by school leaders?
2. From the list of revised draft of the ISLLC standards in 2014, which instructional dispositions are most preferred by school leadership candidates?
3. What are the similarities and differences between school leaders and school leader candidates in terms of their preferences for the cited administrative dispositions?
4. Which types of dispositions on instructional practice are most preferred by the constituencies of school leaders and school leader candidates?

Review of the Literature

With a deeper understanding of "self and the impact of their dispositions, leaders can, if necessary, modify their beliefs and values to enhance skillful performance in schools" (Green & Cooper, 2013, p. 3). The emphasis on the expanded leadership role aimed at student learning has placed increased demands on implementing a high quality teacher observation system to ensure that educators are taking the correct steps to improve student performance (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Based on a new conceptual stance on evaluation and supervision, greater emphasis needs to be embraced by the school leader to create a stronger and more collaborative relationship between the leader and teacher (Edgerson & Kritsonis, 2006). In the current parlance of school leadership reform, planning for improved instruction with teachers is now termed to be a human capital enterprise.

The term "educational dispositions" first rose to prominence in the mid 1990's, replacing the former term "attitudes" found in the 1992 Interstate New Teacher Assessment Support Consortium (INTASC) Report, which argued that inherent intrinsic values will drive behaviors (Freeman, 2003, p. 373). The National Council of Accreditation for Teacher Education (NCATE, 2010) further defines professional dispositions as "values, commitments, and professional ethics that influence behavior" (p. 48). Dispositions are tendencies for individuals to act in a specific manner under particular circumstances, based on their belief system.

A tendency implies a pattern of behavior that is predictive of future actions (Tato & Coupland, 2003). The definition of dispositions in this study closely follows the research of Villegas (2007) in stating that a dispositional tendency implies a pattern of behavior that is the most likely to be predictive of one's future actions.

University professors consistently strive to select the most appropriate content to include within their school leadership programs, determine appropriate administrative models to study, and identify ways to assess school program effectiveness. The process needed to make administrative decisions is best left to scientifically-based tools to guide the way (Melton, Tysinger, Molloy, & Green, 2010).

In reviewing the relevant current literature on urban school leadership, there are two major elements that consistently reappear. The issue of comprehending the nuances of ethnic identity and the manner in which instruction is delivered are observable components within the current research of the urban school framework. Milligan and

Howley (2015) point out that many urban students are often color-conscious as well as being acutely aware of cultural identity. If a teacher has a different skin color and uses culturally insensitive language, there is often a strong denial of relationship with the instructor. In fact, even when a teacher possesses a comparable ethnic identity but intentionally or unintentionally is mostly dismissive of a student's cultural background, the degree of trust extended to the teacher wanes.

Beyond the issue of ethnic identity, urban students also want to be heard as distinct, respected voices coming from an identifiable cultural community with specific issues such as neighborhood safety, frequent family transiency, and encountering cultural barriers preventing them from moving higher in societal structure (McKnight, 2015). When issues of urban life are excluded from any formal discussion, students feel a stronger sense of isolation. In addition to community and ethnic backgrounds, urban students also carefully scrutinize any physical actions taken by school and local community leaders (Green, 2015). If decisions are made or actions taken that promote the continuance of class distinction or block the integration of ethnicities, students are quick to notice them, lowering their overall confidence in the formal construct of a governmental structure such as schools.

A second prevalent theme is improving the quality of urban education centers on the delivery of program instruction. Using teacher-centered focus groups, as compared to individual teacher preparation, of instructional planning leads to improved student performance (Portin et al., 2009). Empowering teachers to make decisions on content and delivery leads to greater inclusion of cultural diversity and provides a greater array of authentic educational perspectives. In another study designed to improve urban educational practices, by Halverson and Clifford (2015), school leaders that train and encourage teachers to utilize distributed instructional practices have experienced beneficial results. Distributed education occurs when teachers incorporate video and internet applications in their instruction, which is keenly aligned to the way that urban student interact with technology.

School values and school cultures are the undercurrent that drives the values, norms, dispositions, and traditions that define the quality of a school (Eakes, 2008). One researcher found that identifying school leadership dispositions to be so crucial to the success of a school that "it should be the very first place for any organization to consider in training transformational leaders" (Verland, 2012, p.15). Moreover, it seems that school leadership dispositions are not only more difficult to teach than knowledge and skills, they are also much more challenging to define and to measure (Edick, Danielson, & Edwards, 2007). For contextualization purposes, dispositions in this study are seen as those skills, knowledge sets, and active steps that educators are most likely to take in the completion of their daily work.

In theory, first-year principals need to be ready from the very start of their tenure to identify and implement instructional-based activities in a mutual collaboration process with staff to transform their school to an improved state of student learning (CCSSO, 2013). Using the combined knowledge and commitment of all stakeholders, school leaders need to focus on and support high-level student learning activities collectively developed and implemented by staff (Sanders & Simpson. 2005).

Methodology

Selection of Participants

New York City Public Schools were selected as the data pool for urban school leaders. After receiving permission from the Institutional Review Board of New York City, 365 different schools were contacted with a distribution of 125 high schools, 58 middle schools, and 183 elementary school principals being sent surveys. Participants were asked to voluntarily complete an electronic survey.

All of the twelve university leadership program directors of school leadership preparation programs associated with MCEAP (Metropolitan Council of Educational Administration Professors) in New York City were also contacted via a listserv directory. These directors were asked to send an electronic survey to their educational candidates who were near the completion of their school leadership program in an anonymous format. It was reasoned that graduate students who were unnamed in survey use would be more likely to respond. In all, 325 educational leadership candidates were sent a survey requesting voluntary participation. A response was requested within a six-week window.

Development of the Survey Instrument

An online survey was seen as the most efficient way to gather data within the first six weeks of initial dissemination. The twenty administrative "dispositions" were chosen directly from the newly drafted 2014 ISLLC standards. Within the newly written ISLLC standards, the specific standards selected that had the greatest resonance with instructional leadership were chosen: Instruction, Curriculum, and School Culture (CCSSO, 2014).

Respondents were asked the question: "From this list of 20 potential administrative dispositions that a school leader could possess, please indicate the top five preferences that you would personally select to improve the student learning process." Applying this approach to the data, each respondent selected five dispositions and fifteen others would be omitted.

Once the participants individually rated their individual dispositions, it would then be possible to arrange a list of preferred dispositions in a priority ranking from highest to lowest. These prioritized ranks could then be analyzed as a collective source of data, as well as broken down into the two selected constituency groups for basic comparison.

Categorizing by Various Types of Dispositions

In examining the dispositional functions suggested in the 2014 ISLLC draft standards, it was possible to further divide them into differentiated categories. The five types of dispositions were intentionally randomized in their placement on the survey to see if certain types of dispositions would be seen as more preferred than other types by the two constituencies. The dispositions stated below comprise five different types:

1. *Selecting Instructional Approaches:* "Employs technology in the service of teaching" (Item # 5); "Works to create productive relationships with students, staff, parents and members of the extended school community to increase learning" (Item # 6); "Ensures the use of effective differentiated pedagogy and student supports to reduce the learning gap" (Item # 16); and "Ensures that instruction is authentic and relevant to students' experiences" (Item # 20).
2. *Use of Instructional Theories:* "Ensures strength-based approaches to teaching and learning" (Item # 4); "Ensures that instruction is anchored on best understanding of child development and effective pedagogy" (Item # 9); "Ensures the presence of culturally responsive pedagogy that affirms student identities" (Item # 11); and "Ensures the use of learning experiences that enhance both the enjoyment of and success in learning" (Item # 12).
3. *Developing the School Environment: "*Ensures that students are enmeshed in a safe, secure, emotionally protective, and healthy environment" (Item # 1); "Ensures the formation of a school culture defined by trust" (Item # 2); "Ensures that each student has sustained social and academic support" (Item # 8); and "Monitors instructional time carefully" (Item # 13).
4. *Forming School Goals/ Using Assessment:* "Ensures the use of pedagogy that treats students as individuals and develops a concept of self" (Item # 3); "Maintains a culture of high expectations and challenge" (Item # 7); "Direct curricula and related assessments to maximize opportunities for student learning" (Item # 10); and "Uses assessment data in ways that are appropriate for their intended uses" (Item # 19).
5. *Adopting Student-Centered Activities:* "Nurtures the development of learning that places children at the heart of learning" (Item # 14); "Ensures that each student is known, accepted, and valued and feels a sense of belonging" (Item # 15); "Ensures that each student is an active participant taking responsibility for learning" (Item # 17); and "Provides students with social and academic experiences that are congruent with their culture and language" (Item # 18).

Data-Gathering Procedures

In the case of the school leaders, an electronic survey personalized by name was sent to each of the current principals in the sample. Principals were asked to first carefully read the entire list of twenty administrative dispositions and then select their top five preferences, with a return request of one month cited. If the school leader did not respond within the first month, an electronic reminder was sent out.

For educational leadership candidates, coordinators of educational leadership programs were contacted in the greater New York City area asking for their institution's voluntary participation. If consent was attained, the electronic survey was then sent to the various candidates using their university's listserv mechanism. A similar procedure was used asking for a one-month return. A reminder was sent out after the window of one month expired.

Anonymity of respondent data was promised to all participants. Survey results were processed through a data collection service known as "student voice." This electronic system, popularly used in university settings, has the capacity to send out

electronic surveys, store data and disaggregate the data findings from all sets of the general population.

Results and Findings

The results of the study indicate that although there is a moderate correlation for preferred dispositions between the two constituency groups, there were also several areas in which the two groups held different beliefs on which dispositions were the most preferred. It is the careful analysis of these two different sets preferences by the two constituencies that is important to examine.

Table 1
Comparison of Dispositions Preferred by Constituencies

		Leader N=128			Candidate N=165		
#	Disposition	Rank	Mean	SD	Rank	Mean	SD
1	Safe Environment	3	2.65	3.98	2	3.35	3.82
2	Trusting Culture	1	3.35	3.82	4	3.15	3.87
3	Students as Individual	13	1.25	4.30	15	1.25	4.30
4	Strength Based	19	.40	4.50	17	.90	4.38
5	Technology	20	.20	4.54	8	2.55	4.0
6	Productive Relationship	2	3.15	3.87	11	2.05	4.01
7	High Expectations	4	2.55	4.00	1	3.70	3.74
8	Academic Support	9	1.70	4.20	5	3.0	3.90
9	Child Development	5	2.20	4.08	10	2.15	4.09
10	Maximize Learning	10	1.6	4.22	19	.60	4.45
11	Culturally Responsive	18	.50	4.47	20	.50	4.47
12	Success in Learning	12	1.35	4.27	12	1.90	4.15
13	Instructional Time	16	.80	4.40	6	2.75	3.96
14	Child-based learning	14	1.05	4.35	18	.75	4.42
15	Value Students	15	.90	4.38	13	1.75	4.19
16	Differentiated Instruction	8	1.90	4.15	3	3.25	3.84
17	Student Responsive Learn	7	2.0	4.15	9	2.40	4.04
18	Match Culture to Academics	17	.75	4.42	14	1.50	4.24
19	Uses Assessments	6	2.1	4.11	16	.10	4.57
20	Authentic Instruction	11	1.5	4.24	7	2.56	4.00

Areas of Highest-Rated Preferred Congruence

In reviewing similarities, there were three dispositions that were consistently rated highly by the two constituencies. "Establishing a safe school environment" was rated as the number three preference by school leaders and was rated as number two by school leadership candidates. "Creating a trusting school culture" was the number one

preference for school leaders and was seen as the fourth highest preference for the school leadership candidates. "Setting high academic expectations for students" was the number four preference for the school leader and was the first preference for school leadership candidates. In all, the three dispositions of establishing a safe school environment, creating a trusting school culture, and setting high student academic expectations were all rated within the top five preferences by the two constituencies.

Areas of Lowest-Rated Preferred Congruence

There were 4 other identifiable dispositions that were similarly ranked but selected as lower preferences by the two demographic groups. The "development of culturally responsive materials" was rated as the 18th preference by the school leaders and was rated as the 20th preference by the school leadership candidates. The "use of a strength-based approach to pedagogy" was ranked as the 19th preference by the school leaders and was rated as 17th by the school leadership candidates. "Implementing elements of child-based theories" was selected as the 14th preference by the school leaders and was the 18th preference for the school leadership candidates. Finally, "matching a school's culture to the academic content" was seen as the 17th preference by the leaders and was the 14th preference for the school leadership candidates.

Areas of Distinct Contrast

In all, there were 5 preferences that were ranked in direct contrast between the two constituencies in terms of their relative perceived preference:

1. The school leaders rated using "technology as an invaluable component of instruction" as their lowest preference (rank #20), while this disposition was the 8th highest preference for the school leadership candidates.
2. Using "student assessments as an appropriate way to improve instruction" was seen as the 6th highest preference for the school leaders, but the school leadership candidates placed this disposition as their 16th preference.
3. "Careful monitoring of the use of instructional time" was deemed to be the 16th highest preference for the school leaders but was the 6th preference for the school leadership candidates.
4. The disposition of school administrators "to develop productive relationships with their school staff" was rated as the 2nd highest preference for the school leaders, but the school leadership candidates placed this item as their 11th highest preference.
5. Lastly, "maximizing curricular options" was the 19th preference for the school leader, yet school leadership candidates rated it as their 10th highest disposition.

Correlation of Ranked Dispositions

Through the application of a Spearman Rank Order Correlation, a statistically moderate correlation (rho=.509) existed between the expressed preferences of school leaders and school leadership candidates. A Pearson Product-Moment Correlation is a statistically

accepted method used to measure the degree of congruence between ranked pairs. (Harring, 2011). In reviewing the standard deviation between ranked dispositions, values tended to cluster to a consistently close central tendency.

Findings on the Types of Dispositions Preferred by Groups

Table 2
Grouping of Preferred Administrative Dispositions by Types

Disposition	School Leaders	Leadership Candidates	Disposition	School Leaders	Leadership Candidates
	Composite Mean	Composite Mean		Composite Mean	Composite Mean
Instructional Approach			**Instructional Theory**		
Relationship	3.15	2.05	Developmental	2.20	2.15
Differentiate	1.90	3.25	Strength Base	.40	.90
Authentic	1.50	2.56	Cultural	.50	.50
Technology	.20	2.55	Success	1.35	1.90
Totals	1.68	2.60	Totals	1.11	.36
School Environment			**Reaching School Goals**		
Safe School	2.65	3.35	Individualize	1.25	1.25
Trust	3.35	3.15	High Expect.	2.55	3.70
Supportive to Academics	1.70	3.00	Maximizing Curriculum	1.60	.60
Class Time	.80	2.75	Assessment	2.10	.10
Totals	2.12	3.06	Total	1.87	1.41
Student-Centered					
Child-Based	1.05	.75			
Responsible	2.00	2.40			
Relevancy	.75	1.50			
Valued	.90	1.75			
Totals	1.17	1.60			

In general, school leaders were fairly closely clustered with their scored preferences for the various types of dispositions. The composite mean score for the five different types varied from a low of 1.17 for student-centered preferences to a high of 2.12 for dispositions that dealt with improving the school environment. In the case of leadership candidates, the five mean scores grew from a low mean of 1.36 for instructional theory up to a high score 3.06 for improving the school environment. Taking composite ratings per category allowed for computing the mean.

