AN ANALYSIS OF STATE AND UNIVERSITY POLICIES ON PRINCIPAL PREPARATION PROGRAMS

A Dissertation

by

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ABSTRACT

Principal preparation and principal leadership programs has become crucial issue since the beginning of the past century. National and state policies have been enacted to improve the principal's competence as well as to prepare principals for leadership roles. In this dissertation, I sought to analyze state policies and university-based program policies related to principal preparation. This dissertation was designed in journal article format and is structured in five chapters. In the first journal manuscript, I explored the literature systematically to address policies and programs related principal preparation since No Child Left Behind (NCLB) was enacted. I focused on the second journal manuscript by comparing quantitatively university-based programs in the states with high leverage policies and states with low leverage policies. This journal article was built upon the University Council of Educational Administration's (UCEA) research-based rubric; therefore, the emphasis of the second peer journal article was to address the statistical differences between the university preparation program policies in states with high leverage policies and states with low leverage policies. The results of the analyses guided me to conclude that there are significant differences between the two groups in terms of the admission and the internship for the preparation programs. The focus of the final journal manuscript is on the internship as a mandated requirement in university-based preparation program. The findings revealed that there is a significant relationship between the university-district partnership and the internship policies.

DEDICATION

With unlimited and unconditional love and respect, I dedicate my dissertation to my Father who passed away shortly after I began my degree journey. My Father believed his daughter to be a good scholar and that she deserved to increase her potential. That is why he always motivated me to advance my academic experiences. He encouraged me to leave the country and come to the United States in order to pursue the Masters' degree. I remember when he took me to Cairo which was 10 hours by train away from our hometown to take the GRE test. I remember when he held my hand tightly to cross the street in which the American Embassy is located and waited for me for four hours while I was inside getting the visa. When I got the Masters, he was happy and kept his belief in me. He saw that a Master's degree was not enough ,and again he encouraged me to apply for the PhD. I left my family in Egypt, my home country with their hope to make them proud of me. I left my Father there waiting for me to come back with my degree to tell him he was correct in his belief. I promised him to make him proud of me, but destiny was faster, and my Father passed away before sharing the success and before we could celebrate together his great support. I am here today and want to tell him that I always keep my promises, because this was the first lesson I learned from him, and my dissertation is his own achievement.

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sorrow and achieve my goal and make my Father's dream come true. I witnessed how she supports her colleagues, her students, and her friends. She taught me how important it is to have solid vision and goal to achieve. As a student in the learning journey, I find myself sometimes with no clear vision, and she is always there to guide me to critically analyze my new experiences and knowledge and to tie them to my identity. She has mentored me and others. Every student of hers feels unique and different, and none of her students felt he/she is left behind. She always works on maximizing the potential of her students and to prepare them to compete strongly in the workplace. I am fortunate to experience the academic life under her mentoring and supervision.

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NOMENCLATURE

AERA	American Educational Research Association
CASA	Committee for the Advancement of School Administration
CAEP	Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation
CCSSO	Council of Chief State School Officers
ELCC	Educational Leadership Constituent Council
IDEIA	Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act
ISLLC	Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium
NCAELP	National Commission for the Advancement of Educational
NCATE	National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education
NCEAA	National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration
NCES	Nation Center for Education Statistics
NCLB	No Child Left Behind Act
NPBEA	National Policy Board for Educational Administration
TEAC	Teacher Education Accreditation Council
UCEA	University Council for Educational Administration

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In the past few decades, researchers, practitioners, and policymakers have increasingly recognized the role of school leaders in improving and developing school performance. This recognition has been influenced by a national focus on improving the achievement of all students and ensuring students' success. Principals are now responsible for not only maintaining the status quo but also for ensuring every student's success (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, & Cohen, 2007; NPBEA, 2001; Peterson, 2002). Darling-Hammond et al. (2007) affirmed this recognition and found that the lack of high-quality principals in public schools has made principals' leadership development a major strategy for school reform.

Education policies paid full attention to students' achievement, part of which centered on school leadership. The acknowledgement of the landmark report *Nation at Risk* of 1983, *No Child Left Behind Act* of 2001, and the *Teacher and Principal Recruitment and Training Act* of 2013 led policymakers to encounter the weaknesses of the contemporary school leadership (Hale & Moorman, 2003). In 1987, The University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) prepared a report to identify the problems encountered by school leaders in the United States and found eight major problems including: (a) no clear definition of effective educational leadership; (b) an absence of collaboration between school districts and higher education institutions; (c) the low representation of racial and gender minorities in the field; (d) a lack of

systematic and continuing professional development; (e) the poor quality of candidates for preparation programs; (f) the poor quality of preparation programs; (g) the demand for licensure or certification systems that promote excellence; and (h) the lack of a national sense of collaboration in preparing school leaders (Hale & Moorman, 2003). I applied a policy analysis of state and university policies to create a critical assessment and develop communication of the policy related to principal preparation programs. Policy analysis is valuable, because it draws under the social science methodologies with which researchers can create practical solutions (Dunn, 2015).

Policy Analysis Model and Process

Nagel (1999) depicted the policy analysis model as the process of determining which of various policies would be more likely to achieve a given set of goals and objectives through creating relationships between the policies and the goals. Nagel also argued that the policy analysis could be either for existing policies or new proposed policies. Weimer and Vining (2015) provided another definition of policy analysis as a social solving-problem process through which policy analysts provide a systematic comparison and evaluate the alternatives of policies that are available to public actors.

Thissen and Walker (2013) defined five models of policy analysis that are commonly used in analyzing education policies including: (a) the rational decision-making model in which the policy evolves in chronological steps; (b) the political game model in which a policy is seen as series of bargains and compromises among the interdependent stakeholders, (c) the discourse model which is constructed on policy

debates; (d) the garbage can model through which the problem and the solution or the politics and the beneficiaries are coupled together at the right moment, and (e) the institutional model which is reproducing earlier solutions that are shaped based upon the institution's rules and culture. The institutional model is appropriate for analyzing policies related to principal preparation, because I focused on analyzing the existing state policies related to principal preparation that are primarily reproduced from existing policies and acts such as the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act* (ESEA) of 1965, *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB) of 2001, and *Teacher and Principal Recruitment and Training Act* of 2013.

Legislature Response to the Education Development

Policies related to principal leadership and principal preparation have varied from one state to another based on the available resources for each state. Bottom (2001) argued that the state legislatures always respond to the expansion of the expectation at the workplace level as well as to the expansion of the demand of the economy at both local and global levels. This response emphasized the development of high standards of education and the development of assessment systems. Bottom (2001), therefore, found that school principals are shown as the direct leaders who are responsible for students' success. States, like Tennessee and Illinois, have expanded the policies to include comprehensive principal preparation policies. For example, Tennessee Learning Centered Leadership Policy had developed policy 5.101 which was adopted on 2011 and revised in 2017. Based on this policy, it was required to align the preparation programs

with the Tennessee Instructional Leadership Standards (TILS) new standards. In addition, Tennessee placed emphasis on formalizing the university-district partnership to be written and documented and on creating standards for the admission process (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015; Tennessee State Government, 2018). Illinois S.B. 226 of 2010 required a redesign the preparation programs to meet the Illinois Professional Teaching Standards (IPTS). Iowa S.F 277 of 2007 and Oregon S.B. 290 of 2011 required the development of state leadership standards for school administrators (Shelton, 2012). On the other hand, states like Ohio, Hawaii, Oklahoma, and Wyoming do not have policies regarding principal preparation, because these states left principal preparation program regulation to the universities (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015). As noted in these few examples, there are a variety of policy implementations across the states.

Statement of the Problem

The increase of the numbers of individuals in campus leadership positions does not align with the growth of the student enrollments in public schools. Based on the National Center for Education Statistics, 55.4 million children enrolled (50 million in public and 5.4 in private) in the school year 2013-2014 with almost one million (982,000) administrators. Demographically, the administrators' number includes 73.5% White, 13.4% African American, 9.3% Hispanic, and 3.8% Asian in these schools (DPE, 2016; NCES, 2016). The NCES expected students' enrollment to increase to 51.4 million in public schools by 2025-26 while there is a continuing decrease in the number of qualified administrators. Therefore, policies were enacted to promote and/or to improve the qualifications of the new/prospective administrators. The current

requirements include but not limited to: (a) a Master degree in education; (b) five years or more in a related occupation (e.g. as a teacher), and (c) an administrator license or certification. States such as Texas, California, New York, Illinois, and Ohio have the highest employment rates of education administrators while Alaska, Delaware, Idaho, Montana, Rhodes Island, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming have the lowest an administrators' employment rates (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016).

Prior to the twentieth century, there was no significant need to develop programs through which principals were prepared to do their position responsibilities, because the schools were small, simple, and the expectation standards of education were not as high as today (Murphy, 1998). With the current complications in the accountability systems, the education expectation standards expanded and merged to state constitutional and human justice rights to provide education with good quality to all students (Goldring, 2014). Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) found that there was a significant relationship between principal competence and students' achievements. Waters et al. also found that the total direct and indirect effects of campus principals represent 25% of the total effect of the school including curriculum, teachers, instructions, etc. Principal performance is tied to student achievement, and effective school leadership becomes a requirement in order to ensure student achievement growth. It, therefore, becomes essential to prepare teachers as well as school principals to work together in order to achieve this goal.

The shortage of school leaders is attributed to the increase of principal turnover and the decrease of the qualified replacements in principal positions. Based upon the

results of the 2011-2012 School and Staffing Survey (SASS), the number of school administrators had decreased by 10.5% since 2010 (Bitterman, Gray, & Goldring, 2013). The crisis escalated when the principal performance was linked to student achievement growth (NCLB, 2001). This linkage required making changes in the administrators' preparation in order to match the new responsibilities. About 70% of principals responded to the MetLife Survey of the American Teacher of 2012 and reported that there are significant changes in their responsibilities compared with those who were hired five years earlier than them (Markow, Macia, & Lee, 2013). Therefore, the pressure to prepare principals to be qualified to lead schools and improve student achievements forced the state policymakers to legislate policies to respond to this pressure.

Purpose of the Study

My dissertation comprised of three journal-ready publications. The first purpose of the study was to explore the literature related to policies and principal preparation. This study was conducted through employing systematic review for all studies conducted since the enactment of *the No Child Left Behind Act* in 2001. The second purpose of the study was to examine the extent to which the quality of university-based preparation programs relates to state and university policies. This study was completed through a research-based survey using the Principal Preparation Program Policy Survey (4Ps) which I developed on the basis of the UCEA research-based rubric as well as the UCEA/LTEL-SIG Survey of Leadership Preparation and Practice. Using the previous state policy analysis reported to the UCEA in 2015 by Anderson and Reynolds, the states

were classified into two groups: (a) states with high leverage polices and (b) states with low leverage policies. The level of policy leverage was measured through meeting certain criteria. The results indicated that seven states have high leverage policies, and 11 states have low leverage policies. In order to achieve my purpose, the survey was distributed among the program coordinators/directors in universities of states that have developed the highest and the lowest leverage policies. The third purpose of my study was to provide an overview of the context of site internship as a mandated requirement of the preparation program. In the latter study, I examined the relationship between the state and university policies on the quality of the clinically rich principal internship. Questions about the internship were distributed among the coordinators and chairs of the preparation programs.

Significance of the Study

The findings of my research should shed light for policymakers related to the relationship between the policy and its practices and implications. Research on state principal preparation policies is limited. The literature included only 117 studies in this regard since 2001. Those studies include 54 qualitative, 45 quantitative research and 19 mixed methods studies as shown in Table 1. Out of those 117 studies, only three researchers examined more than four states, while only in one, researchers examined the state-by-state policies regarding the principal preparation. Therefore, it is important to examine the relationship between policy and practice in regard to preparation programs.