In aggregate, improving the school environment was the disposition that received the highest rating. However, the data did not lead to a firm conclusion that one specific type of administrative disposition was seen as vastly preferable to another.

Interpretation of Results on Differing Preferences by Constituents

The data suggest that there were five basic areas of incongruent thinking on five of the dispositional values stated in the 2014 ISLLC draft:

1. *Using Technology in Your Pedagogy:* School leaders felt that in weighing the relative value of the 20 dispositions stated in the new ISLLC standard, the commitment to using technology as an integral component of student learning was ranked as their least preferred or their number 20 rank. The school leadership candidates ranked it as their eighth preferred disposition. There might be some generational perspective in place here as the younger school leadership candidates were more likely to have been raised using technological applications than the preceding generation. Another theory that could be offered is that school leaders recognize technology use as a valuable tool for learning but not necessarily a guarantee that student learning will naturally flow from its use. Given limited financial resources, it might also be possible that school leaders need to judiciously utilize available school resources to achieve the greatest perceived benefit for their value.
2. *Appropriate Use of Assessment Data*: School leaders rated the use of assessment as their sixth highest rank, while leadership candidates rated it as their 16th. School leaders are now facing increasing demands to validate effective educational practices (NCATE, 2010). Both federal and state bureaucracies are requesting data-driven analyses to support local claims of competency. Since these increased visible measures are embedded in quality reviews and evaluation procedures, urban school leaders utilize varied forms of assessment data as a basic function in their daily tasks. School leadership candidates might have a lower preference for the concept of using data due to a lower degree of perceived need. The disparity in this preference might also indicate that the present pool of educational leadership candidates have not yet been fully versed in how analysis of assessment data can better inform their instructional practice.
3. *Careful Focus on Instructional Time*: School leaders ranked this disposition as their 16th highest preference. School leadership candidates placed its importance much higher, selecting it as their 6th highest. Since many school leader candidates are still presently serving as classroom educators, they are cognizant that every instructional minute has distinct value. Teachers also are experiencing a demand for greater competency (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Connecting teacher effectiveness with the achievement of student test scores requires the educator to cover prescribed core content within a fairly rigid timeframe. School leaders may not resonate with the perceived importance of scheduled instructional time but might focus more on the larger perspective of improving student test score results within standardized testing.

4. *Developing Productive Relationships with Others*: School leaders clearly understand that developing positive and cooperative relationships with teachers, parents, and students is a key component in setting up an effective environment for learning. Leaders rate this item near the very top of their required duties, putting it as their second highest preference while school leadership candidates see this need as their 11th highest preference. School leaders see the effect that developing positive social relationships has in the daily life of the school. Within the construct of social relationship building, factors such as trust, reliance, and constructive guidance are valuable commodities for all participants. When teachers form a stronger bond with their school leader, they are much more likely to seek instructional support and increase their personal commitment on job performance (Hallinger & Heck, 2010).
5. *Focus on Student Learning:* School leaders rated this disposition as their tenth highest preference. School leadership candidates, however, saw this item in a different light, rating it as their 19th most preferred item. One potential explanation might be that school leaders have the consistent experience of stating that student learning is at the very core of their educational mission, but the school leadership candidates have not yet analyzed this position or attempted to take the pragmatic steps needed to approach maximizing student learning.

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations on the interpretation of the results and findings are acknowledged:

1. As a research study, the design of interpreting these results merely indicates a ranked order of preferences for specific items from a limited selection of choices. It also allowed for a measurement of the strength of correlation between two groups. Nonetheless, this study was not designed to lead to an exact analysis of direct cause and effect relationships.
2. Any theory attached to the results on the importance or the rationale of preferences is purely speculative.
3. Assumptions given on the results emanate from the review of the literature, the professional practices in place for urban school leaders, as well as available data from university leadership preparation programs.
4. Selecting only urban school leaders as our total pool of participants is also a limiting factor in that the perspective from this constituency group may not reflect the entire perception of the educational community.

Suggested Future Research

Findings given here just begin to scratch the surface of identifying the type, the nature, and the degree of preference that school leaders might hold for specific administrative dispositional traits. Additional studies should follow with qualitative analyses on this topic as well as moving beyond the limited set of expert opinions suggested from the

ISLLC data to reach a greater range of options. Continued focus on dispositions for instructional leadership in schools searching to improve student learning might lead to the examination of other pertinent research questions, such as:

1. Which dispositions aimed at relationship building with teachers held by the school leader most significantly impact student learning?
2. How does administrative locus of control impact student learning?
3. How does the impact of prior training by the school leader on student learning theories affect achievement levels?
4. What effect do certain administrative dispositions have on students internalizing learning outcomes?
5. What impact do certain administrative dispositions play in engaging parents in the student learning process?

Implications for Administrative Practice

After a review of the data, six major implications of practice arise. Three of these implications apply to the practice of school leadership and three of them reference practice for leadership preparation programs.

Implications for School Leaders

1. *Technology Use*: The relatively low value placed on the use of technology by school leaders related to student learning is counter-intuitive to current educational trends. Given the consistent surge of technology use in schools in the last two decades and the rapid rise of technological-based applications in learning software, school leaders would do well to more deeply consider the use of technology as a viable educational tool to embed in their educational practice.
2. *Monitoring of Instructional Time*: School leaders view the monitoring of instructional time in a different manner than teachers. It seems reasonable to conclude that school leaders minimize the relative value of maintaining maximum instructional time, placing it at a different critical-need level than teachers. Protecting instructional time needs to be a stronger dispositional goal.
3. *Higher Value Placed on Developing the School Environment:* The data reveal that school leaders place a higher value on improving the school environment than they do for considering the maximization of increasing curricular options. There is little doubt that there is an interactive effect on well-structured school management and the progressive strength of student learning (Hallinger & Heck, 2010) but caution is suggested as to where the greater degree of focus needs to be placed. Greater focus on studying student learning theories would be beneficial.

Implications for Educational Leadership Preparation Programs

1. *Use of Assessment Data*: Seeing the lower preference given for using assessment data by leaders might indicate that school leadership preparatory programs need to be more explicit in the explanation of how to use data to improve instruction and include these materials within their core curricula. Some theorists argue that learning improves when students directly relate to the hands-on approach of seeing results. (Mandinach & Honey, 2011).
2. *Relationship Building*: Given the lower priority held by school leadership candidates on the importance of building personal relationships, it would also be prudent to ensure that leadership preparation programs include a greater emphasis on the social interaction skills needed by school leaders to work collaboratively with the staff. The very high dispositional priority ascribed by current school leaders on working to build social relations with staff testifies to this need. If trust or the relationship status is weak between teacher and leader, any effort to plan for improved instruction is fraught with greater opposition (Edgerson & Kritsonis, 2006).
3. *Maximizing the Focus on Student Learning*: Since school leadership candidates have placed this function as one of their lowest rated dispositions, it may indicate that either school leadership candidates themselves or school leadership preparation programs have not yet internalized or accepted the importance of student learning as a leadership goal. Candidates do not see the concept of focusing on student learning as being in the forefront of their daily work, yet all of the bureaucratic accountability standards move this disposition forward as a most crucial consideration. School leadership preparation programs need to actively highlight this topic as a foundational element and assist school leadership candidates to realize that state and local district program audits and staff evaluations methodologies will consistently refer to the degree of student achievement as recorded in standardized testing results.

Conclusions

As a general synopsis, the strength of correlation on preferred dispositions between the two constituencies of urban school leaders and school leader candidates implies that future school administrators are moderately correlated with urban school leaders. In a closer examination of specific preferred values, some disparities in thought are identified that might be attributable to generational differences, familiarity with instructional design theory, or in seeing a critical need to build social relationships with staff.

With a particular focus on student learning as suggested in the 2014 re-drafted ISLLC administrative dispositions, there is a moderate correlation validated between urban school leaders and school leadership candidates. However, there are also specific administrative dispositions cited in the draft standards that elicit different levels of preference between two responding groups. These different perspectives between the two constituencies are:

1. In considering the use of "technology" in the process of teaching, leadership candidates assumed that this learning tool would be a natural application used in everyday life while the leaders might have interpreted the term "technology service" in a different context with other potential implications.
2. Using a "strength-based" approach with students might infer that respondents were not fully aware of the semantic meaning of this term and therefore not able to assess benefit or value.
3. It would be reasonable to assume that all constituencies would be quite satisfied if all aspects of school life focused on a maximization of student learning. However, knowing how to reach this goal does not seem to be a seamless entity found in school leadership preparation programs.
4. Placing a higher value on the need to maintain and/or increase instructional time during each school day would be seen an important goal to examine. In the light of existing union contracts, related educational expenses, providing adequate staffing levels and meeting more rigid national mandates this goal is in need of nuanced interpretation.

There are parallel demands to continue to investigate two strands of this discussion. First there is a necessity for universities to carefully consider the implications of the changing nature of the school leaders' role in terms of leading instructional improvement, and secondly there is an essential duty to demonstrate examples of a realistic process by which school leadership candidates learn how this designated goal can be implemented.

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Impact of Formal Mentoring on Freshmen Expectations, Graduation Rates, and GPAs

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Abstract

This quantitative study examines the expectations, graduation rates, and GPAs of participants (n=113) in a formal mentorship program, *Freshmen Focus*, at a small, rural Midwestern high school through the framework of organizational socialization theory (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977). Findings indicate freshmen students formed expectations of the program and their mentors relative to homework help, acclimation assistance, and emotional support. Students' expectations of their mentors and the program were surpassed throughout the mentorship experience. The study also demonstrates that participation in the *Freshmen Focus* mentorship program improved grade point averages and graduation rates.

Keywords: socialization, mentorship, freshmen, transition program, graduation rates

Introduction

For this study, we considered a rural Midwest high school that is experiencing declining graduation rates, which the school attributes to poor assimilation of freshmen into the high school setting. In 2007, the school implemented a mentoring program, known as Freshmen Focus, to help freshmen succeed academically and lower the possibility of dropping out (Shaw, 2009). This review is the first analysis of the program. Secondary data provided by the high school was reviewed to examine the relationship between the Freshmen Focus program and student expectations, graduation rates, and GPAs.

The school guidance counselor incorporated the strategy of peer support in which upperclassmen (mentors) mentored freshmen students (mentees) in a daily, yearlong, one-credit class known as Freshmen Focus. A system of supervision was developed for the mentors that included a formal application and interview process, two months of daily

leadership training, and ongoing weekly training throughout the school year and summer. Under the guidance of the school counselor, mentors developed the *Freshman Focus* curriculum that consists of more than 80 lessons on themes such as bullying, resiliency, teamwork, and communication. Mentors taught the lessons in the context of the formal *Freshman Focus* class under the supervision of a *Freshman Focus* teacher. All *Freshman Focus* classes met during sixth period in groups of 20 students with 4 mentors per class. Mentors teach from the *Freshman Focus* curriculum three days per week and provide direct support two days per week, assisting freshmen with homework, acclimation, and social situations. The *Freshman Focus* teacher moderated the class and provided guidance.

The mentor-mentee relationship begins at the end of the freshman student's 8th grade year in the form of mixers and scheduling assistance. It continues throughout the summer as mentors send notes of encouragement to mentees. In the week preceding the start of school, a Freshman Orientation session is held where freshmen are greeted by mentors, participate in team-building activities, tour classrooms, and experience a *Freshman Focus* class.

In addition to the established *Freshman Focus* curriculum, the supervising *Freshman Focus* teachers are also trained in college and career readiness materials to prepare freshmen on the college entry and career choice process. English teachers also play a vital role in *Freshman Focus* by integrating college essay writing, college applications, resume writing, and employment applications into the English curriculum. By incorporating mentors and teachers as part of the guidance department offerings, the school counselor has created a holistic system that increases her reach. Interestingly, the de-centralization of guidance tasks may be potentially meaningful. Barton and Coley (2011) report the national average of guidance counselor-to-student ratio as 1:467 and 39 minutes per year.

The organizational theories of socialization (Feldman, 1976; Van Maanen & Schein, 1977) and assimilation (Jablin, 2001) were applied as the theoretical perspective that enculturates students into the high school. The theory of mentorship (Kram, 1983, 1985) was explored as the practical perspective that socializes 9th grade students to the high school setting. Additionally, the components of social and emotional learning, school climate, environment, fluctuating national graduation rates, and dropout prevention strategies were reviewed to provide background to the problems of poor expectations, lowered graduation rates, and lowered GPAs experienced in our Midwestern high school.

Background

Within the educational system of the U.S., high school completion rates have fluctuated for the past forty years. The national graduation rate in 1969 of 77.1% dropped to 66.1% in 2000 (Barton, 2005), and leveled to 80% in 2012 (Stetser & Stillwell, 2014). The oscillation of graduation rates throughout the intervening years caused concern not only for the self-sufficiency of the students, but for the social and economic health of the nation. The potential implications of a national dropout rate exceeding 20% led to a groundswell of research across multiple disciplines by educators, government agencies, and private foundations.

The crisis in graduation rates prompted the formation of The National Commission on Excellence in Education by the U.S. Department of Education. The task of the 1981 Commission was to identify lagging perceptions of the quality of education within the United States (Barton, 2002; U.S. National Commission on Excellence in Education (NCEE), 1983). The Commission's landmark report, A Nation at Risk, cited a 13% functional illiteracy rate among 17-year olds and a 40% illiteracy rate among minority youth (U.S. NCEE, 1983). From 1963 to 1983, the report identified declining scores in the Scholastic Assessment Test (SAT®) with losses greater than 50 points on the verbal section and decreases of 40 points in mathematics. Compared to the other 33 Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) member countries, these dimensions indicated that the U.S. had fallen behind other industrialized nations in critical reading, math, and science skills (U.S. NCEE, 1983). For students born in 1983, it was projected that only 70% would graduate with a high school diploma in their graduation year of 2000 (U.S. Department of Education (DOE), 2008). This projection was confirmed at 66%-68% (Barton, 2005; Education Week Research Center (EWRC), 2013).

The release of A Nation at Risk was a catalyst that sparked national attention to raise academic excellence within elementary and secondary education. The report also ignited further research by the public and private sectors that were primarily twofold in nature: to explore the social and economic implications of high school failure and to examine the academic and psychosocial risk factors of dropping out of high school.

Academic and Psychosocial Reasons for High School Failure

Academic reasons for dropping out of high school included the feeling of being poorly prepared for high school and fear of being able to meet graduation requirements (Bridgeland, Dilulio, & Morison, 2006); having failing grades (Bridgeland et al., 2006; Hammond, Linton, Smink, & Drew, 2007; Shannon & Bylsma, 2006); repeating a grade (Hammond et al., 2007; Shannon & Bylsma, 2006); not being challenged intellectually through the curriculum (Bridgeland et al., 2006; Stanley & Plucker, 2008), student behavior problems (Stanley & Plucker, 2008); and school location (Smink & Schargel, 2004). Students with poor school attendance were also associated with non-completion (EWRC, 2014; Shannon & Bylsma, 2006).

Psychosocial reasons for early school withdrawal included a poor sense of connection to the school and weak relationships with peers and school adults (Bridgeland et al., 2006; EWRC, 2014; Stanley & Plucker, 2008); low social and emotional learning levels (EWRC, 2014); and family values (EWRC, 2014; Hammond et al., 2007; Heckman & LaFontaine, 2010). Becoming a parent, caring for a family member, or needing to find work to earn money (Bridgeland et al., 2006) were cited as personal reasons for exiting school prematurely. Collectively, these risk factors were characterized as "push effects" and "pull effects" (National Center on Secondary Education and Transition (NCSET), 2004, p. 14) that either pushed a student out of school due to failing grades and poor curriculum or pulled a student away due to increased family responsibilities. Categorized into four domains, the areas of individual, family, school system, and community (Hammond et al., 2007) influence a student's risk in leaving high school without a diploma.

Risk Factors Offset through Mentoring and Legislation

In response to the research findings, legislation was enacted to mitigate the risk factors of student disengagement and to increase high school graduation rates. The national educational reform initiatives that were enacted include The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) (NCLB, 2001) and The American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) of 2009 (ARRA, 2009).

The first intervention, NCLB, addressed six critical academic areas to avert high school failure, by encouraging schools to include: 1) curricula focused on proficiency in the subjects of math, science, and reading; 2) recruitment and preparation of highly qualified teachers; 3) language instruction for limited English-speaking students; 4) providing parents with school choices; 5) holding schools accountable and responsive to local needs, and 6) providing assistance to students with disabilities (U.S. DOE, 2004).

As the second intervention, the ARRA implemented the Race to the Top (R2T) program to prepare middle and high school students for college and career opportunities (The White House Setting the Pace Report (TWHSPR), 2014). The R2T program incentivized teachers and schools to creatively engage students through the use of comprehensive supports and tools, rigorous learning, and mentorship opportunities. In states embracing R2T, graduation rates increased to 80% and student test scores on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) have improved (TWHSPR, 2014).

A third intervention, The Common Core State Standards Initiative, was developed by state governors and state school chiefs with state-by-state adoption and implementation in 2014 (Common Core State Standards Initiative (CCSSI), 2014). The purposes of the Common Core were to standardize reading and math curricula and to address K-12 expectations and high school graduation requirements across the fifty states (CCSSI, 2014). As reported by the CCSSI (2014), implementation was achieved in 43 states, the District of Columbia, 4 U.S. territories, and the Department of Defense (DOD) Education Activity.

Of relevance to this study were the risk factors categorized in the individual and school domains. The individual domain identified that risk factors of social and emotional learning were enhanced through mentoring (EWRC, 2014, NCSET, 2004). Risk areas within the school domain revealed that enriching the school structure, school resources, and curriculum with mentorship programs were helpful in supporting students (Bridgeland et al., 2006; U.S. DOE, 2008).

Goal of Legislation — Improve Graduation Rates through Mentorship

The identifiable goals of these national and state educational initiatives were to improve high school graduation rates through academic preparedness, to make quality education more accessible across all populations, and to retain students through improved social and emotional learning programs. Interestingly, the U.S. DOE's R2T legislation identified mentorship as a means to bridge the social and emotional learning gaps of students (TWHSPR, 2014).

The enactment of educational reforms contributed to the development of better curriculum, the improvement of classroom equipment and tools, and the implementation of vocational education classes (ARRA, 2009; NCLB, 2001). The legislative acts also

promoted changes to emotional and social learning, including more student support via guidance, counseling, mentoring, and tutoring (ARRA, 2009; NCLB, 2001).

As one may expect, at a time of increased focus on the retention of high school students, the roles of school guidance counselors expanded. The important functions of monitoring students' course load, tracking graduation credits, recognizing struggling students, and mobilizing academic and social supports were increased along with the additional responsibilities of being test administrator and manager of accountability reports (Barton & Coley, 2011). With school resources deployed to the hiring of highly qualified teachers and developing innovative programs, staffing for the guidance department decreased. This caused an increase in the ratio of students per guidance counselor (Barton & Coley, 2011).

Mentorship Facilitated through Guidance Department

With the additional school guidance counselor responsibilities, the strategy of peer mentoring offered the prospect of assisting the guidance department by deploying an army of peer mentors to help students attain graduation. Mentorship is the concept of a more experienced individual assisting a less experienced person (Kram, 1983; 1985). The high school years, and more specifically, the freshman year, are pivotal stages in an adolescent's development in which having a mentor can be helpful. Navigating the waters of high school can be particularly intimidating for 14- and 15-year old students who are just beginning their sojourn toward more appreciable independence (Kennelly & Monrad, 2007). Freshmen high school students are still acquiring crucial self-leadership and self-organization skills (Kennelly & Monrad, 2007) and are still growing physically, cognitively, and psychosocially with full brain maturation not achieved until the mid-twenties (Simpson, 2008).

With many transitions happening simultaneously, mentors offer students assistance to traverse the course with greater ease. In addition to acclimating the mentee to the high school building and schedule, the mentor can provide information, encouragement, support, role modeling, and friendship. Mentors can also assist in teaching the tasks of problem-solving, prioritizing, thinking ahead, long-term planning, and communication techniques. Thus, mentorship (Kram, 1983, 1985) plays a key part in the socialization (Feldman, 1976; Van Maanen & Schein, 1977) and assimilation (Jablin, 2001) of a new member to an organization.

Review of the Literature

A review of relevant literature includes educational and non-educational sources to explore the relationship of mentors and mentees in different organizational settings. Sources include seminal authors from the 1960s to current literature. Reviewing educational literature reveals that social and emotional learning translates to a student's sense of engagement (EWRC, 2014) that is fostered by strong relationships with other students and adults (Bridgeland et al., 2006; EWRC, 2014; Stanley & Plucker, 2008). In a sample of 606 educators, teachers identified that students who had a sense of connection and a durable relationship with a caring teacher or administrator were more engaged in learning (EWRC, 2014). In other studies conducted by educational dropout

prevention organizations, a sense of belonging and personal relationships were also reported as helpful to student success (Bridgeland et al., 2006; Hammond et al., 2007; Stanley & Plucker, 2008).

Mentorship

The concept of mentoring was identified by The National Dropout Prevention Center as one of fifteen strategies to increase high school graduation rates (Smink, 2007; Smink & Schargel, 2004). The importance of a supportive individual in a person's life has, as its basis, the theoretical framework of mentorship (Kram, 1983, 1985). Kram (1983, 1985) developed mentorship as a discrete construct that builds on the life stage theory of Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee (1978). Levinson et al. (1978) recognized the underlying patterns of a person's life at any given point. The seasons of an individual's life are marked by two key concepts, stable periods where crucial decisions are made, and transitional periods in which one stage ends and another stage begins (Levinson et al., 1978). Mentorship theory appreciates the transitional periods of one's life and the need for close support by an individual with greater experience. Mentors play a pivotal part in helping a mentee clarify, understand, and adjust into his changing roles.

The concept of a senior, more experienced person (the mentor) providing advice, support, or counsel to a junior, less experienced individual (the mentee) was noted by Kram (1985) as helpful with assimilation into an organizational environment. In psychological literature, the influence of supportive adults upon children was perceived as integral to positive childhood and lifespan development (Erikson, 1963). Encouragement of youth occurs in several settings and developmental stages, such as in the home, between parent and child (Erikson, 1963; Levinson et al., 1978); between youth and youth organizations (Levinson et al., 1978; Eby, Allen, Evans, Ng, & DuBois, 2007; Kram, 1985; Ragins & Kram, 2007); in academia; and in the workplace (Eby et al., 2007; Kram, 1985; Ragins & Kram, 2007).

The mentorship relationship. Smink (2007) suggests that the relationship between a mentor and mentee is built on trust. In the mentorship role, the mentor communicates affirmation, guidance, counseling, friendship, and becomes a role model for the mentee. During the beginning phases of a mentoring relationship, known as initiation, the mentee feels cared for and supported (Kram, 1983). As the mentee feels accepted, he or she can relax and learn the information that is being passed on by the mentor. After a period of two to five years, the mentorship relationship advances to the cultivation phase, a time where the mentor promotes the mentee's talent within the organization. During this season, both the mentee and mentor benefit from the experience and enjoy a sense of well-being, settledness, and satisfaction. The final stages of separation and redefinition occur as the mentee becomes more independent and pursues his unique goals. Separation is typically manifested by physical relocation, with redefinition signifying the formation of a new relationship of peer-like friendship (Kram, 1983; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007).

Applying mentorship theory to students in the academic setting has been explored as a strategy to ease the transition into elementary, secondary, and postsecondary schools. The theory of mentorship (Kram, 1983, 1985) was explored as the practical perspective

that facilitates the socialization and assimilation of 9th grade students to the high school setting. As such, we tested the expectations of 9th grade students of their mentors and the mentorship program.

Socialization

High school transition programs have at their core the honorable intent of socializing a student to his or her new environment. High schools differ from middle schools in their larger physical size, expansive range of course selection, acquisition of credit attainment to meet graduation requirements, pressure to maintain grades, college entrance testing, long-term projects, rigorous homework demands, and additional opportunities for extracurricular activities. The role of the teacher also changes from hands-on and nurturing to an instructor who promotes independence and self-responsibility within the adolescent student (Kennelly & Monrad, 2007).

To normalize these many physical and social changes, the theory of organizational socialization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977) was examined. Socialization theory offers a framework that is helpful for newcomers to assimilate to an organization. When an individual enters an organization, he or she brings a set of skills, perceptions, and competencies that may be complete or incomplete as applied to the new system. Each system has its unique culture and climate that requires both an awareness of, and an acceptance by, the newcomer. Becoming familiar with the culture and adapting to the organization's norms and values is known as socialization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977).

The Socialization Process

Feldman (1976) identified the socialization process as three phases: anticipatory, accommodation, and role management. The anticipatory stage, also known as the "pre-arrival" (DeCenzo & Robbins, 2007, p. 206) phase, is a time when organizations can communicate relevant information to the newcomer about what to expect and to convey necessary forms or papers. This phase also offers newcomers the opportunity to ask questions about the organization or to obtain feedback from existing members. The accommodation phase, or "encounter" (DeCenzo & Robbins, 2007, p. 206), takes place when the newcomer has transitioned into the organization and learns the tasks, skills, and practical methods for his role and the policies, procedures, and culture of the organization. Finally, role management, or "metamorphosis" (DeCenzo & Robbins, 2007, p. 206), occurs when the individual is effectively integrated into his role within the organization and is marked by productivity (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2013).

Possible outcomes of the socialization experiences are noteworthy. Within the anticipatory phase, the newcomer learns about the organization before actually entering into the building to perform work functions. This pre-information assists the newcomer in evaluating the landscape and making informed choices. As the newcomer participates in the accommodation phase, Feldman (1976) posited that four variables demonstrate the progress through the accommodation process; those include: initiation to the task, initiation to the group, understanding one's role, and reconciling pre-information with an actual understanding of the role and organization. In role management, the newcomer

achieves positive affective outcomes such as general satisfaction and mutual influence. Greater positive affective moods may suggest a higher job motivation and involvement. After progressing through all three stages of the socialization process and attaining a level of comfort and fit, socialization is deemed complete.

Assimilation

The nature of socialization into a new setting was expressed by Jablin (2001) as organizational assimilation. Assimilation includes the communication processes by which a newcomer integrates into the organization. Communication encompasses peer-to-peer interaction as well as the tactical information provided by the organization. The transference of information provides a fluid opportunity for individuals to adapt themselves to the work environment. The development of peer relationships may provide a level of socialization and assimilation to the organization that is not conveyed in formal training sessions. Peer relationships are typically characterized by a lateral exchange of friendliness, understanding, and openness. Points of view may be expressed in unhindered ways that deepen learning.

Thus, peer-to-peer exchanges facilitate the newcomer in shaping his or her role in the organization. Equally important is that peer relationships are reciprocal. In addition to helping the newcomer assimilate to the organization and his or her colleagues, peer relationships help existing organizational members make sense of the newcomer and integrate him or her into the workspace. Jablin (2001) noted that peer communication exchanges are crucial in setting the tone for assimilation of the newcomer into the organization. As newcomers progress through the socialization process, communication serves as a sequence in the chain of events that may lead to greater organizational identity.

Socialization Process Applied to Midwestern High School

The progression of pre-arrival to encounter to accommodation was examined with the Midwest high school's Freshmen Focus 9th grade mentorship program. In this program, 9th grade students are given pre-arrival communication in the form of an orientation, known as the Freshmen Focus Orientation Camp during the summer before school officially starts. Secondary data was provided by the high school with 9th grade student entry feedback pertaining to the Freshmen Focus Orientation Camp. This was reviewed with 9th grade student exit feedback pertaining to the encounter phase, the actual Freshmen Focus Mentorship Program.

Freshmen Transition and Mentorship Programs

Creating small learning communities that provided students with mentors, advocates, advisors, and tutors was identified as an effective assimilation strategy for 9th grade students in their first year of high school (Kennelly & Monrad, 2007; Shannon & Bylsma, 2006; Stanley & Plucker, 2008). Johnson, Simon, and Mun (2014) and Hughes, Copley, and Baker (2005) established the use of studying 9th grade participants in a mentorship program. In a qualitative study of the effectiveness of small learning communities,

Johnson et al. (2014) examined the Peer Group Connection (PGC) program, a peer-led high school transition program in a mid-Atlantic high school comprised of a 92% Hispanic student population. The PGC program consisted of three teachers who served as program instructors and 16 high school seniors who were trained as peer leaders. Student peer leaders were enrolled in a daily one-credit leadership class and met as a two-person team with their mentees once per week for 40 minutes. The results of the study indicated that students who were part of the peer group had a graduation rate of 60% compared to the 30% graduation rate of the control group (Johnson et al., 2014).