Definition of Terms

Campus Principal

Hess and Kelly (2007) and Risius (2002) described the school principal as the manager of the school campus who helps achieve the educational goal in healthy environment. Hess and Kelly (2007) also defined the principal as the "school principals are the front-line managers, the small business executives, the team leaders charged with leading their faculty to new levels of effectiveness" (p. 2). Fullan (1988) listed the responsibilities of the principal to include but not limited to: (a) preparing teacher performance review; (b) supervising the curriculum implementation plan; (c) organizing heritage language program; (d) heading the identification, placement review committee; and (e) supervising the appraisal for a better curriculum. In addition to those major responsibilities, Fullan (1988) made a great emphasis on the role of the principal in dealing with parent and community groups, trustees, administration activities, staff involvement, student services, social services, and board initiatives.

Effective Principal

Based on the United States Blueprint of 2010, a proposal was developed to improve formula grants to states and school districts to improve the effectiveness of teachers and leaders and to ensure that students in high-need schools are being taught by effective teachers in schools led by effective principals. To help meet these goals, states and districts may choose how to spend funds to meet local needs in addition to improving the effectiveness of teacher and principal. To measure, develop, and improve

the effectiveness of their teachers, leaders, and preparation programs, states and districts were required to put in place a few specific policies and systems that determine: (a) specific definitions effective teacher, and effective principal; (b) state-level data systems that link information on teacher and principal preparation programs to the job placement, student growth, and retention outcomes of their graduates; (c) and district-level evaluation systems.

Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC)

A cooperation between the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) and the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA) generated ISLLC Standards in 1996 with which it was outlined the knowledge as well as the skills that the school leaders should know and acquire to ensure preparing PK12 graduates for career and college. ISLLCs were reviewed and the new ISLLCs were approved in 2008.

State Principal Standards

State principal standards are the standards that the education legislature sets as a minimum acceptable level of quality and what is below these standards is not acceptable (Darling-Hammond & Wise, 1985).

The Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC)

In 2002, The National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA) developed the ELCC Standards for National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) to assist current and prospective school administrators meet the changes in the school as well as the society demands. ELCCs are standards that are

employed by the educational institutions and universities to help design Master programs that suit for preparing principals, assistant principals, administrators, and curriculum directors.

In the beginning of the third millennium, NCATE started not only focusing on the contents of teacher education programs but also assessing those programs (Queen, Peel, & Shipman, 2013). NCATE and NPBEA, therefore, revised the guidelines in order to integrate them with the ISLLC framework in 2001. ELCC comprises of seven main standards: (a) facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community; (b) advocating, nurturing, and sustaining school culture and instructional programs conducive to student learning and staff professional growth; (c) ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment; (d) collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources; (e) acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner; and (f) understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context (Pitre & Smith, 2004).

Council for Accreditation of Educator Program (CAEP)

The main goal of CAEP is increasing the value of accreditation and to improve its culture among the educators (CAEP, 2016). In 2009, the idea of establishing CAEP was born by both boards of Directors of NCATE and Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC) when they appointed a Design Team to propose CAEP. In 2010, the

Design Team report was disseminated to public, the boards of NCATE and TEAC accepted the recommendation of establishing CAEP, and the first meeting for CAEP board was at the same year (CAEP, 2016). Two years later, the Commission on Standards and Performance Reporting met to develop the new accreditation standards and performance measures for educator preparation. In 2013, CAEP Boards approved the new accreditation standards and CAEP became full functioned at the end of the same year. In 2014, the Council of Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA) recognized CAEP. Currently, CAEP accreditation standards are fully implemented (CAEP, 2016).

Principal Preparation Programs

Leadership preparation is the major key element with which an education reform can be achieved. Orr (2011) demonstrated that "Leadership preparation has become one of this decade's primary approaches to educational reform and improvement of student achievement" (p. 115).

Limitations

For the first manuscript, the only limitation was the lack of resources available in regard to principal preparation policies in the past two decades. For manuscript two and three, the data were collected all over 18 states (states that developed high leverage policies and states that developed low leverage policies) by emailing the program coordinators of principal programs to send required documents as well as participating in a survey. The response might not be either high or consistent.

Delimitations

This overall study was delimited to public universities that reported the description of the policy as well as the implemented programs. Therefore, a concise and detailed analytic matrix was required to analyze the data. It was anticipated and known that not only the terminology related principal preparation is different but also the education agencies titles are different. Since the emphasis was centered only on *state* policies related to principal preparation, *federal* acts and policies have not been examined other than in relation to the state policies.

Assumptions

This study is based on the assumptions that state policies promote principals to participate in preparation programs through which principals and school leaders acquire new leadership skills that help improve school performance. In this study, it is also assumed that the inaccuracies (if existed) are consistent across the overall data with which the results were affected. Therefore, it was assumed that the collected data are accurate and reflect the policy as well as the implemented programs. I examined the current policies that are enacted in the 2016-2017 academic year.

Organization of the Study

This dissertation comprised in a journal-ready format and was comprised of five chapters that seek to better address state principal preparation policies. Chapter I included the introduction as well as the structure of the entire dissertation. Chapter II, Chapter III and Chapter IV were developed in journal-ready article format, while

Chapter V is a policy brief that included the policy recommendations and implications related to the overall findings.

Chapter II- Peer-Review Journal Manuscript I

Chapter II is a systematic synthesis of the existing literature regarding state policies of principal preparation and their influence on the implemented programs. The primary question of this chapter was "What is included in published literature regarding state policies in relation to principal preparation programs?" Therefore, it is required for the systematic reviews to include every document related to preparation policies. Higgins and Green (2011) defined systematic reviews as an attempt "to collate all empirical evidence that fits pre-specified eligibility criteria in order to answer a specific research question" (p. 1.2.2). According to Higgins and Green (2011), the systematic review should include: (a) clear objectives of the study; (b) explicit methods; (c) a systematic search; (d) avoid bias and assessment of the validity of the findings; and (e) a systematic and synthesis presentation of the findings. The peer-reviewed articles, dissertations, and books were screened and analyzed to create a better understanding the state policies and to identify the gaps in the literature regarding state preparation policies and university programs. The data were collected using the search engines including but not limited to ERIC, EBSCO, and ProQuest and Thesis Global. The protocol was determined for this based on the general guidelines of the Campbell Collaboration (2014).

The inclusion and exclusion criteria were center on finding evidence of the influence of policies on principal professional development and preparation. Therefore,

the criteria of deciding the eligibility for the preliminary research include: (a) the content focuses on principal preparation policies; (b) year of completion (2000-2016); (c) language and geography as the eligible article/dissertation must be about the United States and written in English.

Chapter III-Peer-Review Journal Manuscript II

Chapter III is the report of my empirical study in which I examined the differences between university policies in states that developed high leverage policies and states that developed low leverage policies. MANOVA using SPSS 25 was utilized to analyze the data collected using 4Ps survey. The primary questions of this chapter asked the extent of differences between the policies of the university preparation programs in terms of admission, program standards, program oversight, university-district partnership, and clinically rich internship. Therefore, the collected data included state policy data that have been collected previously in the study conducted by Anderson and Reynolds in 2015; in addition to, the university data that were collected for this study. In this current study, the coordinators and chairs of university-based principal preparation programs participated in the survey in order to examine the influence of the state and university policies in the quality of university-based preparation programs.

The Principal Preparation Programs Policy Survey (4Ps) was designed to achieve this purpose. The survey is originally a partial merge of the UCEA rubric that developed in 2015 (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015) and the UCEA/LTEL-SIG Survey of Leadership Preparation and Practice that developed, validated by UCEA in 2003 (Orr, 2008). The 4Ps survey was distributed among the chairs of principal preparation program at public

universities. The link to the 4Ps Qualtrics survey was emailed to 518 program chairs at 518 public universities in the period between October 4 to November 5, 2017. Four reminders were emailed to the participants; in addition to, the first invitation email. I received 193 responses to the survey (37.2% of the population).

Chapter IV-Peer-Review Journal Manuscript III

The emphasis of Chapter IV is focused on the policies of the field internship. The primary inquiry in this chapter was "to what extent does the policy relate to the internship structure? The analysis was centered on finding the policy factors that relate to internship as one of the mandated requirements of the university-based principal preparation programs. Structural Linear Modeling was the statistical tool in order to answer the research questions.

Chapter V-Implications and Recommendations

Chapter V is comprised of a recommendations and implications. It includes the conclusion and recommendations based on the findings.

CHAPTER II

A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF PRINCIPAL PREPARATION POLICIES AND PROGRAMS

Introduction

A school principal is a key variable in school improvement; therefore, policies to establish professional development programs are required to qualify principals for school leadership. Prior to the twentieth century, there was no need to develop preparation programs because schools were small, free of complications, and moderate standards needed to be met (Murphy, 1998). The standards of education increased to maximize students' potential to college and career. The demands of the accountability systems increased as a result to include students' achievement, school leadership, community engagement etc. Due to the increase in the demand for accountability for student success and the responsibility to ensure a highly qualified school (No Child Left Behind Act, 2001), the role of school administrator has become significantly more demanding and complex than in the past (Fink & Brayman, 2006; Glickman, 2001; Hickey-Gramke & Whaley, 2007). Schools have become more complicated and the education expectation standards have expanded and merged with state constitutional and human justice rights to provide education of good quality to all students (Goldring, 2014). *Every child having the right to get a good education* became the goal of every state. Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) found that there is a significant relationship between the principal's competence and students' achievements. Waters et al. also found that the total direct and indirect effects of campus principals represent 25% of the total

effect of the school including curriculum, teachers, instructions, etc. It, therefore, becomes essential to prepare teachers as well as school principals to work together in order to achieve this goal.

In order to create a better understanding of the current preparation policies, we needed to explore what have been published in this regard because the past is the roadmap to the future. I intended to conduct this study to explore what have been published and discussed regarding to principal preparation policies since passing NCLB act of 2002 till present. This exploration included all articles, dissertations, book chapters, and reports. The University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) has published *A Policymaker's Guide* in 2015, which included qualitative analyses of state-by-state preparation policies (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015). This report was the only document, which included comprehensive qualitative description of principal preparation state-by-state policies. Yet, the literature included studies which discussed state policies and university preparation programs. My study focused on mapping all of the studies that discussed principal preparation state policies and the university programs.

Research Questions

There were five research questions that guided my systematic review. They are as follows:

1. What is included in published literature regarding the history of the principal preparation policies?

2. What is included in published literature regarding to state principal preparation policies? Were there examples?

3. How have the technology integration standards been implemented in school management?

4. Based on the literature, what are the principal preparation and licensure programs?

5. What is included in published literature regarding to field-work experiences?

Methods

Systematic Literature Review

A Cochrane systematic review was employed in this study. Cochrane (2011) identified seven steps to be followed, including: (a) formulate the problem, (b) locate and select the studies related to this problem, (c) appraise the studies, (d) collect data, (e) analyze and present the results, (f) interpret the results, and (g) improve and update the reviews (Higgins & Green, 2011; Morton, Levit, Berg, & Eden, 2011). Unlike traditional reviews, the purpose of systematic review is to synthesize the examined knowledge to address the merging research issues that support the researchers' hypotheses (Kiffer & Tchibozo, 2013). Systematic reviews are employed to answer the research questions by "extract[ing] reliable data from literature" (p. 279). In this context, a systematic approach is chosen to synthesize the available body of literature from articles and dissertations related to principal preparation programs and state policies regarding to them. A systematic literature review is a rigorous approach; however, it has been utilized sparingly in higher education research (Bearman, Smith, Carbone, Slade, Baik, Hughes-

Warrington, & Neumann, 2012). In order to adhere to the rigor of conducting a Cochrane's systematic review, the PIECES worksheet was employed (PIECES; Foster, 2017) from the Center for Systematic Reviews at Texas A&M University was employed. The PIECES worksheet includes six steps: (a) plan by defining and planning as the questions and criteria are defined, (b) identify by searching and documenting as databases are selected, (c) evaluate by screening with specific screening methods, (d) collect and combine by coding the synthesize data; (e) expand by assessing and coding with a coding form, and (f) summarize by synthesizing and writing with screening of articles, discussion, and finalizing paper.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Five inclusion criteria were considered for this study. First, the material was required to be an academic article, report, dissertation, or thesis. Second, the document had to be related to principal preparation. Third, the document was required to be about policies, standards, laws, or regulations related to principal preparation. Fourth, the research had to be conducted between 2002 to 2017, and (e) it was required to be about principal preparation in the United States. Finally, it was required to include research about implemented state principal preparation policies and/or preparation programs.