Importance of Mentorship Structure

Note that not anyone should be a mentor. In fact, mentors need to be chosen purposefully to have certain salient constructs, such as leadership and mentorship. For example, in a qualitative study of adolescent youth (n = 447), volunteer mentors of a large Cincinnati youth-based mentoring program were paired with at-risk students in the Cincinnati Public School (CPS) System (Hickman & Garvey, 2006). During the 10-year study (1988 to 1998), researchers hypothesized that mentoring would have a positive effect on grade point averages (GPAs) and proficiency tests, and a negative effect on expulsion rates (Hickman & Garvey, 2006). Mentors met socially with mentees twice monthly. Students completed an average of 26.09 months in the mentoring program (Hickman & Garvey, 2006). Data were collected from CPS for each student participant at the end of the mentorship program. The results identified lowered GPAs, decreased math proficiency scores, decreased reading proficiency, increased grade retention, and increased total expulsions occurrences (Hickman & Garvey, 2006). No consistent pattern of the impact on mentorship to graduation rates and grades were found; therefore, this Midwest high school study would be of benefit in educational literature due to its unique focus on the effects of mentorship on graduation rates and grades.

Methods

This study used a quantitative approach that delineated the expectations of mentees in the pre-arrival and encounter phases of the Freshmen Focus program and the relationship between participation in the program and GPAs and graduation rates. Three hypotheses were examined:

> H1: The freshmen student mentees will enter Freshmen Focus Mentorship Program at a Midwest high school during the Freshmen Focus Orientation Camp (pre-arrival phase) with varied expectations or no expectations of their mentors. This study will evaluate the types of expectations in the pre-arrival phase.
>
> H2: There will be a positive trend between freshmen expectations in the pre-arrival phase of the 9th grade Freshmen Focus Orientation Camp and the encounter phase of the 9th grade Freshmen Focus Mentorship Program at a Midwest high school.

H3: There will be a positive trend amongst participation in the 9th grade Freshmen Focus Mentorship Program and GPAs and high school graduation rates at a Midwest high school.

Quantitative methods included secondary data provided by the school that included program entry and exit surveys, GPAs, and graduation rates. In a longitudinal study by Sanchez, Bauer, and Paronto (2006), the effect of mentoring was examined by correlating GPAs and graduation rates for college freshmen. The current study uses similar approaches by trending the impact of mentorship with 9th grade high school students.

Sample and Data Collection

Participants were 9th grade mentees and 11th and 12th grade mentors in a small rural Midwest high school that served two neighboring villages with a combined population of 12,715 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). The school was selected because of its nationally-recognized 9th grade mentorship program, Freshmen Focus. Internal Review Board approval was granted by the researchers' university. Consent and access to secondary data was confirmed through the school guidance counselor and high school principal. Additional graduation rate data was collected through the state's school district report card.

Measures

Graduation rates. Quantitative data were gathered from the school that included GPAs and graduation rates. The GPA data was dependent on quarterly information provided by the school and covered the time span of 2004-2011.

Graduation rates covered the timespan of 2002-2013. These were provided by the school and expanded by searching public domain materials as reported in the school district's state report cards (Ohio Department of Education, 2015). This expansion included five years before the introduction of Freshmen Focus in 2007 and six years after the introduction. A spreadsheet was created with the year, graduation rate, and class size. Other variables as available on the school report cards were included in the spreadsheet for a later study, such as percentage of economically disadvantaged students, students with disabilities, diversity, and number of highly-qualified teachers. For this examination, graduation rates were considered. The other variables are noted in the discussion.

Survey. The 10-item Freshmen Focus Entry and Exit Surveys were developed by student-mentors under the supervision of the school guidance counselor (Shaw, 2009) to gather feedback from 9th grade students on freshmen expectations and the benefits of the mentorship program. Freshmen voluntarily completed the surveys. Responses to specific questions on the surveys were reviewed for their relevance in assessing the expectations of mentees in the pre-arrival stage and fulfillment of the expectations in the encounter stage. Included in the secondary data were Freshmen Focus Entry and Exit Surveys for the 2013-2014 school year.

Expectations of pre-arrival phase. This aspect was assessed on the Freshmen Focus Entry Survey with the open-ended questions numbered 1-3 developed by the

student-mentors under the supervision of their school guidance counselor (Shaw, 2009). Questions 1-3 pertained to the expectations that 9th grade students have of his or her mentor at the beginning of the Freshmen Focus program. Categories were identified and frequencies were determined in each category by number of survey participants (n = 113) and number of responses collected (n = 335).

Expectations fulfilled in encounter phase. This dimension evaluated the efficacy of mentoring functions that assisted with newcomer socialization via four items, questions 1, 2, 3, 5 on the Freshmen Focus Exit Survey (α = .80, M = 4.12, SD = .841, n = 4) using a 6-point Likert-type scale with answers ranging from "do not agree at all" (0) to "agree the most" (5). Items on the entry survey included such statements as, "The mentors were a good help when it came to schoolwork." Results from the "agree" and "agree the most" were used from the responses of the respondents (n = 71). The three categories of emotional support (Exit question 1), homework help (questions 2-3), and acclimation (question 5) were tested and means calculated.

Results

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 evaluates the types of expectations of 9th grade mentees in the pre-arrival phase of the Freshmen Focus mentorship program. A frequencies table was utilized to test this hypothesis. Prior to this analysis, data was coded for Entry Questions 1, 2, and 3 with students (n = 113). Results identify survey participants (n = 113), responses collected (n = 335), and M=2.96 responses per student. Results identify that 62% of the freshmen identified homework help as the most prominent expectation. Other expectations revealed that 20% of freshmen expected assistance with acclimating to high school and 9% expected assistance with emotional support. The remainder of the freshmen had either no expectations or presented unique requests.

Of the 335 responses in the homework help category, 86% of respondents expected individual homework help and 34% of respondents expected help with maintaining grades. The results indicate that in the pre-arrival phase, freshmen students had varied expectations of the mentors and the Freshmen Focus mentorship program before experiencing the camp in the areas of homework help, acclimation, and emotional support. Thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported. See Appendix A, Table 1A for the categorization of the students' responses.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 tests the expectations in the pre-arrival phase and the fulfillment of the expectations in the encounter phase of the 9th grade Freshmen Focus Mentorship Program. A frequencies table was utilized to test this hypothesis. Prior to this analysis, data was coded for Exit Questions 1, 2, 3, and 5 with students (n = 71). The results generated from the encounter phase questions indicated that of the 71 freshmen respondents, 76% stated that the "mentors were a good help when it came to schoolwork," 87% reported that "I felt that I could go to my mentors with problems or

questions," 72% indicated that "mentors cared about my well-being in school," and 61% affirmed that "the program was well-run and organized."

Themes identified. The results of the exit questions were then categorized according to the pre-arrival themes of homework help, acclimation, and emotional support. The results for the themes for the exit surveys in the encounter phase indicated that 80% of freshmen encountered homework help, 61% of freshmen encountered acclimation, and 76% of freshmen encountered emotional support. A comparison of the pre-arrival and encounter phase expectations indicates that freshmen were pleasantly surprised at how well their pre-arrival expectations were satisfied in the encounter phase. In fact, in each of the themes of homework help, acclimation, and emotional support, the freshmen reported a positive increase in how their expectations in the pre-arrival stage were met or exceeded in the encounter stage. Increases in expectations were as follows: an increase of 18% in the area of homework help, an increase of 41% in the experience of acclimation, and an increase of 56% in the matter of emotional support.

Expectations positively fulfilled. The results indicate that the freshmen students' expectations in the pre-arrival phase were positively fulfilled in the encounter phase. While the freshmen students' most prominent pre-arrival expectation was that of homework help, the encounter phase not only satisfied the homework help expectation, it assisted freshmen with acclimation and emotional support. Thus, Hypothesis 2 is supported, as there is a positive relationship of the expectations in the pre-arrival phase of the Freshmen Focus Orientation Camp and the encounter phase of the Freshmen Focus program. See Appendix A, Table A2.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 tests the relationship amongst participation in the 9th grade Freshmen Focus Mentorship Program and GPAs and high school graduation rates. The results generated are as follows: Graduation rates were examined from 2002-2013. The Freshmen Focus Mentorship Program was introduced in the 2007-08 school year. Graduation rates for each year were identified and then averaged. The average graduation rate from 2002-2013 was 90.8%. The average graduation pre-implementation from 2003-2007 was 87.3%. The average graduation rate post-implementation was 93.7%, an increase of 6.4%. See Appendix B, Figure B1.

Graduation rates compared. A comparison of the lowest graduation rate to the highest graduation rate was made for all available school years. The lowest graduation rate of 83.4% in 2006-07 was compared to the highest graduation rate of 97.4% in 2011-12, with the Freshmen Focus program in place. Examined in this manner, results indicated a 14% increase in the graduation rate from the lowest graduation rate without Freshmen Focus to the highest graduation rate with Freshmen Focus.

GPAs. GPAs were then reviewed for the years 2007-2014. GPA band range is noted in Appendix B, Figure B2. When Freshmen Focus was introduced in 2007, 18.4% of the students had GPAs in the two lowest GPA bands. By 2013-14, GPAs in the lowest band had decreased to 1.7%, and GPAs in the middle GPA bands had increased, creating the potential to improve graduation rates. Since the Freshmen Focus program was introduced in the 2007-08 school year, there has been a consistent increase to the middle

and middle-high GPA band and a consistent decrease in the extremely low GPA band, while the highest GPA has remained relatively stable.

GPAs per GPA band compared. The difference in GPAs per GPA band was then compared between the 2007 introduction of Freshmen Focus and the most current school year of 2013-14. GPA bands with the greatest differences were the middle-high GPA band with an increase of 8.6% and a decrease in the lowest GPA band of 7.5%. See Appendix B, Figure B2.

Graduation rates and GPAs compared. Next, the results of graduation rates and GPAs were compared for the years 2007-2013 in which data were available for both variables. The results are as follows: When the Freshmen Focus mentorship program was introduced in the 2007-08 school year, the graduation rate was 88.6% with 9.2% of the students in the lowest GPA band. As the Freshmen Focus mentorship program continued through the years, the percentage of students in the lowest GPA band decreased, while the percentage in the middle GPA bands increased as shown in Figure B3. As the GPAs increased, the graduation rate increased. Comparing the Freshmen Focus introductory year of 2007-08 to the most recent school year data of 2012-13, the graduation rate increased by 2.9%. Comparing one year prior to the introductory year of Freshmen Focus to the highest graduation post introduction, the graduation rate increased by 14%. See Appendix B, Figure B3.

Hypothesis 3 Supported. Thus, Hypothesis 3 is supported as follows: As students moved from the lowest GPA band to the middle GPA bands, the graduation rate increased. There is a trend between the decrease of the lowest GPA band and the increase in the middle GPA bands, and a trend between improved GPAs and the graduation rate. Thus, there was a positive relationship in GPAs and graduation rates with participation in Freshmen Focus.

Discussion

Principal Finding

The principal finding is that the Freshmen Focus mentorship program has increased the Midwest high school's graduation rate by 6.4% since its implementation in 2007. When examined from the perspective of the lowest graduation rate before the implementation date to the highest graduation rate after implementation, the graduation rate increased by 14%. With the mentoring program in place, the average graduation rate was 93.7% through 2013. These findings are in stark contrast to the literature review studies of a graduation rate of 60% (Johnson, Simon, & Mun, 2014) and a decline in GPAs that occurred in a mentoring program that lasted twice as long as *Freshman Focus* (Hickman & Garvey, 2006). Similar to *Freshman Focus*, the Johnson, Simon, and Mun (2014) study trained peer mentors. The contrast is that the peer mentors met as two-person teams with mentees on a weekly basis for 40 minutes in a small learning community, instead of daily mentor-mentee interactions in a one-credit class as in the *Freshman Focus* mentoring program. While both have in common trained mentors, the consistency of the daily interactions could be perceived as creating a benefit to the mentee which may have influenced school performance and longevity. The population of at-risk mentees, the urban setting, and a lowered frequency of interactions with volunteer mentors in Hickman and Garvey (2006) are also contrasting factors to the *Freshman Focus* program.

In reviewing graduation rates over the lifespan of the *Freshman Focus* program, other variables were examined to determine the value of mentorship evidenced in the principal *Freshman Focus* finding. Several factors were explored in the state report cards (Ohio Department of Education, 2015) and in discussions with the school. The following variables were relatively constant—percentage of students with disabilities, diversity, *Freshman Focus* teachers, and school guidance counselors. An increase of transient and economically disadvantaged students was noted in 2012-2013 when the graduation rate decreased to 91.9% (See Appendix B, Figure B3). Improvement of mentor training and mentor selection process was also considered. The content of the *Freshman Focus* curriculum, mentor training, and mentor candidate application procedure (Shaw, 2009) was thoroughly reviewed. Consistent factors with mentors included thorough and ongoing leadership training of mentors, yearlong tenure, escalation procedures, and close supervision by the same teachers and school guidance counselors. Consistent themes of mentor-mentee interactions included classroom instruction on *Freshman Focus* curriculum, acclimation assistance, emotional support, and homework help.

The evidence of enhancing performance through supportive measures is supported by Kram (1985) who suggests that the practical interaction of a mentor with his mentee heightens the learning of new responsibilities and acclimation to unfamiliar environments. As expressed in the open-ended responses to the survey results, freshmen indicated concerns regarding maintaining his or her grades without assistance by a more senior person. This expression is consistent with Van Maanen and Schein (1977), who identified the need for a framework that helps newcomers assimilate to an organization. The activities of the student-mentors included sharing life lessons, engaging in enculturation activities, providing practical advice, and offering direct homework assistance. The increase in graduation rates since the implementation of Freshmen Focus supports Hypothesis 3 that mentees experienced a positive benefit from the activities of the student-mentors.

Second Key Finding

The second key finding of the study reveals that as GPAs improved, graduation rates increased. When students moved out of the danger zone of the lowest GPA band, it alleviated the risk of failing grades and academic deficiencies that would make students ineligible to graduate. By moving into the safer zone of the middle GPA bands, the student's chance of acquiring the appropriate number of academic credits to graduate on time was maximized. This finding of improved GPAs and increased graduation rates could be attributed to the mentoring relationship between freshmen mentees and his or her student-mentor. Kram (1983) indicates that as a mentee feels welcomed and cared for, he or she is more receptive to new material that is being communicated. As the freshmen mentees came to know and understand the academic rigor of the high school curriculum through the helpful support of the student-mentors, the mentees' grades rose. This translated into higher GPAs and graduation rates. This finding also supports Hypothesis 3 that there is a trend amongst participation in the Freshmen Focus mentorship program and GPAs and graduation rates.

Third Key Finding

The third key finding is the impact to the GPA bands. Analysis indicates a positive trend that as the lowest GPA band decreased, the middle GPA bands increased, with a sizeable increase to the higher-middle GPA band. An increase of 8.6% in the higher-middle GPA band signifies that students had the potential of elevating their grades with guided assistance. The shift to a more distinguished GPA also suggests that mentees were motivated with strategies that they felt were in reach. It is also suggestive that low grades are not hopeless, and that negative experiences can be turned around with positive direction and attitude. The shift in GPAs may also imply that the student-mentors communicated practical methods to freshmen students who were able to integrate these skills into their academic work during the encounter phase (DeCenzo & Robbins, 2007). The ability of the freshmen student to sequence through the pre-arrival and encounter stages into productivity is indicative that the student moves into the role management phase (Feldman, 1976). Simply put, as the student acquires the skill, s/he is able to communicate it in her/his work products on a consistent basis, as reflected in her/his grades. The higher grades are meaningful because a student who moves into the upper-middle GPA band is college eligible. The higher GPA enables the student to be eligible for more selective colleges. This finding is again supportive of Hypothesis 3 that involvement in the Freshmen Focus program improves GPAs.

Fourth Key Finding

The fourth key finding of the study is that the students arrived to Freshmen Focus with expectations of homework help, acclimation assistance, and emotional support, and that these expectations were surpassed throughout the course of the program through the efforts of the student-mentors. The data support research that show expectations are either confirmed or not confirmed during the encounter phase (Feldman, 1976). Research also demonstrates that effective communication and peer-to-peer interaction are crucial elements in the surpassing of expectations (Jablin, 2001). Therefore, the suggestion of this fourth key finding indicates that freshmen felt capable of achieving his or her academic goals with the support of student-mentors. This finding supports Hypothesis 1 and 2 that freshmen formed expectations of the Freshmen Focus program and their mentors in the pre-arrival phase and that the expectations changed positively or remained the same in the encounter phase.

Limitations

The limitations of the study involve the use of secondary data that was provided by the school, surveys that were designed by 11th and 12th grade student-mentors at the school, and social desirability of 9th grade students in responding to survey questions. Further, student survey data responses could not be matched to individual student GPAs and graduation rates. Lastly, the study took place in a well-funded, small rural school; therefore, this may limit generalizability to urban, suburban, or under-funded schools.

Theoretical Implications

The primary contribution of our study is the application of socialization theory in a high school educational setting. We also analyzed elements that were not tested in research before, namely, 9th grade students' expectations, GPAs, and graduation rates in a yearlong mentorship program. Our results support the idea that mentoring helps in the socialization and assimilation of high school freshmen students. As freshmen entered the Freshmen Focus program, they came with certain reasoned decisions based on logic, intuition, and personal expectations. The students' individual experiences varied in intensity. As the student was supported by a caring student-mentor, the student felt more welcomed and included. The student's emotional response and sensory overload to the unfamiliar setting and routine were normalized. In fact, it was not only normalized, but the results indicated an upward trend in adaptation as shown in satisfaction of expectations, grades, and graduation rates.

Attributed to Mentoring and Socialization Theories

The positive increase in a student's acclimation to the high school setting may be attributed to mentoring (Kram, 1983) and socialization theories (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977) in which a mentor assists a newcomer in learning the culture and adapting to an organization through an intentional mentor-mentee program. Interestingly, the more structured the process, the more likely the individual was to stay with the organization and assimilate into the environment. Similarly, with the Freshmen Focus program, as the freshmen had more encounter opportunities with his or her mentor, the more socialized and integrated the student became into high school life. The freshmen student's integration offset the dumbfounding that may sometimes occur when a student's experience does not match his expectations. Instead of foundering in a haze of confusion, the Midwest high school's freshmen students were systematically shown the way through the haze, and given a context for learning.

Importance of Lateral Communication

Also of significance is the peer-to-peer nature of the student-mentors with the Freshmen Focus mentees. The student-mentors of Freshmen Focus are just two years older than the 9th grade freshmen. This small difference in age makes for a meaningful exchange of information as the peer relationship is more conversational, relaxed, and unfettered by formal language. This is supported by Jablin (2001) who posits that peer-to-peer communication is more fluid and effortless between lateral organizational members.

Socialization Process Theory

The Freshmen Focus program contributes to the socialization process theory of pre-arrival, encounter, and role management (Feldman, 1976; DeCenzo & Robbins, 2007). The Freshmen Focus students arrived with opinions about the program and high school that were constantly getting confirmed or changed throughout their daily interactions at school. As the freshmen were assisted through the complex issues and challenges they

faced each day in high school, the freshmen acquired skills needed to move into managing their roles.

Thus, the theories of mentorship, socialization, and assimilation, are useful frameworks in understanding both the process and intent of the Freshmen Focus program. The application of these theories has been tested with the Freshmen Focus mentorship program that serves as a tool to assist freshmen students in their acclimation to high school.

Practical Implications

The bonding that is fostered between freshmen and student-mentors through the Freshmen Focus program in the student's 9th grade year is significant. The impact of this bond to graduation rates and GPA results are encouraging, particularly the implications to students in the upper-middle GPA band. As noted earlier in the study, students with higher GPAs have expanded opportunities for college and career choice.

Freshman Focus Curriculum and Aligning Mentors with Students

As such, a suggestion is to continue with the *Freshman Focus* curriculum and leadership training of mentors in order to prepare students of all GPA bands for high school, college and career success.

Practical Advice

The important element of emotional support was recounted by the freshmen survey results as a pleasant and unanticipated positive outcome of the Freshmen Focus. Freshmen wrote comments about their preferences, which included practical advice on how to deal productively and appropriately with teachers, peers, and upperclassmen; how to get better grades; how to get organized and stay on track; and how to say "no" to overcommitment. Day-to-day functional items were also expressed by freshmen as they would like to be asked if they need help and asked, "What types of grades are you getting?" Implementing separate lessons on some of these topics into the Freshmen Focus mentor curriculum may be a way to standardize that these matters are taught consistently by all mentors.

Study Hall Involvement

Other low-cost measures to increase grades include placing student-mentors in study halls for homework, organization, and task assistance and opening up the assistance to students in all grades, including 8th grade students. This would introduce rising freshmen to the similar assistance given in the Freshmen Focus classroom, may reduce anticipatory anxiety, and give 8th grade students an opportunity to establish friendships with upperclassmen.

Mentorship for At-Risk Students

At-risk students in all grades may also benefit from a Freshmen Focus-type mentorship program. Teaching of life lessons, organizational and homework skills, and access to a direct mentor has proven to be a beneficial format for at-risk students. In our research setting, the practicality and costs of expanding a mentorship program to at-risk students would need to be weighed with the school schedule, staff capacity, classroom space, and enrollment numbers.

Recommendations

Future studies could incorporate urban, suburban, and rural high school settings that have a similar freshmen mentorship program, thereby increasing the generalizability of the findings. Using standardized entry and exit surveys and the ability to match entry and exit survey responses would be beneficial in evaluating the program. Conducting focus groups of freshmen students with mentorship and a control group of freshmen students without mentorship may reveal areas of support that are needed or not needed. Finally, longitudinal studies that follow freshmen who were engaged in mentorship could assess the long-term impact of such program.

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Appendix A

Tables

Table A1

Frequencies of Pre-Arrival Phase Expectations

Expectation	EQ1[a]	EQ2[a]	EQ3[a]	Total[a]	Total %[a]
Category %[b]					
Homework help					
.62					
Help me with homework	23	51	24	98	.86
Help me keep my grades up	32	2	4	38	.34
Help me with homework and keep me on track	—	20	11	31	.27
Be helpful and repeat things if necessary	—	—	12	12	.11
Give advice on how to get better grades	—	10	—	10	.09
Get and stay organized and share study methods	—	—	9	9	.08
Help study for tests	—	5	—	5	.04
Schedule help	—	—	4	4	.03
Acclimation					
.20					
Get acclimated to high school	19	—	—	19	.17
Make Freshmen Focus fun	9	—	6	15	.13
To be with friends	9	—	—	9	.08
To learn life lessons	8	—	—	8	.07
Team building	5	—	—	5	.04
Tell me the rules of high school	—	—	3	3	.03
Discuss their freshmen and teacher experiences	—	—	2	2	.02
Seat me away from talkative people	—	—	2	2	.02
Tell me if I am doing something wrong	—	—	1	1	.01
Introduce me to other high school students	—	—	1	1	.01
Offer a before school study hall	—	—	1	1	.01
Emotional support					
.09					
Homework help and emotional support	—	10	9	19	.17
Emotional support	2	5	4	11	.10
Be a friend	—	—	2	2	.02
No expectations					
.05					
No expectations	2	1	6	9	.08
Don't know	4	—	3	7	.06
Other					
.04					

To be boring, good, or in the afternoon	5	—	—	5	.04
To be a study hall	4	—	—	4	.03
Give me candy	—	—	3	3	.03
Help in any way	—	1	—	1	.01
Leave me alone	—	—	1	1	.01

Note. EQ1, EQ2, and EQ3 = Entry Questions 1-3 on the Freshmen Focus Entry Survey by Shaw, 2009. Bolded text represents category heading totals.
[a]*n* = 113. [b]*n* = 335 responses.

Table A2
Comparison of Pre-Arrival and Encounter Phase Expectations

Expectation	Pre-arrival (*n* = 113)	Encounter (*n* = 71)	Difference
	%	%	%
Homework help	.62	.80	.18
Acclimation	.20	.61	.41
Emotional support	.09	.76	.67

Note. Comparison of freshmen students' expectations pertaining to homework help in the pre-arrival and encounter phase. Freshmen students' expectations were positively fulfilled in the encounter phase with a positive difference of 18%, 41%, and 67% in homework help, acclimation assistance, and emotional support, respectively.

Appendix B

Figures

Figure B1. Graduation Rates Midwest High School with *Freshmen Focus*. This figure depicts the graduation rates for the years 2002 – 2013. The *Freshmen Focus* program was introduced in the 2007-08 school year.

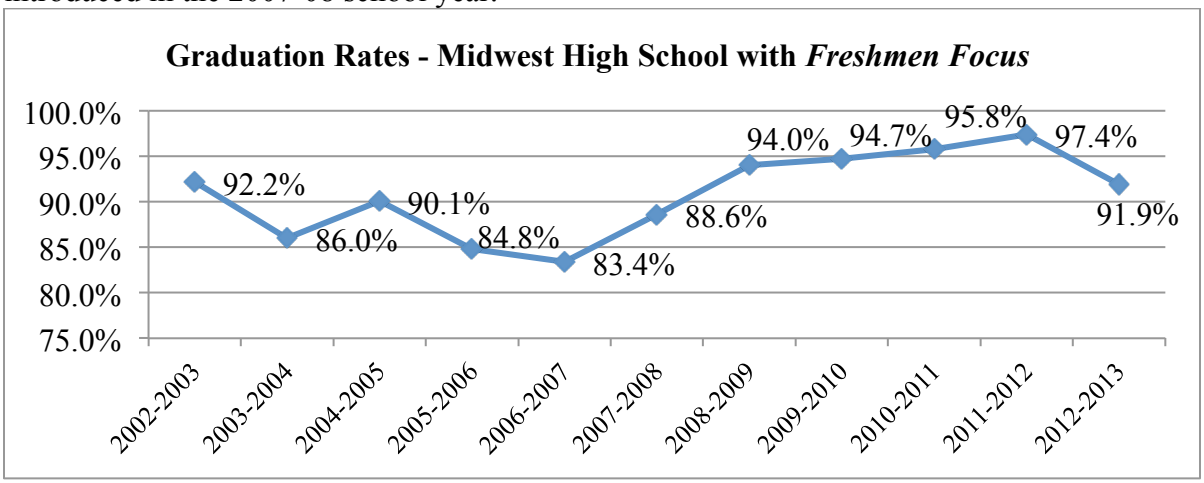


Figure B2. Comparison of GPAs from Introductory Year to Present. This figure compares the percentages in each GPA band in the 2007-08 school year (introduction of *Freshmen Focus*) to the 2013-14 school year for a Midwest high school. The 3.5-2.6 GPA band experienced an increase of 8.6%; the .5-0 GPA band experienced a decrease of 7.5%.