Data Sources

Data have been collected from Academic Search Complete, ERIC (EBSCO), and ProQuest Dissertations and Thesis-Full Text database. Academic Search Complete is the world's most valuable and comprehensive scholarly, multi-disciplinary full-text

database, with more than 8,800 full-text periodicals, including more than 7,700 peer-reviewed journals. In addition to full text, this database offers indexing and abstracts for more than 13,600 journals. ProQuest Dissertation and Thesis – Full text, the world's most comprehensive and largest single repository of graduate of dissertations and theses, was the only body of dissertations included. Dissertations published by universities themselves were not included. It may be found at the website of the ProQuest Dissertation and Theses Global.

Data Collection

I searched five times, including one initial and four advanced searches, on the Academic Search Complete, ERIC (EBSCO) databases and ProQuest Dissertation and Thesis – Full text database. In the initial search, I developed my searches based on three major keywords: (a) principal; (b) preparation; and (c) policy. I used the three words and the related synonyms to them. The search on ERIC (EBSCO) retrieved 287 documents on 3/3/16, limited to 2002-current, academic journals and educational reports as follows:

((DE "Beginning Principals" OR DE "Assistant Principals" OR DE "Instructional Leadership" OR DE "Principals") OR (AB principal* OR TI principal*))

AND

(AB (standard* or policy or policies or competenc* OR licensure* or license*) OR TI (standard* or policy or policies or competenc* OR licensure* or license*) OR DE "Policy" OR DE "Policy Analysis" OR DE "Policy Formation" OR (DE "Standards" OR DE "Laws" OR DE "Qualifications" OR DE "State Standards") OR (DE "Administrator Qualifications"))

AND

(DE "Administrator Education" OR AB (principal* n3 (prepar* or train*)) OR TI (principal* n3 (prepar* or train*)))).

In the second search on ERIC (EBSCO), I screened the full-text in order to ensure that the selected peer-reviewed journal articles and the reports met the inclusion criteria. I employed the same search strategy in the third search in the Academic Search Complete. Full-text screening was conducted in the Academic Search Complete and the fourth step while screening the abstracts of the dissertations in the ProQuest Dissertation and Thesis database was the fifth and final step in the search phase. I searched using the same keywords and determined the timeframe from 2002 to 2015. The results of the search have been stored in Refworks, on which I designed the screening form.

Screening Results

As shown in Figure 1, the results of the initial search in ERIC (EBSCO), the Academic Search Complete, and the ProQuest Dissertation and Thesis included about 632 academic documents that met the criteria. I found 287 articles, reports, and dissertations that met the study's inclusive criteria and were considered relevant in ERIC-EBSCO, 76 academic pieces have been found in academic search complete, and 270 dissertations in the ProQuest Dissertations and Thesis. Duplicates were checked, and I found 44 articles and reports that were duplicated. The total became 588 after removing the duplicates.

The first screening was conducted for the abstracts of 588 articles, reports, and dissertations. A total of 167 articles, reports and dissertations met the inclusion and

exclusion criteria of this study including 105 articles and reports in ERIC-EBSCO, 4 in Academic Search, and 58 in ProQuest Dissertations and Thesis.

After the abstract screening, the 167 documents I found in the initial search were examined by the full text screening. Screening the full text illustrated that 46 peer-reviewed journal articles, dissertations, and reports are not relevant to this study. Therefore, they were excluded. The final analysis was of 121 peer-reviewed journal article, dissertation, and reports.

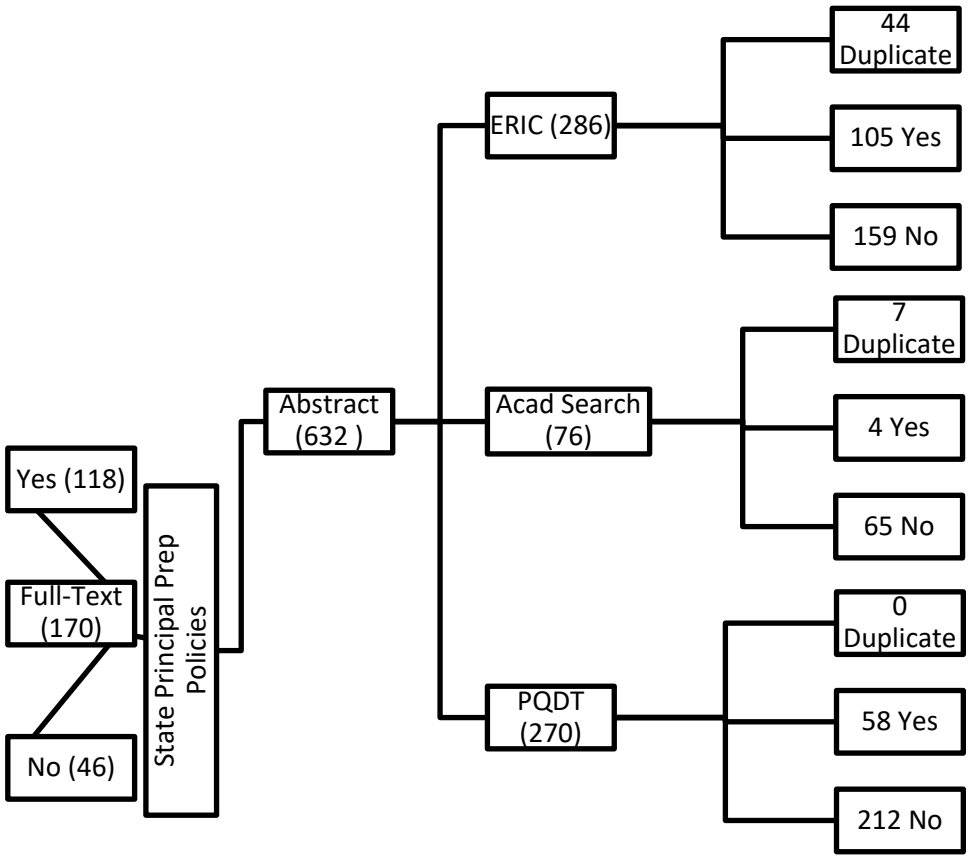

Figure 1. The process of systematic screening of the documents.

In order to run the screening and analyses, a Qualtrics survey was developed and, I used Qualtrics as a tool to keep track of the themes and codes (Levett, 2017). All selected documents that met the inclusion criteria were imported from Refworks to Qualtrics. Three articles were excluded in the Qualtrics screening process as they did not meet the criteria. The total of analyzed articles included 118 articles, reports, and dissertations**.**

Findings

The findings of this study were centered in four categories. The first category included literature emphasized the historical backgrounds and policies related to the establishments of the principal preparation policies. The second category included analysis of the state standards related to principal preparation which emerged from policy and examples of the state standards. The third category included analysis of research conducted on principal preparation programs and licensure that developed based on policies. The fourth category emphasis was on studies that included the implications of the standards related to technology, internship and evaluation in principal preparation programs. The last category included published literature regarding to field-experience internship.

The First Category: The History of Principal Preparation Policies

There were two schools of thought in describing the history of principal preparation policies. The first was Murphy's school who divided the history into eras. Murphy (2006) documented the development of the leadership programs by dividing them into four eras: (a) the era of ideology; (b) the prescriptive era; (c) the era of

professionalism, and (d) the dialectic era. Scholars (e.g. Cox, 2007; Gross, 2008; Normore, 2010; Seybert, 2007) have analyzed the formal preparation for school administrators which started at the beginning of the twentieth century in 1900s. Based on the history summarized by Cox (2007) and Murphy's four eras, Table 1 illustrates the history of the major events of the school administrator preparation. During the period of Murphy's first era (the era of Ideology), the American Association of School Administration was founded in 1865 (Cox, 2007; Gross, 2008; Normore, 2010; Seybert, 2007).

The second school of thought divided the history in a yearly order. The history of educational administration policies started in the mid of the nineteenth century with the foundation of the American Association of School Administration in 1865 (Cox, 2007; Gross, 2008; Normore, 2010; Seybert, 2007). The historical records show that there were turning points in educational administration and principal preparation policies such as: (a) the establishment of the American Educational Research Association in 1916 (Cox, 2007; Gross, 2008; Normore, 2010; Seybert, 2007); (b) the foundation of the Committee for the Advancement of School Administration (CASA) in 1955 (Goodney, 2007); (c) the establishment of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) in 1956 by 15 universities primary to promote graduate programs in education administration. UCEA currently is a consortium of 67 educational institutions (Goodney, 2007; Hart, 2015); (d) the establishment of the National Policy Board on Educational Administration (NPBEA) in 1988; (e) the development of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) by the CCSSO and NPBEA in 1993 (Gross, 2008;

Noremore, 2010, Seybert, 2007). ISLLC first standards had been developed in 1996 and revised in 2006, 2008 and 2015. The 2015 version of ISLLC standards was the Professional was called the Professional Standards for Educational Leaders-PSEL (NPBEA, 2017).

Since *Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Education Reform* was published in 1983, policymakers called for a national dialogue to discuss education reform including principal preparation and readiness which depicted as catalysts to help close the achievement gap among students as well as increase school effectiveness (Cafferty, 2010; Cox, 2007; Morrow, 2003). School effectiveness was the controversial target for which an increased scrutiny is prevalent in the political context during the past two decades (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015; Barton, 2013; Bathon & Black, 2010; Figlio & Loeb, 2011; Mullen, Gordon, Greenlee, & Anderson, 2002; U.S. Department of Education, 2016).

The role of the principal has evolved and becomes more complicated to include more managerial and instructional responsibilities (English, 2012; Jackson & Kelley, 2002; Lynch, 2012; Lucas, 2008; Rinder, 2007; Risius, 2002; Tareilo, 2004). The emphasis on the role of the principal as a manager as well as instructional leaders increased over time (Gray, 2009; Lucas, 2008; Tareilo, 2004). By the end of the 1980s, a new set of standards were developed which is ranging from monitoring compliance with national and federal regulations to providing staff and classrooms with support, and to educators' preparation (Cafferty, 2010; Cox, 2007; Murphy, 2006).

Table 1

The History of School Administration

Year	Event
The Era of Ideology until 1900: No formal training (Murphy, 1992 , & 2006)	
1865	The American Association of School Administration was founded (Cox, 2007; Gross, 2008; Normore, 2010; Seybert, 2007)
1875	William L. Payne published the first book chapter on education administration Cox, 2007; Gross, 2008; Normore, 2010; Seybert, 2007).
The Prescriptive Era (1900-1945): Administrators as Social Agents. The Social Agent Role included social and cultural trainings in response to the values of the society (Murphy, & 2006)	
Early 1900s	Education colleges dealt with basic pedagogy of school administration. No license of education administration was founded or awarded (Cox, 2007; Gross, 2008; Normore, 2010; Seybert, 2007).
1910-1915	A business tendency to offer trainings for education administration (Cox, 2007; Gross, 2008; Normore, 2010; Seybert, 2007).
1916	American Educational Research Association was established (Cox, 2007; Gross, 2008; Normore, 2010; Seybert, 2007).
1930s	The influence of Human Relations on programs for school administrations (Cox, 2007; Gross, 2008; Normore, 2010; Seybert, 2007).
The Era of Professionalism or Scientific Era (1946-1985): The change to technique-oriented substance which tend to utilize more the practical experience than theoretical trainings (Murphy, 1992, & 2006)	
1947	National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) was founded to promote the improvement of preparation programs (Gross, 2008; Noremore, 2010, Seybert, 2007).
1955	The Committee for the Advancement of School Administration (CASA) was founded (Goodney, 2007).
1956	The University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) was founded by 15 universities primary to promote graduate programs in education administration. UCEA currently is a consortium of 67 educational institutions (Goodney, 2007; Hart, 2015).
1985	Out of UCEA, the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration (NCEEA) was founded
The Dialectic Era (1985- present): the shift from scientific to post scientific approaches (Murphy, 1992, & 2006)	
1986	The beginning of expansions of preparation programs (more than 500 institutions offered preparation programs in their campuses) (Gross, 2008; Noremore, 2010, Seybert, 2007).
1987	The National Commission on Excellence in Education Administration (NCEEA) was founded to include members of 27 universities (Risius, 2002).