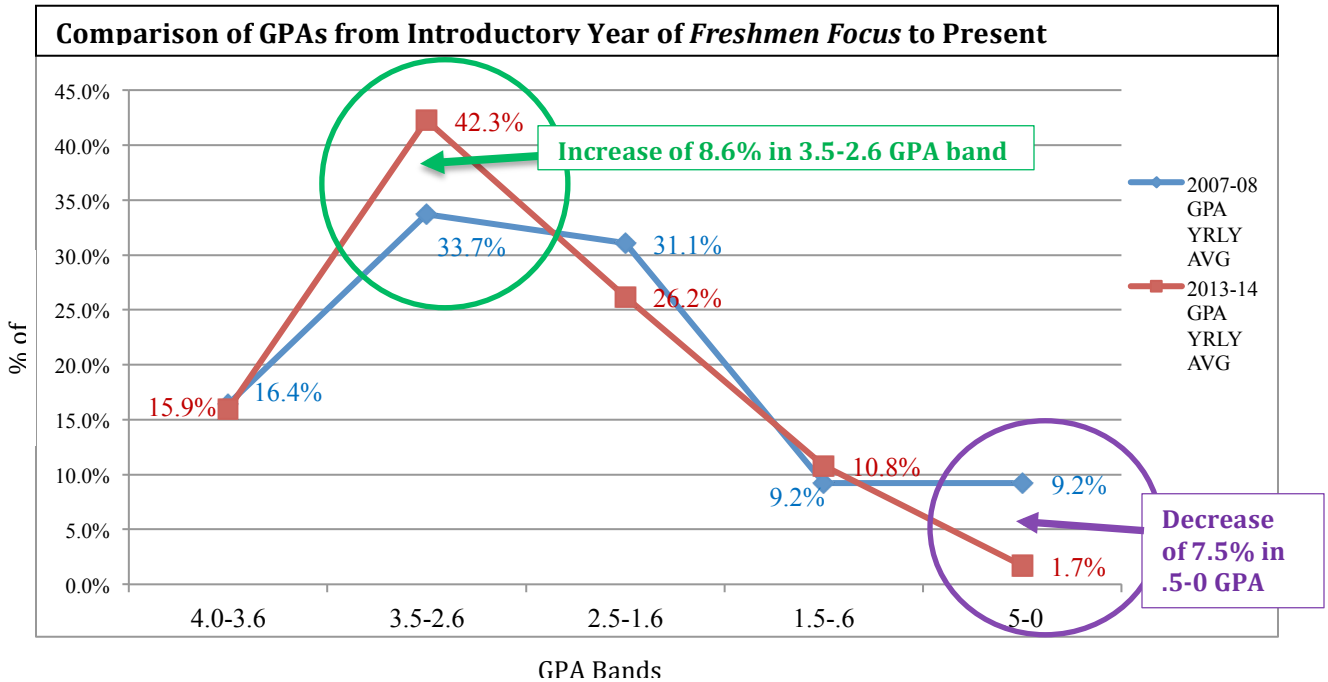
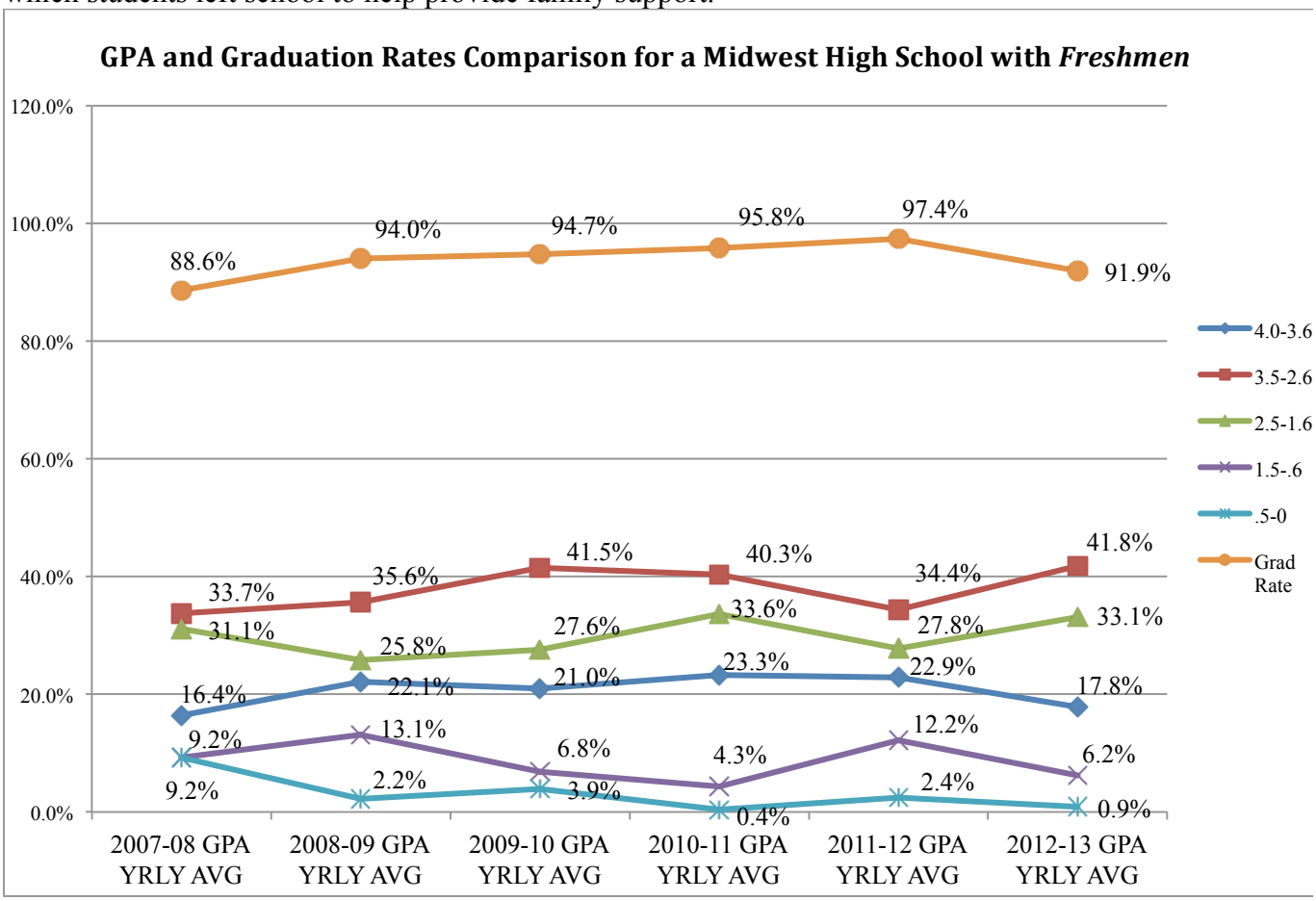


Figure B3. GPA and Graduation Rates Comparison for a Midwest High School with *Freshmen Focus*. This figure compares the percentages in each GPA band per year with the yearly graduation rates since the introduction of *Freshmen Focus* in the 2007-08 school year. The graduation rate increases as the 3.5-2.6 GPA band increases and the .5-0 GPA band decreases. State report cards (Ohio Department of Education, 2015) and discussions with the high school suggest that the decreased graduation rate of 91.9% in 2012-13 was due to an increase in transient and economically disadvantaged students in which students left school to help provide family support.



Effects of Teacher Evaluation on Teacher Job Satisfaction in Ohio

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Abstract

The purpose of this quantitative study was to explore whether or not increased accountability measures found in the Ohio Teacher Evaluation System (OTES) impacted teacher job satisfaction. Student growth measures required by the OTES increased teacher accountability. Today, teachers are largely evaluated based on the results of what they do in the classroom as measured by student performance, rather than what they do to accomplish the task of teaching. Understanding the impact of the OTES on teacher job satisfaction is important as a connection between teacher job satisfaction and quality education has been identified.

Keywords: accountability, job satisfaction, teacher evaluation, student growth measure, high-stakes testing

Introduction

In an effort to improve educational outcomes for Ohio's K-12 students, Ohio's legislators have mandated through the legislative process, rapid change and increased accountability measures causing Ohio's educators to experience change within the profession at an unprecedented rate (Achieve, Inc., 2007). Currently, the state of Ohio's legislators have written and continue to write and vote for a wide variety of educational policy changes, especially policies increasing accountability measures for educators in K-12 educational settings. These policy changes and increased accountability measures have a myriad of compelling ramifications for the state's teachers. The impact of increased accountability measures imposed upon Ohio educators provides a developing opportunity to understand if and how increased accountability affects teacher job satisfaction.

As an illustration of increased accountability and policy changes, several pieces of legislation stand out. One of the legislative pieces was House Bill 555. Governor Kasich signed the bill into law in December 2012, and it became effective in March 2013. This legislation removed previous designations for Ohio K-12 schools such as "continuous improvement" and "academic watch" and replaced it with an A-F grading system. This new grading system for Ohio schools was based on student academic progress and teacher performance, determined through a new and rigorous evaluation model known as the Ohio Teacher Evaluation System (OTES). Another legislative piece, House Bill 153, signed into law in 2011, spelled out the new teacher evaluation system, which combined student growth measures with observable performance ratings of the teacher to provide a holistic determination of a teacher's designation (Ohio Department of Education, 2011). A teacher may be designated as Accomplished, Skilled, Developing, or Ineffective (Ohio Department of Education, 2015b).

Additionally, the Ohio General Assembly passed Senate Bill 316 into law in June 2012. This legislation included the new third grade reading guarantee. At present, Ohio schools are graded on the number of students reading at grade level. While all students in K-3 receive interventions if they are not found to be reading at grade level, only third grade students face retention based on the Ohio Achievement Assessment for Reading. A student must receive a score of 400 or higher to be considered to be reading at grade level. This policy puts third grade teachers in the spotlight, potentially adding stress and increased pressure to perform. Not only will poor student performance on the Ohio Achievement Assessment for Reading negatively impact a teacher's evaluation, there are financial implications for a school district if a student is not reading at grade level and is retained. For example, a series of interventions must be put into place for that student. These interventions may include increased time devoted to reading instruction for that student and intervention services from outside providers (OCTELA, 2012).

More notable legislative changes, found in Senate Bill 165 were college and career readiness standards that change how Ohio's students are assessed prior to graduation. Because schools will be judged on their preparation of high school students to be college and career ready, this policy change impacts how Ohio students will be tested. For more than a decade, students have been required to take the Ohio Graduation Test (OGT). Beginning in 2015, Ohio students began taking a series of PARCC (Partnership for Assessment of College and Career) Assessments and "end-of-course" exams provided by AIR (American Institute for Research) Assessments. However, legislation was passed with the 2015-2016 budget by the General Assembly and signed by Governor Kasich ordering the Ohio Department of Education to discontinue the use of the PARCC Assessments. Instead, the AIR tests would be used for all tested subjects (Ohio Department of Education, 2016). An overlap of these assessments was anticipated causing concern among educators, parents, and students that important instructional time would be sacrificed in order to administer these assessments (Guilfoyle, 2006). These aforementioned examples are merely a few of the legislated changes facing Ohio educators. Teachers, both experienced and inexperienced, have complained of being overwhelmed by the pace of the policy changes and by the uncertainty of how they will be evaluated under increased accountability measures (Franco, Zigler, & Lindsey, 2013). Teachers lacked faith in the validity of student growth measures as a component of their evaluation. The reason for this lack of faith is the data reflect on the previous year's student growth rather than the current year for which teachers are receiving the evaluation rating.

Connected to teacher evaluation is job satisfaction. Job satisfaction, in general, may be negatively impacted by factors such as low pay, dwindling resources affecting employee performance, media disparagement, frequent changes in educational policy, and circumscribed accountability measures lacking teacher input (Scott, Stone, & Dinham, 2001; Van den Berg, 2002). Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2005) found that educator job satisfaction is related to teacher empowerment. In fact, they claimed a less than satisfying evaluation system was found to diminish teacher empowerment and therefore job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was associated with teacher motivation, and these occupational attitudes have been linked to quality education in schools (Evans, 2000).

Another crucial issue for educational leaders to consider is that in order to provide effective leadership and supervision to K-12 teachers, it is imperative for administrators to understand how frequent and fast-paced policy changes and increased accountability measures affect teacher job satisfaction. According to Linda Evans (2000), co-director of the University of Warwick's Teacher Development Research and Dissemination Unit, job satisfaction, motivation, and morale are all work-related attitudes. Morale is different from job satisfaction in that morale is future-oriented and anticipatory, while job satisfaction is present-oriented or a response to a situation (Evans, 2000). Evans (2000) defines motivation as "a condition, or the creation of a condition, that encompasses all of those factors that determine the degree of inclination towards engagement in an activity" (p. 179). This study focused on the work attitude, job satisfaction as defined by Fuming and Jiliang (2007): "the degree of satisfaction a worker evinces for the work in which he or she is engaged" (p. 87).

Another important concept to be defined for this study is accountability. Wood and Winston (2005) said "Accountability refers to employees' beliefs about the degree to which they will be required to justify their actions at work to one or more individuals who hold reward or punishment power" (p. 85). In the case of Ohio teachers, accountability will be measured by student growth (e.g., "value-added"), adequate yearly progress (AYP), and student achievement in the form of the Ohio Graduation Test, which was slated for elimination. New AIR assessments or end-of-course exams were being developed and approved by the Ohio Department of Education and were expected to provide a measure of academic achievement. Earlier research suggested increased accountability may stimulate both positive and negative results connected with job satisfaction (Hochwarter, Ferris, Gavin, Perrewe, Hall, & Frink, 2007). This implication is important because a strong correlation between teacher job satisfaction and quality of education has been identified (Persevica, 2011).

Accountability has become a buzzword according to Lerner and Tetlock (1999). Accountability continued to be defined as the "implicit or explicit expectation that one may be called on to justify one's beliefs, feelings, and actions to others" (Tetlock, 1992, p. 332). The term accountability created stress due to the inference that accountability implied that people who did not justify actions satisfactorily would endure adverse consequences (Stenning, 1995). The term accountability used in education-oriented discussions connoted an ethical responsibility of the school or teacher for effective education (Levit, 1972).

This call for accountability, a nationwide movement that was technocratic and efficiency-oriented (Levit, 1972), has grown in momentum and increased in volume. States across the nation, including Ohio, have developed nearly identical programs to ensure educational accountability, with nearly all of the programs utilizing large-scale assessment results (Popham, 2000). The use of large-scale assessments was no minor detail in the world of educators, because the movement of employing accountability systems based on student testing "had the potential to become one of the major reform efforts in American education in this century, perhaps equal in impact to such movements as the development of the comprehensive high school or the racial integration of public education" (Ramirez, 1999, p. 205). While many reforms exist in Ohio to address the call for increased accountability, the current study focuses on one aspect of increased

accountability reform, that being the introduction of the Ohio Teacher Evaluation System.

The OTES was developed to reform the state's educational system and advance student growth and achievement as called for in No Child Left Behind and Race to the Top, both federal attempts to improve the nation's competitive standing in the world economic arena. The OTES was designed by Ohio teachers, administrators, and college and university faculty along with various educational associations under the guidance of the Ohio Educator Standards Board (Ohio Department of Education, 2007). These Ohio educational professionals worked collaboratively with national experts on teacher evaluation (Ohio Department of Education, 2013). The OTES was designed to more closely align teacher evaluation with the new Ohio Standards for Educators. The OTES became effective for the 2013-2014 school year. Ohio Department of Education materials further claimed the OTES was dedicated to teacher growth and student achievement (Ohio Department of Education, 2015b). It sought to strengthen and re-vamp teacher evaluation. Previously, teacher evaluations were often superficial, offering very little valuable feedback to teachers. According to the Ohio Department of Education, these efforts to advance teacher evaluation were for the purpose of seeking improvement in student educational growth. Under the OTES, 50% of a teacher's evaluation was based on student growth measures (e.g., "value-added"). The other 50% was based on a series of formal and informal observations conducted by administrators. These two components were the primary source of legislative debate in Senate Bill 229 (Harris, 2015).

While OTES is relatively new, its future remains unclear. Senate Bill 229 made its way to the House of Representatives where it became House Bill 362. The Ohio General Assembly passed it on June 3, 2014. The highly contested changes reduced the frequency of evaluations for skilled or accomplished teachers and allowed districts to choose between the original evaluation system structure and an alternative structure. The alternative framework for the OTES included a 42.5%, 42.5%, and 15% division of percentages of category weights (Ohio Department of Education, 2014). The alternative framework was once again amended in Ohio House Bill 64 for the 2015-2016 school year. Changes included making the teacher performance rating worth 50% of the evaluation and student growth worth 42.5%. The alternative component chosen by the district was given a value of 15% (Ohio Department of Education, 2015a). Due to the short interval of time since OTES was first implemented, its effect on student growth and achievement remains unclear.