Table 1 Continued

Year	Event
1988	The establishment of the National Policy Board on Educational Administration (NPBEA) through which the reform agenda was produced.
1990	National Commission for Principals funded by NAESP published Principals for Our Changing Schools: Preparation and Certification (NCP, 1990)
1993	NCP produced 21 functional domains related to preparation programs.
1994	Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) was founded by the CCSSO and NPBEA (Gross, 2008; Noremore, 2010, Seybert, 2007). UCEA provided updates of knowledge base in the educational administration preparation programs (Gross, 2008; Noremore, 2010, Seybert, 2007).
1995	The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) developed the first formal guidelines for education administration (Gross, 2008; Noremore, 2010, Seybert, 2007).
1996	The first set of standards for school leaders was established by ISLLC and under the supervision of both CCSSP and NPBEA (Gross, 2008; Noremore, 2010, Seybert, 2007).
2002	Both NCATE and ELCC employed Standards for Advanced Programs to assess the effectiveness of the training programs (Gross, 2008; Noremore, 2010, Seybert, 2007).
2005	NPBEA appointed committees to update both ISLLC Standards and the Standards of Advanced Programs (Gross, 2008; Noremore, 2010, Seybert, 2007).
2006	A revised of ISLLC was delivered for review to NPBEA executive board
2007	NPBEA recommended to revise ELCC Standards (NPEA, 2017)
2008	NPBEA adopted a slightly revised version of ISLLC Standards.
2015	ISLLC standards were revised and replaced by the Professional Standards for Educational Leaders-PSEL (NPBEA, 2017)

The Second Category: State Policies Analyses and Examples

This category was created because the analyzed research included research on policies which passed at the state level in regard to principal preparation; in addition to research on ISLLC and ELCC standards. This category also includes research based on state standards that developed on the basis of ISLLC such as California professional

standards for educational leaders (CPSEL). The analyzed research also included policy standards for principal technology integration.

State policies. Although Anderson and Reynolds (2015) analyzed state-by state principal preparation policies, they did not give more information about the policy history or the policy processing. I found that 30 state policies on principal preparation were comprehensively analyzed in the published literature between 2002 and 2015. For example, Bhatt, Behrstock, Cushing, and Wraight (2010a) indicated that Minnesota passed Minnesota122A.24, and Minnesota 122A.18 which authorize the Minnesota Board of School Administrators to license supervisory Personnel, and Minnesota 122A.27 which establishes alternative preparation licensing for administrators. Similar policies were passed in Iowa (Iowa Admin Code 281-79.17(256)), and Iowa Admin Code 282-13.5-8(272)) (Behrstock, Bhatt, Cushing, & Wraight, 2010a), Ohio (Bhatt, Behrstock, Cushing, & Wraight, 2010b), Wisconsin (Wisc. Admin. Code PI 34.03(1)-(7) (Cushing, Bhatt, Wraight, Behrstock, & Meyer, 2010a), Indiana (Indiana Code 20-20-31) (Meyers, Bhatt, Wraight, Behrstock, & Cushing, 2010b), and Illinois (Illinois Title 23 sections 21-7.10, sections 25.315, and sections 35.30, P.A. 96-0903) (Göncü, Main, Perone, & Tozer, 2014; Meyer,, Bhatt, Wraight, Behrstock, & Cushing, 2010a). Policies were passed to initiate programs for principal preparation programs and licensure. For example, Illinois legislation P.A. 96-0903 requires a school principal to acquire high quality skills; therefore, the state developed a P-12 certificate for school principals and mandated school principal preparation programs to offer curricula that meet students' needs for improvement (Göncü, Main, Perone, & Tozer, 2014).

In the past three decades (1990-present), states witnessed several evolvements in school principals' roles and responsibilities. In 1990, Kentucky enacted the Kentucky Education Reform Act (KERA, House Bill 940) with which, the role of school principals evolved to give greater emphasis on instructional leadership than managerial roles by giving more authority over school issues to local councils (Browne-Ferrigno & Fusarelli, 2005). KERA promoted school decentralization; therefore, a school council was established to be responsible for recruiting the principal who, in turn, help recruit teachers and staff (Clark, 2003).

After making changing in the roles of principals in Kentucky based on KERA (HB 940), No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001 and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) of 2004 was another majors wave of evolution in the roles and responsibilities of principals and brought their responsibilities to the forefront of public education across the nation. Lynch (2012) demonstrated that school principals adopted instructional-based leadership in order to meet the adequate yearly progress (AYP), which was required for schools to receive the federal funding. Prior to the enactment of federal acts such as IDEIA of 2004 and the NCLB of 2001, each principal adopted her/his own theory of the notion of the principalship as related to special needs students (Davis, Leon, & Fultz, 2013). Yet, IDEIA and NCLB addressed the need to prepare school administrators to help provide appropriate education for students with disabilities and students with special needs (Henderson-Black, 2009).

In 2005, North Carolina enacted (HB11) to "Clarify Requirement for School Administrators" (Phillips, 2013a, p. 193) for which North Carolina Department of Public

Instruction (NCDPI) called for ad hoc committee on school leadership and school administration which reported the urgent need to develop state standards align with the world changes (Phillips, 2013a). In 2007, NC legislature enacted (HB 536) that require to adopt new standards which are closely aligned with ISLLCs. Therefore, new standards of university preparation programs *North Carolina School Executive Evaluation Rubric for Pre-service Candidates* were adopted (Phillips, 2013a).

Standards-based reform. Murphy (2001) argued that principal preparation programs are not leadership-oriented. He asserted the urgency to develop standards-based reform regarding administration preparation. Standards-based reform was depicted as the set of standards with which the knowledge of students is determined for each grade level (Rinder, 2007). Therefore, standards-based reform requires principals to reassess their leadership roles in order to ensure that these roles are evolved from managerial roles to more visionary and instructional roles. Standards-based reform was initiated as an attempt to close the achievement gap among students (Rinder, 2007). The standards which have become policy for principal preparation programs are: (a) Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) which established in 1996, revised in 2008, and updated in 2015; and (b) Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) standards (ELCC is currently under revision and renamed as the National Educational Leadership Preparation Standards (NELP).

The Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards. The Council of Chief State School Officers in collaboration in cooperation with the National Policy Board on Educational Administration (NPBEA) has originally developed ISLLC

standards in 1994 to help strengthen and improve preparation programs of school leaders (Jackson & Kelley, 2002; Van Meter & Murphy, 1997) and now they are utilized for all effective leadership programs and practices. At its foundation, ISLLC comprised 24 states, and 11 professional development organizations that included the NPBEA, and the National Alliance of Business (Murphy, 2005; Queen, 2013). The ISLLC standards comprised of 11 main standards that include (a) ensuring the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a child- centered vision of high quality schooling that is shared by all members of the school community; (b) enhancing instructional capacity; (c) promoting instruction that maximizes student learning; (d) promoting robust and meaningful curricula and assessment programs; (e) promoting professionally-normed communities for teachers and other professional staff; (f) ensuring effective and efficient management of the school or district to promote student social and academic learning; (g) promoting communities of engagement for families and other stakeholders in the school's community; (h) adhering to ethical principles and professional norms; (i) ensuring the development of an equitable and culturally responsive school; (j) promoting the development of an inclusive school climate characterized by supportive relationships and a personalized culture of care; and (k) ensuring the development of a culture of continuous school improvement (Georgia Professional Standards Commission, 2015). Currently, The Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards are no longer used and it is revised and merged with the Professional Standards for Educational Leaders (PSEL) which was introduced in 2015 (Prociw & Eberle, 2016).

Murphy (2001) contended that there was a need to develop standards-based administrator preparation programs, (ISLLC) was first developed in 1996 that was sponsored by CCSSO and NPBEA revised and republished in 2008 as demonstrated (English, 2012; George, 2008; Gross, 2008; Hart, 2015; Hogan, 2013; Knuth, 2004; Morrow, 2003; Tareilo, 2004). ISLLC is a set of high-level policy standards on which the performance of a school leader was evaluated (Gross, 2008; Harpin, 2003). In terms of a specific study related to ISLLC, it was found female graduates' knowledge of educational administration covered by ISLLC standards is lower than their male peers (Engler & Edlefson, 2005).

The ISLLC standards of 1996 are widely viewed as valid benchmarks of administrative capacity (Davis, Leon, & Fultz, 2013; Tareilo, 2004) which address six broad standards: (a) vision and learning; (b) culture of teaching and learning; (c) management of learning; (d) relationships with the broader community to foster learning; (e) integrity, fairness, and ethics in learning; and (f) political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context (Follo & Klocko, 2009; Hogan, 2013; Johnson & Uline, 2005; Knuth, 2004; Morrow, 2003). It was noticed that not all standards were weighted equally in the ISLLC standards of 2008 which highlighted the importance of effective management of school operations; collaborating with community members; working effectively with diverse communities; the ability to mobilize community resources, and keeping abreast of political, social, economic, legal, and cultural trends and contexts more than highlighting the criteria of instructional leadership (Davis, Leon, & Fultz, 2013).

Proponents of ISLLC standards argued that communication standards (Standard #4) were effective with which administrators enable to recognize the impact of their beliefs on the relationships with community and stakeholders (Harpin, 2003). On the other hand, the opponents of ISLLC standards did not find evidence out of these standards that school leaders have an impact on the school improvement (Harpin, 2003), but Hess (2003) and English (2000, 2003) argued that ISLLC standards lack the empirical evidence. Murphy (2003) denounced this claim that the ISSLC standards are an empirically-based because they include set of values that go a long way in redefining the field of school administration. They privilege the core technology of business (i.e. learning and teaching) as well as the knowledge about how to develop schools where all youngsters learn well (i.e. school improvement). They acknowledge the critical nature of the political, managerial, and organizational dimensions of the profession, for sure. But, in a break from the past, they link these elements, or put these dynamics, in the service of education – learning, teaching and school improvement (p. 6).

Hart (2015) summarized six critiques and concerns related to ISLLC Standards: (a) the lack of empirical base as some of the performances were supported empirically or scientifically; (b) the standards centered on non-empirical ideals; (c) the standards do not comprehensive and do not cover all issues; (d) the indicators (184) of the standards varied in their details in which some are over-detailed while others are unclear; (e) there are no legitimate areas for performance in the standards, and (f) the over and unnecessary influence of the standards on the profession.

Most states, which adopted ISLLC Standards, developed their own standards based on ISLLCs. Georgia formulated Georgia's Leadership Institute for School Improvement (GLISI) (George, 2008), and Ohio developed Ohio Standards for Principals (Goodney, 2007; Harpin, 2003). In late 2001, Rhode Island Department of Education utilized the State Action for Leadership (SEALP) in order to develop leadership preparation programs under the initiative of "Principals of the 21st Century" (Harpin, 2003). ISLLC Standards were adopted in Ohio; however, it was proven that they are less likely influence the recruitment and selection decision (Goodney, 2007).

Examples of the standards: California professional standards for educational leaders (CPSEL). In response to the ISLLC standards, many states adopted ISLLCs. For example, California developed their own professional standards on the basis of ISLLCs. California passed a policy of new standards entitled the California Professional Standards for Educational Leadership (CPSELs) (Barton, 2013; Kearney, 2005, Rigby, 2012). Barton (2013) surveyed and analyzed principal responses regarding to the six standards in the CPSEL standards that centered on building the capacities of school leaders including:

> (a) development, articulation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by all stakeholder; (b) advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth; (c) ensuring management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment; (d) collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse

> community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources; (e) acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner, and (f) understanding, responding to, and influencing the political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context. (p. 96)

It was found that there were significant differences in the knowledge as well as perceptions of principals based on the total years of professional experience and degree of change (Barton, 2013; Barton & Cox, 2012).

Table 2 shows the changes have been made overtime in ISLLC Standards. The focus of the first ISLLC Standards (1996) was school administrators in which the word leader has not been utilized but appeared in the second version of 2008. The emphasis of the importance of leadership appeared with the beginning of the twenty-first century and led to emphasize the role of school administrator as a school leader. Therefore, the word *school administrator* in ISLLC Standards of 1996 was replaced with *educational leader* in ISLLCs of 2008. This emphasis continued during the second decade of the twenty-first century with more attention to leaders' efficacy. Therefore, the third version of ISLLC is the Professional Standards for Educational Leaders (PSEL) of 2015 (Prociw & Eberle, 2016) which developed with an emphasis on leadership efficacy. With the changes in the ISLLC standards, the indicators of each standard changed accordingly.

Table 2

The ISLLC Standards (1996, 2008, and 2015)

Standards	ISLLC 1996	ISLLC 2008	PSEL 2015
Standard 1	A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community.	An education leader promotes the success of every student by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by all stakeholders.	Effective educational leaders develop, advocate, and enact a shared mission, vision, and core values of high-quality education and academic success and well-being of *each* student.
Standard 2	A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.	An education leader promotes the success of every student by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.	Effective educational leaders act ethically and according to professional norms to promote *each* student's academic success and well-being.
Standard 3	A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.	An education leader promotes the success of every student by ensuring management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.	Effective educational leaders strive for equity of educational opportunity and culturally responsive practices to promote *each* student's academic success and well-being.

Table 2 Continued

Standards	ISLLC 1996 (Murphy, 1999)	ISLLC 2008	PSEL 2015
Standard 4	A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.	An education leader promotes the success of every student by collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.	Effective educational leaders develop and support intellectually rigorous and coherent systems of curriculum, instruction, and assessment to promote *each* student's academic success and well-being.
Standard 5	A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner	An education leader promotes the success of every student by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.	Effective educational leaders cultivate an inclusive, caring, and supportive school community that promotes the academic success and well-being of *each* student.
Standard 6	A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context.	An education leader promotes the success of every student by understanding, responding to, and influencing the political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context.	Effective educational leaders develop the professional capacity and practice of school personnel to promote *each* student's academic success and well-being.

Source: ISLLC Standards 1996 (Florida Department of Education and Murphy, 1999)

Source: ISLLC Standards 2008 and 2015 (Georgia Professional Standards Commission)

Educational leadership constituent council (ELCC) standards. ELCC Standards was developed in 2002 and being retired in 2008 as soon as of ISLLC standards have been approved. Currently, ELCC standards are under revision and renamed as National Educational Leadership Preparation Standards (NELP). In 2002, ELCC developed ELCC standards with the cooperation of the American Association of School Administrators (AASA), Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD), National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP), and the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) (Riker, 2007). Based on ELCC standards of 2002, Graduate candidates of the principal programs are expected to acquire the knowledge of: (a) ethical and professional leadership; (b) evaluation and assessment management; (c) curriculum and instruction; (d) organizational as well as technology management; (e) financial and human resource management; and (f) interpersonal as well as community relationships (Riker, 2007).

The updated version of ELCC of 2011 comprehensively identified seven standards with which each graduate candidate should meet: (a) vision development, articulation, data-base goal building, and promotion; (b) culture of learning; (c) organization management; (d) effective communication with communities and families; (e) promote ethics, fairness, and integrity; (f) understand and respond to the larger context; and (g) sustain standards-based reform (Riker, 2007). ELCC standards of 2011 was more rigorous than its first version ELCC standards of 2002. The first change in ELCC of 2011 was the definition of the candidate as s/he was defined as *Building-level education* leaders instead of using the word *Candidate*. In ELCC of 2011, completion

the program is not an indicator of being an education leader as in ELCC of 2002 but applying the knowledge to promote student success through collaborative work between school members, district representative, and stakeholders became the indicator instead. It is shown in Table 3 the comparison between ELCC standards of 2002 and its update of 2011 which indicates, for example, the focus of Standard 2 of ELCC 2002 was promoting positive school culture. The word "*Positive school culture*" is broad and can be interpreted relatively. Yet, in ELCC 2011, Standard 2 was clearly identified by school culture indicators "by sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning through collaboration, trust, and a personalized learning environment with high expectations for students; creating and evaluating a comprehensive, rigorous and coherent curricular and instructional school program; developing and supervising the instructional and leadership capacity of school staff; and promoting the most effective and appropriate technologies to support teaching and learning within a school environment" (NCPEA, 2011, p.9).

Table 3

Comparison between the ELCC Standards of 2002 and the Update of 2011

Standards	ELCC 2002	ELCC 2011
Standard 1	Candidates who complete the program are educational leaders who have the knowledge and ability to promote the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a school or district vision of learning supported by the school community	A building-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by collaboratively facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a shared school vision of learning through the collection and use of data to identify school goals, assess organizational effectiveness, and implement school plans to achieve school goals; promotion of continual and sustainable school improvement; and evaluation of school progress and revision of school plans supported by school-based stakeholders.
Standard 2	Candidates who complete the program are educational leaders who have the knowledge and ability to promote the success of all students by promoting a positive school culture, providing an effective instructional program, applying best practice to student learning, and designing comprehensive professional growth plans for staff.	A building-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning through collaboration, trust, and a personalized learning environment with high expectations for students; creating and evaluating a comprehensive, rigorous and coherent curricular and instructional school program; developing and supervising the instructional and leadership capacity of school staff; and promoting the most effective and appropriate technologies to support teaching and learning within a school environment.

Table 3 Continued

Standards	ELCC 2002	ELCC 2011
Standard 3	Candidates who complete the program are educational leaders who have the knowledge and ability to promote the success of all students by managing the organization, operations, and resources in a way that promotes a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.	A building-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by ensuring the management of the school organization, operation, and resources through monitoring and evaluating the school management and operational systems; efficiently using human, fiscal, and technological resources in a school environment; promoting and protecting the welfare and safety of school students and staff; developing school capacity for distributed leadership; and ensuring that teacher and organizational time is focused to support high-quality instruction and student learning.
Standard 4	Candidates who complete the program are educational leaders who have the knowledge and ability to promote the success of all students by collaborating with families and other community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.	A building-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources on behalf of the school by collecting and analyzing information pertinent to improvement of the school's educational environment; promoting an understanding, appreciation, and use of the diverse cultural, social, and intellectual resources within the school community; building and sustaining positive school relationships with families and caregivers; and cultivating productive school relationships with community partners.

Table 3 Continued

Standards	ELCC 2002	ELCC 2011
Standard 5	Candidates who complete the program are educational leaders who have the knowledge and ability to promote the success of all students by acting with integrity, fairly, and in an ethical manner.	A building-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner to ensure a school system of accountability for every student's academic and social success by modeling school principles of self-awareness, reflective practice, transparency, and ethical behavior as related to their roles within the school; safeguarding the values of democracy, equity, and diversity within the school; evaluating the potential moral and legal consequences of decision making in the school; and promoting social justice within the school to ensure that individual student needs inform all aspects of schooling.
Standard 6	Candidates who complete the program are educational leaders who have the knowledge and ability to promote the success of all students by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context.	A building-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context through advocating for school students, families, and caregivers; acting to influence local, district, state, and national decisions affecting student learning in a school environment; and anticipating and assessing emerging trends and initiatives in order to adapt school-based leadership strategies.

Table 3 Continued

Standards	ELCC 2002	ELCC 2011
Standard 7	Internship. The internship provides significant opportunities for candidates to synthesize and apply the knowledge and practice and develop the skills identified in Standards 1-6 through substantial, sustained, standards-based work in real settings, planned and guided cooperatively by the institution and school district personnel for graduate credit.	A building-level education leader applies knowledge that promotes the success of every student through a substantial and sustained educational leadership internship experience that has school-based field experiences and clinical internship practice within a school setting and is monitored by a qualified, on-site mentor.

Source of ELCC 2002: The National Policy Board for Educational Administration http://www.npbea.org/ELCC/ELCCStandards%20_5-02.pdf.
Source of 2011: The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education http://www.ncate.org/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=zRZI73R0nOQ

***Policies and standards for principals and technology integration*.** Lenk and Shirley (2015) analyzed 29 state standards regarding the improvement of the technology integration knowledge of school principals. In Table 4, I summarized their findings as Lenk and Shirley identified ten standards of principals' competence of technology integrations as shown in Table 4. In Table 5, I summarized the results of Lenk and Shirley. I have referred to the indicator that is met with (1) and the indicator that is not met with (0). Lenk and Shirley found that most of the states (21 states) have met indicator A in standard three which emphasized that the school principals practice their roles as instructional leaders and provide teachers with various support. On the other hand, Lenk and Shirley argued that none of the state policies they analyzed met indicator A of standard four which indicates that principals use technology to support their leadership practices.

Based on Table 5, Lenk and Shirley (2015) found that both South Carolina and Virginia have met all of the indicators except for two indicators (as highlighted in green). South Carolina did not meet Standard One Indicator A which measure the school principal collaboration with stakeholders to create school vision. In addition, it did not meet Standard Three Indicator 4A which measure how principal preparation programs, leading to certification, include instructional technology coursework. Virginia did not meet indicator C which measure the school principal awareness of the relationship between school culture. Following South Carolina and Virginia, Lenk and Shirley found that Arkansas, Indiana, Ohio, Oklahoma did not meet most of the indicators except one at most (as highlighted in red).

Table 4

The Standards of the Competence of Principals to Integrate Technology

Standard	Indicator	Indicator Content
Standard One	Indicator A	School principals collaborate with stakeholders to create and communicate a vision for the use of technology to support learning
	Indicator B	School principals create and articulate a strategic plan focused on learning and teaching using technology
	Indicator C	School principals understand the relationship among school culture, trends in technology and academic achievement when transforming the learning environment
Standard Two	Indicator A	Effective School principals engage the public to ensure technology-focused educational practices align with 21st century skills needed in the workforce
	Indicator B	School principals foster partnerships with people in businesses and institutions of higher learning to inform instructional practices that focus on technology skills needed by students in the 21st century
Standard Three	Indicator A	School principals provide teachers with differentiated support, examples of best practices, and advocacy for the use of technology as an instructional tool
	Indicator B	School principals assess technology integration skills of teachers and provide feedback for teachers that help them incorporate instructional technology across curricular areas
	Indicator C	School principals ensure all students have equitable access to technology in order to support them to learn digital age skills and use technology in a meaningful way
	Indicator D	School principals use technology to support their management functions including: communication, day-to-day operations, and the collection and analysis of data to improve teaching and learning
Standard Four	Indicator A	Principal preparation programs, leading to certification, include instructional technology coursework

Table 5

State by State Standards of Principals' Knowledge of Technology Integration

State	Indicators									
	1A	1B	1C	2A	2B	3A	3B	3C	3D	4A
AL	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0
AK	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
AZ	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
AR	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
CA	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0
CT	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0
FL	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
IL	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0
IN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
KY	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0
LA	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
MD	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0
MI	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0
MN	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0
MS	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
NE	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
NJ	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
NC	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
OH	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
OK	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
OR	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0
SC	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0
TX	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
UT	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
VT	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0
VA	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0
WV	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
WI	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0

Third Category: Principal Preparation Programs and Licensure

Program licensure. Most states (except for Colorado, Michigan, South Dakota, and Florida) mandate those who apply for principalship to priory acquire a license or a certification including two major standards to be met (a) the minimum number of years of teaching experience, and (b) the graduate education (Harrington & Wills, 2005). Adams and Copland (2005) examined the 50 states licensing programs and argued that (a) most licenses do not reflect a learning focus; (b) the requirements for the licenses are unbalanced across states and do not align with ambitions for school leaders, and (c) the licenses became the major factor that prove of school leadership development (Brewster, 2015).

In response to adopting ISLLC Standards, Kentucky legislature required the universities to redesign their principal preparation programs to meet ISLLC standards (Browne-Ferrigno, 2013; Murphy, 2003). The three-levels certifications of the states were replaced with one (the Professional Certificate for Instructional Leadership). Further, the former requirements include a graduate degree in education and the 3-years full-time experience were placed by a mandatory Master degree in school administration. It was allowed to novice teachers to enroll in the administrator preparation programs when they complete the mandated internship programs during the first year of teaching service (Browne-Ferrigno, 2013).