Rationale and Significance of the Study

Shifting the teacher evaluation process in Ohio from looking at what teachers do in the classroom to what students learn was a major alteration in the teacher evaluation paradigm. This deviation from traditional teacher evaluations to evaluations that include student test scores as a measure of teacher effectiveness creates consequences in the teaching profession. Using student test scores to determine teacher effectiveness as part of the teacher evaluation escalates the accountability element. Because the OTES was relatively new, little to no research exists, creating the opportunity to conduct an investigation. In light of the fact that legislators continue to create and tweak educational

policies regarding teacher evaluation, this study seemed significant and may provide important information for consideration in policy development at the state level. Moreover, educational administrators may find the results of the current study helpful as they employ the state-level teacher evaluation policies in their local districts.

Purpose of Study

Because student test scores became part of the calculation in teacher evaluation, teachers may have perceived the OTES as holding them more accountable for what happened in the classroom. Accountability may impact teacher job satisfaction. As mentioned earlier, positive correlations between teacher job satisfaction and the quality of education in the classroom have been identified (Persevica, 2011). Persevica (2011) concludes that teacher job satisfaction is a fundamental element of quality of education. This exploration seeks to gain insight into the relationship between accountability and teacher job satisfaction, specifically in Ohio K-12 public education. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to determine the impact of increased accountability conveyed through the Ohio Teacher Evaluation System on teacher job satisfaction.

Research Questions

In order to ascertain the outcomes related to teacher job satisfaction created by the various elements of the OTES and the perceived increased accountability, the researcher sought to determine answers to the following questions:

1. Is OTES associated with an impact on teacher job satisfaction?
    a. If so, is the relationship positive or negative?
2. Which components of OTES, if any, are most associated with teacher job satisfaction?

Theoretical Framework

The driving question pertaining to the relationship between accountability and teacher job satisfaction lead to the study hypothesis: increased accountability, perceived in the various elements of the OTES, has a positive rather than a negative impact on teacher job satisfaction. This hypothesis was based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, specifically focusing on the top portions of the Maslow pyramid: esteem needs and self-actualization needs. The esteem needs were based on respect of others and respect by others, as well as self-esteem and achievement (Maslow, 1943). Through increased accountability, the successful teacher would potentially feel greater respect and heightened accomplishment. Maslow described self-actualization needs as incorporating morality and creativity among other elements (Maslow, 1943). Successful teachers would likely feel a moral obligation to help students achieve in their classrooms. Therefore, in an effort to reach all students and meet the specific learning needs of each child, teachers were apt to express creativity in their instructional design.

Delimitations

The study was designed to investigate the impact of increased accountability, via components of the OTES, on teacher job satisfaction. Because the researcher was investigating components of the OTES, and not evaluation systems in general, the current study was focused on K-12 public education teachers in the state of Ohio. Participation in the study was for teachers who have been evaluated through the OTES. Parochial and charter school instructors were not included in the study as they were not required to adhere to the structure of the OTES.

Limitations

Identified limitations for this study include: First, the study was based on a convenience sample rather than a random sample. Because teacher e-mail addresses were unattainable, the survey link was sent to superintendents and principals to forward to their instructional staff. The majority of districts receiving the survey link were in northwestern Ohio, where the primary investigator has the most professional contacts. Second, the researcher has no way to know how many teachers received the survey link to determine a response rate. Some superintendents or principals may have failed to see the e-mail with the survey link or may have determined they did not want their teachers to participate. Conversely, some teachers may have forwarded the survey link to peers in other districts. Third, section two of the survey incorporated questions from the P. E. Lester Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (TJSQ). The researcher inadvertently left off a question from the supervision section of questions. While the question was not critical to the current research, the researcher carefully analyzed the statistical results for all supervision questions. The TJSQ item omitted from the survey was "My immediate supervisor treats everyone equitably" (Lester, 1982, p. 13). The fourth and final limitation affected reliability. The survey included only one question each pertaining to student growth, pre-conference and post-conference, to link to job satisfaction. Therefore, reliability of the survey was decreased.

Researcher Bias

With the introduction of the new Ohio Teacher Evaluation System (OTES) teachers were faced with a presumably more rigorous evaluation system that included two components. One component was based on teacher performance determined through both formal and informal observations conducted by a supervisor. The other component as previously mentioned, was a student growth measure. Teachers were now to be evaluated based on student performance, in terms of measuring student growth, in addition to their own performance in the classroom (Ohio Department of Education, 2013). The researcher chose this topic out of curiosity regarding whether teachers would experience an increase or decrease in job satisfaction due to the increased accountability elements of the OTES.

The researcher entered the study with bias based on the assumption that the OTES increased accountability and was further biased in the expectation to learn that most teachers had improved job satisfaction levels due to increased communication with their

evaluator and improved methods for tracking student growth. These two elements were byproducts of the increased accountability measures found in the OTES. Researcher bias favored teachers' desires to be effective and against critics who claimed educators were not concerned with having a positive effect on student learning. The researcher anticipated the study would indicate that increased accountability improves teacher job satisfaction with the expectation this exploration would provide some insight including evidence of the contrary and did not feel compelled to deny any evidence discounting her opinion. The researcher was careful to prevent bias from impacting the study's results. Preventative measures were taken, such as asking proofreaders to look for instances of potential bias.

Review of the Literature

The state of Ohio's General Assembly imposed a stream of increased accountability measures for educators in K-12 educational settings. These accountability measures directly impacted teachers throughout the state. This study examines the impact of increased accountability measures on teacher job satisfaction. Research of the literature conducted in preparation for the current study implies that increased accountability may stimulate both positive and negative results connected with job satisfaction and correlated teacher job satisfaction and quality of education (Hall, Zinko, Perryman, & Ferris, 2009). Understanding the impact of increased accountability on teacher job satisfaction will be beneficial to policy makers and educational leaders as they make decisions regarding teacher accountability measures in the future.

Educators and policy makers alike acknowledged what astute parents figured out a long time ago: the competency of the individual teacher counts (Danielson, 2001). The accountability movement, which began with the 1958 National Defense Education Act, led to the evolution of the standards-based reform movement and culminated with The Ohio Teacher Evaluation System (OTES) as a response to the accountability movement in the state of Ohio. Political aspects of the accountability movement and how legislators benefited from the perpetuation of the belief that schools are failing are pertinent to the study of accountability. Additionally, the pros and cons of high-stakes assessment, value added measures, and the validity of the data are important elements for a holistic study of teacher accountability, evaluation, and job satisfaction. Issues of high-stakes testing and how such assessments positively and negatively impact education are key components of the research. The progression of teacher evaluation will be traced, as many of the transformative elements were found in the OTES.

Undeniably, teacher evaluation has been the primary tool for increasing the accountability of job performance for teachers. Procedures for the evaluation of teachers are typically spelled out in contracts as determined by the school district and the local bargaining agent. A number of states have legislatively mandated teacher evaluation (Stodolsky, 1984). Ohio was one of those states. External stakeholders were bolstered by teacher evaluations that reflected the success of the school (Peterson, 2004). However, it was not until the turn of the 21st century that the focus of teacher supervision turned to the evaluation process (Marzano, Frontier & Livingston, 2011).

Initially, teacher evaluation was most commonly made up of an anecdotal report, summarized judgment, numerical rating, or checklist completed by the school principal

after visiting the classroom one or two times during the school year (Boyd, 1989; Loup, Garland, Ellett, & Rugutt, 1996; Stodolsky, 1984). Teachers were evaluated on appearance and personality, in addition to rapport with students, preparation for teaching, content knowledge, classroom management, and professional contributions (Stodolsky, 1984). Teacher evaluation typically lacked common ideals and antecedents regarding what constituted good teaching, not to mention providing insufficient feedback for teachers (Danielson & McGreal, 2000). In developing a framework for teacher evaluation, Danielson and McGreal (2000) suggest teacher evaluation be based on a set of teaching standards. They further recommend the focus of teacher evaluation be formative in nature.

According to Stodolsky (1984), the format of direct observation for teacher evaluation was limited in the information it could produce. Moreover, the process of teacher evaluation had an issue with low validity (Medley & Coker, 1987). By the late 2000's the practice of teacher evaluation came under scrutiny (Marzano, et al., 2011). Indeed, Peterson (2000) maintains that evaluations are not useful in terms of improving instruction. As mentioned earlier, in 1987 the NBPTS created standards for teachers which included the following components: identified and defined elements of good teaching, a rubric outlining levels of performance, more frequent observations and collection of artifacts for a more holistic evaluation, and training for the evaluator (Danielson & McGreal, 2000).

One response to the scrutiny of teacher evaluation practices was the Measures of Effective Teaching Project (MET Project). The MET Project focused its mission and efforts on determining and disclosing techniques for measuring effective teaching. The MET Project, funded by the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, involved in excess of 3,000 teachers whose participation was voluntary. The MET Project aimed to provide tools for teachers to be successful at improving student achievement. The primary goal of the MET Project was to determine how evaluation could be used to develop outstanding teaching. The research conducted was based on research showing that "a teacher's contribution matters more than anything else within the school" (Cantrell & Kane, 2013, p. 1).

Ultimately, the research of the MET Project found various elements made up effective teaching and, therefore, must be evaluated using a variety of measures. Furthermore, researchers established that evaluations must be both valid and reliable in order to be worthwhile (Coker, Medley, & Soar, 1980; Medley & Coker, 1987; Kane & Staiger, 2012; Scriven, 1981; Stodolsky; 1984). The MET Project defines "valid" as teaching measures proven to lead to student learning and defines "reliable" as reflective of a typical performance, without the influence of the observer or the particular group of students (Kane & Staiger, 2012).

In response to the call for accountability, researchers began to consider various data sources for the purpose of teacher evaluation. As intended, elements added to the traditional teacher evaluation brought increasingly more accountability to teachers and their supervisors. For example, Value-Added Measures (VAMs) became a component used for teacher evaluations. VAMs were used to ascertain the impact a teacher had on student growth. Typically, this was determined through a statistical analysis of effectiveness based on standardized test scores. VAMs evolved due to a growing interest

in measuring teacher effectiveness and data-based decision-making (Darling-Hammond, Amrein-Beardsley, Haertel, & Rothstein, 2012).

According to Darling-Hammond, et al. (2012), issues with VAMs as appropriate measurement of teacher effectiveness were discovered. For instance, VAMs were unpredictable. Furthermore, the value-added score of a teacher could change based on the students assigned to their classroom, as there are many elements that contribute to or hinder student growth (Darling-Hammond, et al., 2012; Everson, Feinauer, & Sudweeks, 2013). Value-Added Measures were unable to discern those elements from teacher effect (Darling-Hammond, et al., 2012). Per Everson, et al. (2013), VAMs should not be used singularly for teacher evaluation because measurement problems exist that need to be solved.

Despite arguments about using test scores to make comparisons, state lawmakers were incorporating student growth measures into teacher evaluation systems. Veritably, "it is genuinely difficult to find a large-scale educational assessment that isn't playing some sort of role in a local or regional accountability drama" (Popham, 2000, p. 283). As a result of including student growth measures into teacher evaluation, the focus of teacher evaluation changed from one of inputs to one of outputs (Levit, 1972). The focus of evaluation used to be to examine what teachers do and the tasks they perform. These are inputs. What a student knew and could do with that knowledge were defined as outputs. The new focus on student achievement focuses on outputs (Kellaghan, Stufflebeam, Pearlman, & Tannenbaum, 2003). Student growth measures are calculated in terms of Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) and also VAMs.

Value-Added Modeling is used to show the effects of the school and teacher-on-student achievement or growth. Such information was useful in reflecting the importance of the teacher in the outcomes of student learning. Value-Added Modeling was an important component of the high-stakes test and accountability movement (McCaffrey, Lockwood, Koretz & Hamilton, 2003). Adequate Yearly Progress was a measurement of teacher and school contributions to a student's learning. It has been an essential tool for holding teachers and schools accountable (Kupermintz, 2003). However, Kellaghan, et al. (2003) argue that test misalignment (when tests do not align with what teachers are asked to teach) would provide unfair results. Moreover, standardized tests typically cover basic recall of information (Kellaghan, et al., 2003) rather than higher-level thinking such as evaluation or analysis. This could penalize teachers who focus on critical thinking, a 21st century skill. Adding to the controversy are teachers' perspectives of standardized achievement tests. According to Urdan and Paris (1994), teachers, by and large, have not respected the validity of the tests. They have had no say in what tests were given or in how the results were used. The results are not useful in determining how to help their students (Urdan & Paris, 1994). Because of this, Urdan and Paris (1994) point out that teachers may have employed methods that undermined students' test score validity.

Half of each teacher's evaluation would have been derived from the degree to which his or her students learned during the school year. Student growth measures were a mechanism for ascertaining the degree of academic gains students made (Ohio Department of Education, 2013). This was done by calculating student growth between two points in time, also referred to as the interval of instruction. Because there was no common assessment shared by all teachers, the student growth element was challenging.

Three methods for measuring student growth were determined. The first method was Value-Added. Value-Added Measures were discussed earlier in the literature review. The OTES required teachers to use Value-Added data, if it existed, for their students. A second method, if legally acceptable, is the district's local student growth measures. If Value-Added data were unavailable, districts were instructed to use assessments referred to as Approved Vendor Assessments. Such assessments were offered by national testing vendors if they were on the approved list for the state of Ohio. The third method for determining student growth was referred to as Locally-Determined Measures. These measures were to be used in areas such as art or music, where Value-Added data and Approved Vendor Assessments were not available (Ohio Department of Education, 2015b).

In situations where the third method was necessary, the districts were charged with creating the opportunities to measure student progress. Districts were able to produce measures through a locally authorized procedure. Locally Determined Measures included Student Learning Objectives (SLOs) or Shared Attribution. An SLO was one way to establish a teacher's influence on student learning. Student Learning Objectives were intended to cover a long-term interval of instruction and included a target for academic growth for each student. As previously stated, shared attribution was another Locally Determined Measure. Shared attribution was a growth measure that was attributed to or shared by a group. Shared attribution was helpful for supporting collaboration for meeting school goals (Ohio Department of Education, 2015b).

Without a doubt, excellence in instruction goes much further than test scores, such as provoking a love for learning, developing critical thinking skills, and encouraging creative thinking (Everson, et al., 2013). A drawback of VAMs was that they were comparative, especially when they were used to make employment decisions regarding retention and promotion. This practice has pitted teachers against each other instead of encouraging an environment of cooperation and development of professional learning communities (Everson, et al., 2013).

Using student achievement data for the evaluation of teachers was a problematic undertaking (Stronge & Tucker, 2000). Effective teachers possessed a variety of strengths which they brought to the classroom. What makes one teacher effective is potentially different from what makes another teacher effective. Because teachers are individuals, their evaluations ought to have been tailored or differentiated (Peterson, 2004). Additionally, the practice of instruction was both methodical and impromptu (Stodolsky, 1984). Weiss and Weiss (1998) recommend that "teaching needs to be understood dynamically in its multiple contexts, and performance data needs to be gathered from diverse sources" (p. 4). Such factors are important to consider during the evaluation process for an improved understanding of results.