In response to its adoption of ISLLCs, Iowa Department of Education required all institutions to provide principal licensing to offer new programs aligned with ISLLCs and emphasized student learning, diversity, and program quality (Hackmann & Wanat,

2007). Similarly, North Carolina legislation (HB 356) of 2007 mandated all state universities (17 universities) which certified to offer and deliver education leadership preparation programs to review their Master programs and to ensure they are align with the new standards (a, 2013).

University-based programs. Although many states have adopted the ISLLC standards, which updated in 2015 to be Professional Standards for Educational Leaders (PSEL), as a guideline for effective principal performance, it is important to note that the requirements of university-based principal preparation programs are dictated by state and national prerequisites; therefore, the blame for poor school leadership performance cannot solely be placed with the universities or with school administrators (Burks, 2014). There were 12 University programs that were noted in the literature as related to policy issues.

North-central University (NCU) offers online 36-credit hours M.Ed degree Master of Education with a specialization in PK-12 Principal Leadership that aligns with state and national policy standards including ISLLCs., TEACs, and the Arizona Professional Administrative Standards (Guillaume & Vitucci, 2015).

Upon enacting North Carolina legislation (HB 536), all universities reviewed and redesigned new Master education leadership programs that align with the ISLLCs. New LEED-MSA degree program was one of the redesigned degrees which offered 36 full-time credit hours and internship (Phillips, 2013a).

Phillips (2013b) demonstrated the change in the university leadership program degrees during the redesign phase and gave example of universities in Alabama,

Kentucky, North Carolina, Florida, and New Jersey varied in their response. Auburn University agreed to postpone a 2-year program during the redesign phase, then, it provided a 4-semester fixed block schedule (33 credit hrs.) for certification. The University of Kentucky created a new Masters of Teacher Leadership program (6-semester of 36 credit hrs. certification in a hybrid delivery), stopped the Masters of School Administration program, and redesigned the Doctor of Education (Ed. D) program to include principal preparation majors. East North Carolina University illustrated state-level educational leadership preparation program reform and redesigned its leadership programs accordingly (42 credit hrs. certification including 15 credit hrs. internship). Florida Atlantic University offered a certification that includes 5-senmester sequence and internship. Rowan University offered Master programs of school leadership that operated by the College of Graduate and Continuing Education with support of a third-party contractor.

Danforth Foundation Program supported three preparation programs in three campuses: (a) the University of Washington that offered UW Danforth Educational Leadership Program (36 credit hrs.); (b) the East Tennessee State University that offered the administrative endorsement program (36 credit hrs.), and (c) the California State University in which Fresno principal preparation program (24 credit hrs.) was offered (Jackson & Kelley, 2002).

IDEAS is another program that is offered in the University of Louisville (18 credit hrs. for post-M.S. or 30 credit hrs. with M.S. including 9 credit hrs. in IDEAS cohort), Wichita State University (2-years program), and San Antonio Region 20

Educational Center (informal education that is non-university-based) (Jackson & Kelley, 2002). Researchers analyzed examples of the preparation programs as illustrated in Table 6.

Table 6

Examples of the Preparation Programs

University	Program Type	Credit hours
North Carolina University	M.Ed (online)	36 credit hours
Auburn University	M.Ed.	33 credit hours (4 semesters)
University of Kentucky	M.Ed. of Teacher Leadership	36 credit hours (6 semesters)
East North Carolina University	M.Ed.	42 credit hours
Florida Atlantic University	M.Ed.	36 credit hours (5 semesters)
Rowan University	M.Ed. (online)	33-36 credit hours (4 semester)
University of Washington	M.Ed.	36 credit hours
East Tennessee State University	M.Ed.	36 credit hours
California State University	M.Ed.	24 credit hours
University of Louisville	M.Ed.	30 credit hours
Wichita State University	M.Ed.	36 credit hours

District-based programs. State certification are no longer required in both Michigan and South Dakota because the responsibility of licensing and hiring school principals was given completely to the district (Herrington & Wills, 2005). As an attempt to embrace recruiting school leaders, the School District of Escambia in Florida has established a district-based preparation program Escambia Principal Preparation Program (EPPP). The purpose of EPPP was to prepare prospective administrators' candidates for principal certification. Some of the EPPP requirements were having: (a) five years teaching experience; (b) Master degree; and (c) Florida Certification in Educational Leadership or Administration and Supervision (EPPP, 2016).

Principal preparation program evaluation. Since the beginning of the third millennium, instructional leadership was controversial in the program preparation. A growing body of research addressed that principal preparation programs are inadequate particularly in special education of rural regions (Lasky & Karge, 2006; Lynch, 2012; McHatton, Boyer, Shaunessy, Terry, & Farmer, 2010). Hess and Kelly (2007) found that preparation programs failed to provide principals with the adequate skills to encounter the accountability system challenges when they stated, "Because preparation of principals has not kept pace with changes in the larger world of schooling, graduates of principal- preparation programs have been left ill- equipped for the challenges and opportunities posed by an era of accountability" (p. 40).

Another critique for the preparation programs addressed that those programs failed to prepare their graduates to be instructional leaders (Goodney, 2007; Lasky & Karge, 2006; Lynch, 2012; McHatton, Boyer, Shaunessy & Terry, 2010). Markson (2014) argued that ISLLC standards do not reflect the relationship between the coursework and the internship of principal preparation programs. It was assumed that the school administrator programs would raise the knowledge level of graduates, but researchers, such as English (2006). have illustrated that the knowledge is not changing or even getting lower. Therefore, English (2006) demonstrated the need for political action in accreditation and licensing processes.

Alternative principal program licensing policies. Herrington and Wills (2005) summarized four factors because of which there was a need for alternatives to principal licensure: (a) the shortage of quality candidate; (b) the change in the role of the school

principal; (c) the increase of the state influence on school administration, and (d) the new public management. Although most of the states (48 states) require principal candidates to acquire license or a certification prior to applying for principalship, some states (18 states) offer and consider alternative licensure. Yet, some states including Massachusetts, Minnesota, and Tennessee have policies that allow alternative licensure but they never utilized them (Herrington & Wills, 2005).

Fourth Category: Clinically-Rich Internships

Field-based experience is the major opportunity with which preparation program students learn school administration processing while doing (Orr, 2011; Williamson & Hudson, 2001). Providing principal preparation internship programs with high quality has been controversial and major concern since 1980s. NPBEA in 1989 addressed a decline in the quality of the principal preparation programs (Engler & Edlefson, 2005). The literature includes the significance of field-based experience (internship) in preparing principals; however, most principals' interns reported inadequate internship programs (Davis & Daling-Hammond, 2012). For instance, some programs asked their students to select the school in which they have teaching experience. This requirement is challenging for those students because they found themselves are required to complete their internship in their own schools with their own school principals (Williamson & Hudson, 2001). Williamson and Hudson (2001) noted that the internship should not only be a practice to handle a *day-to-day* school administrative activities but also should help interns reflect the personal development growth as leaders.

The internship requirements varied from one preparation program to another, but all programs have common requirements. Davis and Darling-Hammond (2012) noted that clinically rich internship should have an emphasis on experiences, course integration, and university-district partnerships. Based on the literature, the common requirements for clinically rich internship include (a) deliberate structure internship (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, & Cohen, 2007); (b) integration with coursework and curricula (Militello, Gajda, & Bowers, 2009; Murphy, Moorman, McCarthy, 2008); (c) problem-based and problem-solving instruction (Davis & Daling-Hammond, 2012; (d) dynamic university-district partnership (Lashway, 2003); and (e) the minimum number of the field-based experience would be 100 hours which are implemented in a year span (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015).

Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of this systematic review was to explore critically what was found in the literature regarding principal preparation policies of the United States. Therefore, the focus on the inclusion criteria was to explore all documents discuss and analyzed this issue since the enactment of NCLB.

Based on the findings, the first research question was answered. The literature included 121 articles, book chapters, dissertation, and academic documents, which examined the state policies regarding to principal preparation programs and licensure. Murphy (2006) created a chronological era model to outline how the standards and the programs were designed and adopted. Murphy started with building the ideology of principals to developing the principals' perspective to creating their professional agenda

and reached the era of dialectic. Unlike Murphy, Cox (2007), Gross (2008) Normore (2010), and Seybert (2007) tracked chronically the history of the principal preparation. The two methods of developing historical overviews of principal preparation but these overviews does not give more details about the development of the programs at the university level. In addition, researchers such as Bhatt, Behrstock, Cushing, and Wraight addressed state licensure policies and found many states, such as Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin, have developed policies that regulate the licensure. These policies have similarities in the content as shown in Table 7. These policies authorized the state board of school administrator to license and establish licensure programs. The analysis of state policies demonstrated that some states, such as Kentucky, have detailed policies describing the roles and responsibilities of the school administrators while many others does not have such comprehensive policies.

Table 7

Licensure State Policies

Policy Content	Policy Enacted
Authorizing the state board of school administrators to license supervisory personnel	Minnesota 122A.24, Minnesota 122A.18, Minnesota 122A.27, Iowa Admin Code 281-79.17(256), Iowa Admin Code 282-13.5-8(272 Ohio 212A.22
Establish alternative preparation licensing for administrators	Wisconsin (Wisc. Admin. Code PI 34.03(1)-(7) Indiana (Indiana Code 20-20-31) Illinois (Illinois Title 23 sections 21-7.10, sections 25.315, and sections 35.30, P.A. 96-0903)

Principal preparation programs were controversial. Murphy (2001) claimed that the focus of principal preparation programs is on increasing the recruitments than on increasing the leadership capacities of preparation program participants. Hess and Kelly

(2007) argued that the current school accountability system gave more opportunities for principal leadership. Regarding to the preparation course content, Hess and Kelly (2005) analyzed 56 preparation programs and found that only 2% of the content addressed accountability in school context.

For admission processing, the state does not develop certain criteria of the applicant selections to the programs. Unfortunately, in most cases, states do not require school administrator programs to apply rigorous selection criteria in the admission process. Tennessee State Board of Education, Learning, Centered Leadership Policy enacted 5.101policy, which adopted in 2011 and revised in 2017, was which: (a) included a specific plan for recruitment and selection; and (b) employed performance-based assessment. Tennessee was the only state which has a policy that specify the recruitment process (Tennessee State Government, 2015). Iowa, Pennsylvania, Alabama, and West Virginia have recruitment policies that focused only on employing the performance-based assessment in the recruitment plan (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015). The remaining states did not have specific policies to regulate the recruitment plan but the recruitment became the university own issue. Letting the universities develop their own recruitment plans without influence from the state results gave more freedom to the university to develop their own recruitment plan. The absence of the state guidance on recruitment potential would have negative influence because the university might create easy entry to the preparation programs to the number of graduate without putting greater account on the qualification of those applicants.

The ISLLC standards and all followed standards adopted six areas: (a) school vision; (b) instructional leadership; (c) administrative competencies; (d) ethics; (e) family and community engagements; and (e) equity. However, the researchersdid not provide much information related to addressing the strategies to be adopted to advance the capacities of future, novice, and experienced administrators.

Technology-based school management was one of the major challenges that both novice and experienced school administrators encounter. Lenk and Shirley (2015) analyzed the standards of most states that are related to technology integration in the school management and found a big gap in this regard in most of the state standards and school administrator requirements.

CHAPTER III

PRINCIPAL PREPARATION POLICY DIFFERENCES AMONG STATES DESIGNATED AS HAVING HIGH LEVERAGE OR LOW-LEVERAGE POLICIES

Introduction

Preparing future leaders has become the mantra of education reform by which the school leaders are more likely achieve school growth and student achievement improvement (Andrews, & Soder, 1987; Greb, 2011). An emergent area of research has provided evidence that student achievement is indirectly correlates to principal leadership (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003). In their meta-analysis study, Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) argued that there is a substantial relationship between students' achievements and the type of leadership school leaders adopted. Therefore, they claimed for a rigorous preparation programs to build the competencies of the future leaders. In order to respond to the claim presented by Waters et al. (2003), Orr (2010) surveyed 471 novice principals whose experience is between zero to three years and who graduated from 17 universities (between 2004 and 2007) exploring their principal preparation experience. She utilized a survey developed by University Continuing Education Association Learning and Teaching in Educational Leadership Special Interest Group Taskforce on Evaluating Leadership Preparation Programs and found that these programs serve predominantly White females who gave a good rating to the program core features including the internship.

As Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) emphasized the indirect influence of principal leadership on students' achievement, a growing body of research explained this

indirect relationship when they addressed that the principals focus on the internal processes and practices, school-community relationship, school environment, professional; community, and resources allocation management (Andrews & Soder, 1987; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Kormaz, 2007; Leithwood, Louis, Wahlstrom, Anderson, Mascall, & Gordon, 2010). Butler (2008) and Lashway (2003) reported a survey conducted by Public Agenda, a non-profit research organization, that found that more than 65% of the surveyed principals found that the principal preparation programs graduates were not acquiring the tools that principalship needed to actively lead schools. In addition, Norton (2002) reported that Michelle Young, the executive director of the UCEA, conceded that the change in the university preparation program was slow.

The scrutiny of school leadership prevailed in education policy at all levels including federal, state, and university levels. Therefore, several state policies and federal policies such as No Child Left Behind (2001) require implementing accountability systems connecting the school leadership to students' outcomes. Finnigan (2010) found that school leadership and policy, as well as resource allocation, directly correlate with students' outcomes. These accountability systems paid attention to the leadership practices of in-service leaders while little attention is paid to the pre-service leaders.

The purpose of developing principal preparation policies was to improve the preparation programs which would motive more potential prospective leaders to apply for principal programs. Scholars such as Marguerite Roza (2003) and Cusick (2003) emphasized that there was a shortage in the number of school principals. Although there

was a shortage of the number of in-service principals, in general, the contribution of underrepresented groups in principalship is increasing. Female principals of non-majority ethnic groups are increasing. Based on 2016 report of the National Center for Education Statistics, the current female contribution rates in principalship doubled from 25% in 1987-88 to be 52% in 2011-12 (Hill, Ottem, & DeRoche, 2016). The same report further included the decrease of the number of White principals and an increase in the Hispanic principals at public schools, while the African American principals increased significantly in private schools. Nonetheless, the majority of the students in principal preparation programs are both female and White (Hill, Ottem, & DeRoche, 2016; Orr, 2010).

In order to increase the number of well-prepared principals, higher education institutions, school boards, school districts and non-profit organizations focused on principal preparation program reform. The four of those institutions across the nation made observable efforts to develop leadership programs but few of these programs demonstrated a direct effect on student achievement (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, & Orr, 2007; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Furman, 2012; Hess & Kelly, 2007; King, 2013). Universities are typically the first doors on which prospective principals knock. The need for efficient university-based principal preparation programs becomes inevitable to respond to the complication of the current accountability systems. NCLB (2001) waivers require skilful well-equipped school leaders because NCLB waivers are linked their performance to the student achievement (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015; Butler, 2008). Therefore, the option of

developing high quality principal preparation programs that meet the accountability requirements and future leaders' expectations becomes a pressure point that both public and private universities are facing.

The second type of institutions that has focused on principal reparation reform was the education boards. The Atlanta-based Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) was an example which identified 11 critical success factors that affect principal leadership: (a) create school mission; (b) set high expectations mainly high student achievement; (c) adopt instructional leadership; (d) create healthy school environment; (e) make data oriented decisions; (f) focus; (g) involve family; (h) respect change and welcome new information; (i) promote professional development; (j) mange resources; and (k) welcome support (Butler (2008). Therefore, SREB recommended to include these factors in the university-based preparation programs as skills that the future leaders need to acquire.

School districts represented the third type of institutions offering professional development programs for in-service principals but few of them offer programs for pre-service principals (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). The increase of the political awareness of the importance of preparing school leaders, districts like Jefferson County (KY) and New York City Public School districts are offering introductory principal preparation programs to teachers interested in principalship (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005).

Non-profit organizations represent the fourth type of institutions that helped reform principal preparation. For example, the Wallace Foundation is an example of

non-profit Organization, which designed a Quality Measures Logic Rubric with which a school district and program providers can assess the quality of the program (King, 2013). The Wallace Foundation allocated $47 million as grants for improving university principal preparation programs. In March 2016, the winning proposals announced, seven universities that includes Albany State in Georgia, Florida Atlantic, North Carolina State, San Diego State, the University of Connecticut, Virginia State, and Western Kentucky (Wallace Foundation, 2016).

The efforts provided by higher education, school boards, school districts and non-profit organizations attempted to heal the problem of the shortage of the number of the leaders who occupy the principal positions. The literature revealed that the reasons of this shortage was because of the complications of job which consumes longer working hours than other administrative jobs plus the lack of aspiration towards principalship (Malone, Nelson, & Van Nelson, 2001; McAdams, 1998; NASSP, 2002; Winter, Rinehart, & Muñoz, 2002; Tucker & Codding, 2003; Winter, Rinehart, & Munoz, 2001). Principals leave their positions every year through retiring, transferring to other schools, or accepting other work. Therefore, about 20% of principals in 2011–12 left their school by 2012–13 (Goldring & Taie 2014).

On the heels of this challenge, state education departments across the nation developed guidelines to help universities create programs that meet school requirements. For example, Pennsylvania Department of Education developed principal preparation programs guideline which linked the requirements to the core standards (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2016) which includes: (a) standards-based program; (b)

student achievement-based leadership; (c) focus; (d) university-district partnership; (e) clinically rich internship; (f) program oversight (coursework, faculty, mentors); careful selection; and (g) instructional leadership (PDE, 2013).

Consistent with the efforts made by the state education departments, the University Council for Educational Administration published a recent report in 2015 analyzing state-by-state policies related to principal preparation program approval and licensure (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015). In this report, Erin Anderson and Amy Reynolds employed research-based rubric with which a policy analyzed based on its response to four criteria for preparation program approval: (a) explicit selection process; (b) program standards; (c) program structure; and (d) program oversight and three criteria for candidate licensure: (a) experience requirements; (b) assessment requirements; and (c) licensure renewal. The scores determined if the state have a high leverage policy or low leverage policy. Anderson and Reynolds (2015) found a very limited number of states have developed high leverage policies (seven states), while the majority have developed low leverage policies which meet very few or even none of the selected criteria. Inspired by this report, I examined empirically the differences between the university policies in the two groups regarding to the admission, university-district partnership, internship, and course content integration of preparation policies.

Literature Review

Principal Preparation Programs

Program evaluation was a major demand to measure the success of a program. In its report, the United States Department of Education (2009) addressed that the federal

programs such as Race to the Top (RTT) emphasized the importance of principal leadership and the need for principal evaluation. Tucker and Codding (2003) claimed that there was a need to develop policies that focus on principal leadership and principal evaluation. At the university level, principal preparation programs were designed mainly to prepare the future school leaders to meet the accountability systems requirements (Hess & Kelly, 2007); therefore, the program structure proposed to meet the requirements of education standards (Hess & Kelly, 2007). The program structure included internship as a major requirement of the preparation program. A considerable array of scholars (e.g. Darling-Hammond, 2007; Davis, Darling-Hammond, 2012; Lashway, 2003; Orr, 2006) indicated that effective principal preparation program integrates the coursework with the field-based experience (clinically rich internship).

Although the integration between the coursework and the internship was necessary for completing the preparation program, the content of the coursework was controversial. Hess and Kelly (2007) surveyed 56 programs and collected 210 syllabi from 31 programs in order to examine whether the future principals are well equipped to lead. They systematically analyzed the syllabi and found the practice on data, research, and technology provided the principal preparation programs are limited and not equivalently meet the sophisticated accountability systems that they would meet when they become in service.

Factors Affect the University-Based Programs

A growing body of research includes factors that affect the quality of university-based preparation programs. Orr (2010), as well as Malone and Caddell (2000), found

structured instructional leadership and clinically rich internship are more likely shape the quality of the program, while Davis and Jazzar (2005) added program oversight, research-based decision-making, and mentoring to those two aforementioned features. In order to comprehend the factors that affect the enrollment in the university-based principal preparation programs, Hancock Black, and Bird (2006) found four factors motivate teachers to enroll in the preparation programs. First motivator was challenge because teachers experience personal and professional challenge. Second motivator was altruism because teachers who apply for the preparation programs believe in their abilities to make changes in their schools (Hancock, Black, & Bird, 2006). Third motivator was personal and professional gains because teachers gains personal and professional benefits when they receive the degree with which they would be able to increase compensation, to get positional advancement, and to enhance their prestige and status (Hancock, Black, & Bird, 2006). The final motivator was leadership influence because teachers believe by getting the principal preparation degree, they will gain the skills with which they will induce the improvement at the school as a whole (Hancock Black, & Bird, 2006).

In the past three decades, university-enacted policies targeted the expansion of principal programs to attract more educators. Lauder (2000) listed five polices most universities adopted. First admission requirements that align with principalship demands and which should examine the skills of the potential leaders to ensure their ability to transfer the gained knowledge into practice at their schools. Second, the preparation programs should be aligned with the 21domains presented by the National Policy Board

for Educational Administration (NPBEA) (Erlandson, 1997; Thomason, 1993). Third, field-based experience should help students enrich their skills through application (Erlandson, 1994). Fourth, preparation programs need a formal and informal comprehensive assessment (Lauder, 2000). Finally, based on the adult learning theories of Knowles, Lauder argued that cohort model would be the best practice for principal preparation programs because students, who are teachers at the same time and who are teaching in their isolated classrooms, need to collaborate with other adults during their learning process.

Summary of the UCEA Report of 2015

Anderson and Reynolds (2015) co-authored the UCEA report entitled *A Policymaker's Guide* based of which they classified states to states with high and states with low leverage policies. The results of this report illustrated two main findings: (a) only seven states are considered states with high leverage principal preparation policies including (their scores are 80% or above) including Tennessee, Illinois, Kentucky, Virginia, Iowa, Pennsylvania, and Alabama; and (b) 11 states are considered states with low leverage policies (their scores are 30% or below) including Florida, Texas, District of Colombia, South Dakota, Indiana, Michigan, Nebraska, Ohio, Hawaii, Oklahoma, and Wyoming. Those two main findings illustrated that most of the states have not a significant policy or even does not have any on to principal preparation program approval. These findings paid attention to another question about the evaluation of the university policy or policies regarding to the principal preparation.

Increasing scrutiny of the effectiveness of the university-based preparation programs shows that the relationship between the quality of state policy is either not strong or even indirect. The UCEA report conceded that the majority of the state policies regarding preparation programs are at low impact level (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015), while the analysis of programs in those states shows higher satisfaction levels among the principals who enrolled on them (Orr, 2010).

Using specific criteria as shown in Appendix D, Anderson and Reynolds (2015) examined the principal preparation state policies in regard of five factors: (a) admission; (b) standards; (c) internship; (d) university-district partnership; and (e) program oversight. For admission and recruitment policies, they found the preparation policy of the state of Tennessee was the only ones that met the admission policy criteria. For Internship, they found that Iowa, Massachusetts, Minnesota, and Virginia met the internship policy criteria. For partnership with districts, Alabama, California, Illinois, Kentucky, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia state policies met the criteria. For the program oversight criteria, 50% states have met the criteria while Arkansas, Alabama, Hawaii, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Carolina, Utah, and Wyoming did not meet any of the program oversight criteria. Anderson and Reynolds (2015) concluded that preparation policies of the state of Tennessee was the only policies which met all of the criteria while the preparation policies of Illinois, Kentucky, Virginia, Iowa, Pennsylvania, and Alabama met most of the criteria.

The Dimensions of the Principal Preparation Programs

Leadership preparation became the keyword for leadership quality improvement which the policymakers, researchers and educators attempt to understand the influence of the principal preparation programs (Orphanos & Orr, 2014). Principal preparation state policies varied from a state to another, but the common factors included the selection, standards, internship, university-district partnership, and program oversight. The literature indicated that state policy has a direct and/or indirect influence on university policies related to university-based preparation programs. University policies also designated to include the same pillars as state policies. In addition to the university policy pillars, university location has an influence on the university admission policy while the university size influences the program standards. In the UCEA report, there were five dimensions of the analysis: (a) admission and recruitment; (b) standards; (c) clinically rich internship; (d) university-district partnership; and (e) program oversight.