Teachers were both apprehensive and dubious of the evaluation process (Peterson, 2000). The OTES was a new and unknown entity and, according to Peterson (2004), "Teachers [would] not support systems with inadequate procedures and components" (p. 63). Teacher evaluation systems were relevant when they focused on aspects of teaching that were seen as valuable to both the evaluator and the teacher (Iwanicki, 2001). In other words, evaluation systems must make sense to the practitioner (Peterson, 2004). Teachers were concerned about factors related to the nature of teaching itself (Danielson, 2001). Evaluation has been viewed as an activity in which the teacher participates and

also one that encourages reflection on the part of the teacher. Such components made the process more meaningful to teachers (Weiss & Weiss, 1998). Unfortunately, teacher evaluation often encouraged teachers to follow procedure rather than actually advancing teacher performance (Johnson, 1990). Placing an emphasis on procedure was an ineffective means to achieve the desired goal of academia, which is student learning. Lynn (2013) states that teacher views should be taken into account when creating an evaluation system. According to Lynn (2013), "Teachers viewed evaluations as a tool for improvement, while school reform advocates and some parents viewed evaluations as a way to dismiss teachers who were not performing well enough" (p. 208). While the accountability movement called for appraisals based on standards and student growth, the goal of evaluation should have been to develop systems to increase productivity of the school, not systems to fire people (Iwanicki, 2001). Inarguably, when a teacher is consistently ineffective, they should receive more comprehensive evaluation with the possibility of termination (Iwanicki, 2001).

Standards-based accountability has been one of the most important accomplishments of the reform movement, as widely accepted standards for the teaching profession (clearly defining what a teacher should know and be able to do) were endorsed (Kellaghan, et al., 2003). Evaluating teachers based on the standards was the logical next step toward accountability. The purpose of standards-based teacher evaluation systems is to provide standards and rubrics in order to determine the effectiveness of instructional choices and to provide accountability (Borman & Kimball, 2005). In fact, the focal point of legislative policy-making at both the state and federal levels has been the standards movement (Seashore Louis, Febey, & Schroeder, 2005).

Many elements of the OTES are directly connected with both accountability and teacher job satisfaction. While a direct link between teacher job satisfaction and student achievement is a subject of disagreement between researchers, its overall importance in the realm of educating students is conclusive. When the research for this study began, the state of Ohio was in the process of fully implementing the OTES. A look at OTES components and their impact on teacher job satisfaction was needed. Ohio's teachers face multiple challenges and stressors in their work. How did teacher job satisfaction fare in the aftermath of the OTES?

Methodology

As stated previously, the OTES is fairly new for Ohio's educators. Its impact on education for Ohio's youth has not yet been studied. However, a critical connection between teacher evaluation and teacher job satisfaction has been made, as has the relationship between teacher job satisfaction and quality of education. Therefore, the researcher determined an investigation into the topic was necessary.

This study used primary data collected through a quantitative, non-experimental research design. Non-experimental research was identified as appropriate for the study as the researcher sought to understand the dependence of variables through correlations. The researcher collected primary data using an electronic survey that included three sections. The three sections included demographic, job satisfaction, and OTES-specific questions. Subjects of the research were Ohio K-12 teachers who were evaluated through the OTES format. A digital survey was chosen for conducting research as it required

minimal effort with the potential for expedient results. The online survey was sent to superintendents and principals, selected by the researcher, who forwarded the survey to teachers. The online survey was open for data collection from May 20, 2015 until August 31, 2015. Mid-May was the target for sending the survey as teachers received their written evaluations in May. This timing would allow respondents to complete the survey while the evaluation experience was fresh in their minds. Data were analyzed to determine if increased accountability elements of the OTES positively or negatively impacted teacher job satisfaction.

Reliability for survey items regarding teacher job satisfaction was previously established by P. E. Lester, the creator of the TJSQ. Internal consistency of the TJSQ was established through calculation of an Alpha coefficient. "The total scale for the sample (N=526) was .93" (Lester, 1982, p. 2). The P. E. Lester TJSQ was chosen for use in the current study as it was designed to be used with teachers and educational research with language specific to the field. Additionally, the TJSQ already had established rates of reliability and validity. When Lester (1982) tested for reliability, she did so for the total and for each of nine factors including Supervision, Colleagues, Working Conditions, Pay, Responsibility, Advancement, Security, and Recognition. Lester's work allowed the researcher to break up the questionnaire by subscales or factors, using only four of the factors in the current study, and still retain the established reliability. The four factors from the Lester instrument used in the current study included Factor 1: Supervision; Factor 5: Responsibility; Factor 8: Security; and Factor 9: Recognition (Lester, 1982).

Lester established content validity by having the job satisfaction questionnaire examined by experts in the field. Moreover, the instrument was examined for the plan and procedures used to construct the instrument. The instrument was also examined for how instructions were written, how the items on the instrument were ordered, and which items were chosen to be included in the questionnaire. A modified Q sort was used to achieve content validation. Any item with less than 80% agreement was either rewritten or rejected by Lester. In order for Lester to generate an amalgamation of 120 items, each potential item was analyzed for its length, its clarity and repetitiveness, and particularity to the field of education (Lester, 1982).

Validity for the OTES Impressions section of the survey was established through use of expert analysis of the items. Each item in the third section of the survey, referred to as the OTES Impressions section, was deemed necessary and important to elicit and establish a thorough snapshot of participants' perceptions of the OTES. All items were piloted with 27 teachers for clarity, and the entire survey was piloted for the length of time a potential participant might expect to spend to complete the survey. Seventeen teachers out of 27 submitted completed surveys. The median time spent taking the survey was 6.5 minutes. Ambiguous items were refined for precision.

Results

The study's target population comprised licensed K-12 teachers in public education in Ohio who had been evaluated under the Ohio Teacher Evaluation System. All participants received the survey with an invitation to participate, which included a statement of implied consent, in addition to contact information for the researcher and the survey. The researcher received 321 survey responses. Thirty-one of the surveys were

incomplete; some respondents chose to skip questions within the survey but otherwise submitted a completed survey. The researcher, therefore, received 290 fully completed survey responses, which far exceeded the anticipated 100 responses. This was a 90% completion rate. For those surveys that were incomplete, the respondents most frequently stopped answering questions at the end of the demographic response section. Despite the fact that the survey took less than ten minutes on average, the appearance of length seems to have been a limitation.

Quantitative data were analyzed using Pearson product-moment correlations to determine if relationships between the OTES, in addition to various components of the OTES, and teacher job satisfaction held any significance. In order to answer the research question, "Is the OTES associated with an impact on teacher job satisfaction?" the researcher used OTES Impression and OTES Performance to delineate the OTES. A numerical value was designated to each of the OTES performance ratings, which allowed the researcher to create a new variable labeled OTES Performance. OTES Impression data was derived from section 3 of the survey. Section 3 of the survey was written in a Likert-scale style with a numerical value appointed to each response. Values were averaged to provide an OTES Impression variable.

Once the researcher had the OTES Impression and OTES Performance variables, a job satisfaction score was sought. Job satisfaction data were derived from section 2 of the survey, which included questions from the P. E. Lester's Teacher Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (1982). A numerical index was calculated for the purpose of demonstrating the relationship between the variables. A correlation matrix was then created using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. In response to research question one, "Is the OTES associated with an impact on teacher job satisfaction?" the researcher identified a weak-to-no relationship between OTES performance and overall teacher job satisfaction. In considering the relationship between OTES performance and the sub scores of teacher job satisfaction, the researcher found a weak-to-no relationship between Sub-score 1, Supervision, and teacher job satisfaction. The relationship between OTES Performance and Responsibility (Sub-score 2), was also a weak-to-nonexistent relationship. The strongest relationship between OTES performance and a sub-score of teacher job satisfaction was found with Sub-score three, Security. The relationship was also considered to be weak. Additionally, Sub-score 4 was found to have a weak-to-nonexistent relationship, as well.

An analysis of the correlation coefficients for OTES Impression and Teacher Job Satisfaction proved overall weak-to-nonexistent relationships between not only overall satisfaction but for each sub-score. Overall Job Satisfaction and Supervision were found to have a direct relationship with OTES Impression. Supervision (Sub-score 1) turned out to have the strongest relationship with OTES Impression. Sub-scores 2, 3, and 4 (Responsibility, Security, and Recognition) were identified as having a weak-to-no relationship with OTES Impression. Therefore, the researcher concluded that the OTES was not associated with an impact, positive nor negative, on teacher job satisfaction.

Table 1
OTES Performance, Impression, and Job Satisfaction

	Overall satisfaction	Supervision	Responsibility	Security	Recognition
OTES Performance	0.01	-0.1	0.01	0.15	0.08
OTES Impression	0.14	0.21	0.12	-0.07	-0.15

The researcher found no statistically significant relationship between OTES performance and teacher job satisfaction. Furthermore, no statistical significance was found between any of the teacher job satisfaction sub-scores and OTES performance. Because no statistical significance was found, the researcher does not need to address the follow-up question, which asked if the relationship between the OTES and teacher job satisfaction was positive or negative. In response to the first research question, "Is the OTES associated with an impact on teacher job satisfaction?" the data showed no significant relationship between the two variables.

In order to further understand the relationship between teacher job satisfaction and the OTES, the researcher asked, "Which components of the OTES, if any, are most associated with teacher job satisfaction?" As with research question 1, a correlation matrix was created.

Table 2
OTES Components and Job Satisfaction

	Overall satisfaction	Supervision	Responsibility	Security	Recognition
Student Growth	0.03	0	-0.14	-0.06	-0.07
Pre-Conference	-0.13	0	0.02	-0.08	-0.22
Post Conference	0.19	0	-0.01	-0.10	-0.22

Overall teacher job satisfaction and each of the four sub-scores were included in the matrix. However, because overall satisfaction scores and sub-scores were already determined, additional calculations were not required. Initially, the researcher examined the student growth component of the OTES and its impact on teacher job satisfaction. Next, the researcher looked at the pre-conference and its influence on teacher job satisfaction. Finally, the researcher looked at the post-conference and if it affected teacher job satisfaction.

With regard to research question 2, "Which components of the OTES, if any, are most associated with teacher job satisfaction?" the data did not expose an association, either direct nor indirect. Therefore, the researcher concludes the OTES has had no impact on teacher job satisfaction, nor were the OTES components associated with an impact on teacher job satisfaction. In order to allow for greater insight into the impressions of the teachers who participated in the survey, participants were provided with the opportunity to make open-ended comments. Interestingly, while most open-ended comments regarding the OTES were negative; according to the data, the negative impressions and feelings conveyed in the open-ended comment box did not impact teacher job satisfaction. As with research question 1, the correlations for research question 2 revealed no statistically significant relationships.

Discussion

Legislators, superintendents, and principals may take satisfaction in knowing that by implementing the OTES, teacher job satisfaction has not been negatively impacted. However, if the desired outcome is to improve teacher job satisfaction, educational leaders might pursue recommendations based on research. Based on the conclusions of the current research, the following recommendations are proposed:

1. Make the student growth measure component homogenous for all teachers. Until all teachers have value-added data opportunities, have all teachers write SLOs to show student growth. This would alleviate the claim that the OTES is unfair for some teachers and provides an advantage for others.
2. Seek ways to improve the pre-conference component of the OTES for a more meaningful and beneficial experience for teachers. If the pre-conference is a more successful tool for improving instruction, it might have a significant and positive impact on teacher job satisfaction.
3. Seek methods for improving the post-conference as a tool for improving instruction and make it a more meaningful experience for teachers. By doing so, the post-conference may significantly and positively impact teacher job satisfaction.

As the researcher sought answers to her questions regarding the OTES and teacher job satisfaction, many more questions emerged. Indeed, a multitude of future research opportunities connected to the current study exist. These questions were framed as opportunities for future research.

The OTES was initially implemented as a pilot in the 2011-2012 school year (Ohio Department of Education, 2012). Due to collective bargaining agreements that were already in place, many districts did not implement the OTES until 2013-2014 (Ohio Department of Education, 2011). Because the OTES was relatively new at the time the study was conducted and humans, in general, often resist change, the researcher suggests replicating the study at a later date. The purpose for conducting identical research at a later date would be to determine if the element of change due to OTES being new influenced responses to the survey, and therefore results, or if the actual design of the

evaluation system influences teacher responses to the survey. With these questions in mind, replicating the current research would be prudent.

The researcher used the TJSQ and researcher-scripted questions to survey the participants. Another tool that might have been used to provide insight was the Teacher Evaluation Profile (TEP). The TEP is a tool for collecting and recording data (Stiggins & Nickel, 1988). According to Stiggins and Nickel (1988) conditions must be conducive in order for growth to be possible. The TEP produces information regarding the environment for teacher evaluation thus allowing for those who use the questionnaire to examine the potential for growth within the evaluation system (Stiggins & Nickel, 1988). Understanding the teacher evaluation environment would provide a different perspective than that provided by the TJSQ. Therefore, replicating the current research with the added element of the TEP is a future research opportunity.

Another avenue to be explored is the relationship between various demographic data with teacher job satisfaction and/or the OTES. A plethora of demographic data was collected during the research process but was not used for the purpose of the current study. Especially enlightening to teacher perceptions would be analyzing the socioeconomic description of the area. Additionally, evaluating the data to see if the teacher was designated as Type A, Type B or Type C would be informative. Teachers commented on the lack of equity in evaluation due to these designations in the open-ended comments section of the survey used in the current study. Undoubtedly, the demographic data provide ample opportunities for future research.

Because the current study was a convenience sample, it might be simulated on a larger scale using a statewide database of teachers in order to determine if the regional nature of the surveyed population impacts the results. Teachers in the northwest region of Ohio were targeted because a convenience sample was used for the quantitative study. Superintendents and principals were sent an e-mail with the survey attached. The e-mail requested they forward the survey to their teachers. Unfortunately, accessing all teachers' email addresses in the state of Ohio would be time-prohibitive. Without a doubt, replicating the current study on a statewide basis would add to the value of the current research.

For the purposes of the current study, the researcher chose to survey participants on the student growth measures, pre-conference, and post-conference components of the OTES. Future research could ask participants in the survey to respond to questions regarding other components of the OTES, such as walk-through evaluations, formal observations, and growth/improvement plans. Additionally, teachers whose district employs the original 50/50 structure of the OTES might be compared to teachers whose districts use the alternative structure of the OTES. Such a comparative study would provide further information and insight into the OTES and its impact on teacher job satisfaction. Regardless, careful consideration of teacher evaluation and its impact on teacher job satisfaction is suggested. Through careful analysis of teacher feedback and appropriate action taken based on the feedback, teacher evaluation may be useful in increasing teacher job satisfaction.

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