Admission and recruitment policies. Recruitment and admission policies are a set of criteria by which students to the preparation program recruited. In order to fulfil the goal of preparing qualified future school leaders, a growing body of literature indicates there was an emphasis on the recruitment process for leadership programs (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Jackson & Kelly, 2002; Lauder, 2000). Researchers in the early of the third millennium argued that the recruitment process was not discernible that focuses more on the performance than the traditional methods, so, a broader array of scholars promoted the performance-based assessment on the recruitment process (Browne-Ferrigno, & Muth, 2009; Murphy, Moorman, & McCarthy, 2008). Murphy

(1999) promoted to the assumption that principal preparation program chairs were improving; but Browne-Ferrigno & Shoho, 2001disagreed with Murphy's assumption and strongly criticized the low standards of recruitment and admission and they called for higher standards to recruit discernible and promising prospective school leaders. A broad array of scholars demonstrated that the high-quality university-based program design should include careful selection and efficient admission process. The admission process should not only focus on the testing scores such as GRE, GPA, etc. but it should be built on performance-based assessment besides to the traditional methods that include GPA scores, GRE scores and other attainment requirements (Browne-Ferrigno & Muth, 2009; Davis, Darling-Hammond, 2012; Murphy, Moorman, & McCarthy, 2008). Based on the UCEA report, the high leverage admission policies should include (a) comprehensive recruitment plan; and (b) a performance-based assessment for the applicants.

Standards. Researchers supported the assumption that every preparation program is designed on the basis of specific standards (Barnett, 2005; Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, & Orr, 2007), but not necessarily these standards aligned with the core standards (Anderson, Reynolds, 2015; English, 2006; Hale & Moorman, 2003; Lauder, 2000; Murphy, 2005). English (2006) argued that standards restrict the responsibilities of the school principals to limited roles and cause a form of professionalization (English, 2006, p. 461). Addressing the same argument, Murphy (2005) found "the ISLLC Standards were crafted to influence the leadership skills of existing school leaders as much as they were to shape the knowledge, performances, and

skills of prospective leaders in preparation programs" (p. 155). In contrast and prior to having PSEL standards, researchers a positive correlation between the ISLLC standards and the actual tasks that the principal do (Barnett, 2005; Kaplan, Owings, Nunnery, 2005). Based on the research-based rubric, Anderson and Reynolds (2015) found that all states including District of Colombia developed their preparation programs that are aligned with the standards.

University-based preparation programs.. University-based programs offer courses that designed to increase knowledge of prospective administrators on education law, politics, finance, budget, and personnel (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). The need for university-district partnership became an urgent need since 1977 (Hanes, Wangberg, & Yoder, 1982). Based on literature, university-district partnership helps improve the preparation program, practice, and enrich the internship experience (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Orr & Barber, 2007; Sanzo, 2011; Sanzo, Myran, & Clayton, 2011). Sanzo et al. (2011) employed design-based research paradigm to assess the effect of one-year partnership between a university and a rural school district. Sanzo and his colleagues found a significant effect on leadership preparation when the university partnered with the district. Hess and Kelly (2007) surveyed 56 university-based programs and classified them into three main categories; elite, large, and typical programs. Steiner and Rozen (2004) also addressed those three categories in their analysis of 165 syllabi of teacher preparation and argued that the elite programs are atypical common practice. In contrast, Hess and Kelly in their analysis of 210 syllabi

collected from those 56 university-based programs, found that university-based preparation programs have greater similarities across the three categories of programs with no evidence of difference among them.

Clinically rich internship. None of the scholars devalue the internship but it always considered one of the pivotal factors that affect the quality of preparation programs (Davis & Darling-Hammond, 2012; Havard, Morgan, & Patrick, 2010; Militello, Gajda, & Bowers, 2009; Orr, 2011). It was argued that the length of internship has a positive effect on the experience of the prospective principals; therefore, internship typically in exemplar preparation programs ranges from 100 hours to 800 hours (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015). Yet, Jackson and Kelly (2002) found lengthy internships are unrealistic.

The Purpose of the Study

Based on the UCEA report of 2015, there are 7 states with high leverage policies and 11 states with low leverage policies regarding to principal preparation programs. Of state policies related to principal preparation on university-based programs. The purpose of this study is to examine the differences of the university policies between universities located in states with high leverage policies and universities located in states with low leverage policies. On the basis of the UCEA rubric of 2015 variables, the UCEA INSPIRE (UCEA, 2017a) survey questions, and the UCEA/LTEL-SIG Survey of Leadership Preparation and Practice (UCEA, 2017b), I developed a 4Ps survey to help examine the differences.

Research Questions

There are five research questions that were asked in this study. They are as follows,

1. What are the differences in admission policies for principal preparation programs in states denoted as having high or low leverage policies?

2. What are the differences in course-content policies of principal preparation programs in states denoted as having high or low leverage policies?

3. What are the differences in internship policies of principal preparation programs in states denoted as having high or low leverage policies?

4. What are the differences in university-district partnership policies of principal preparation programs in states denoted as having high or low leverage policies?

5. How do program and university characteristics differ between the two groups (low leverage and high leverage policies) in terms of admission, internship, partnership, and course integration policies?

Significance of the Study

Several researchers who have conducted studies described the policy without providing actual analysis to examine the differences between the policy across the states. The pivotal motivation of university-based programs is to increase its influence in the communities. University policies are designed to achieve this motivation. Enrolments in university programs are good predictors of the impact of the university policies but are not significant, because there are several external factors that affect the enrolment. A growing number of researchers have examined the influence of university-based

preparation programs on novice principals (Orr, 2010), but none looked at the differences between the university policies regarding to preparation programs across the nation.

Methods

In order to answer the research questions, Principal Preparation Program Policy Survey (4Ps) was developed on the basis of state and university policy documents in addition to the research conducting by a large array of scholars. 4Ps was an online survey and was distributed to the program coordinators and chairs in public universities across the nation in the period between October 3 through November 5, 2017. The responses were sought to 84 statements representing fact-checking whether the university has a policy or not. The variables associated with these statements were regulated in five constructs in addition to a construct related to the university characteristics. The method employed to determine the differences between the program policies were descriptive statistics and MANOVA.

Participants and Data Collection

A web-based survey was the instrument to collect the data. An invitation email was sent to the target population with an embedded URL link to the Qualtrics web-based survey. The data collection was in the period between October 4 to November 5, 2017. In order to increase the return rate, weekly reminder emails were sent to the participants encouraging them to complete the survey. A thank you email applied to all participants who have previously completed the survey. In addition, gift card incentive was applied to those who successfully completed the survey.

The population of this study was determined using Carnegie classification of 2015 which demonstrated that there are 4664 universities in the United States. Out of the 4664, only 741 institutions are Master's colleges and universities (Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, 2015). The initial screening of the websites of the 741 institutions, the preparation program was found in 518 institutions. Therefore, the population included the chairs and coordinators of principal preparation programs at 518 public universities. Five hundred eighteen program chairs were contacted, only 215 were responded to the survey. Twenty-two responses were removed because they were incomplete and did not have any data. Only 193 complete responses were included. Out of the 193 returned responses were received, only 88 responses were considered in this study because they represented the target 18 states as mentioned in Figure 2. Those 88 participants were the chairs of the university principal preparation programs in 18 states (40 participants from seven states with high leverage policies, and 48 participants from 11 states with low leverage policies as reported in the UCEA 2015 report). All contacts are provided in the university websites, so, a list of chairs was prepared to send out the survey to them as shown in Figure 2.

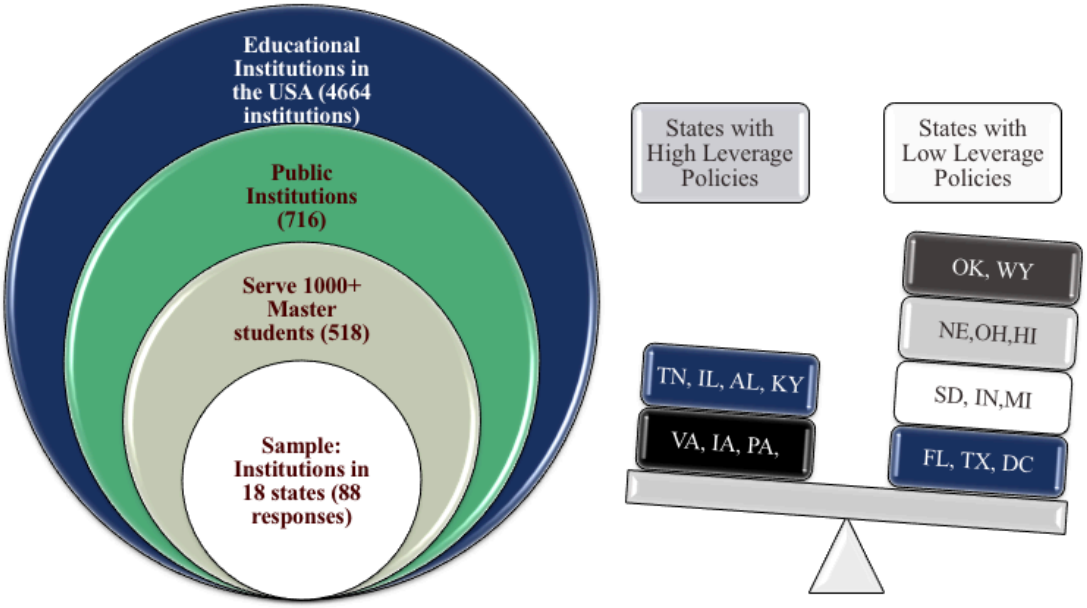

Figure 2. Data collection per state and per level of policy leverage.

For this particular study, only the responses from the states that were classified as states with high and low leverage policies were considered. Among total of 193 responses, only 88 were considered because they are represented states with high and low leverage policies. The number respondents by state was presented in Table 8. The highest responses for states with high leverage policies were from Pennsylvania (6) responses. The highest responses for states with low leverage policies were from Texas (19 responses).

Table 8

Responses Frequencies Based on State Policy Leverage

State High Leverage Policy	Respondents	State Low Leverage Policy	Respondents
AL	5	DC	2
IA	5	FL	3
IL	5	HI	2
KY	6	IN	4
PA	6	MI	7
TN	6	NE	2
VA	7	OH	4
		OK	2
		SD	2
		TX	19
		WY	1
Total	40	Total	48

In this study, I focused on addressing the differences between the preparation programs policies in Group 1 -the states that classified as states have high leverage preparation policies, and Group 2- the states have low leverage preparation policies. The source for policy-based classification of the states was the UCEA policy report of 2015. In this study, university policies regarding to admission, internship, partnership with the districts, program course integrations, cohort type, instruction platform, university location are considered variables that affect the quality of principal preparation program.

The Instrument: The Principal Preparation Programs Policy Survey

The instrument utilized in this study was The Principal Preparation Programs Policy Survey (4Ps) which was designed based on the UCEA principal preparation rubric, and the Taskforce on Evaluating Leadership Preparation Programs

(UCEA/LTEL-SIG) survey. The UCEA rubric consists of items that measure principal preparation state policy. The rubric measures (a) Standards-based program; (b) the admission process; (c) university-district partnership; (d) clinically-rich internship; and (e) program oversight. In order to assess the program characteristics, a subscale of (UCEA/LTEL-SIG) Survey of Leadership Preparation and Practice was adapted and adjusted. The UCEA/ LTEL-SIG Leadership Preparation and Practice includes 54 items related to the experiences of graduates in the leadership preparation program, self-assessment to their learning experience and career aspirations (Orr, 2010). As UCEA/LTEL-SIG survey target population was participants who have previously graduated from the preparation programs, questions about the participants' perceptions of the program were not applicable. I have developed questions that suit the population of this study (program chairs) and suit the purpose of the study (assess the program policy). In 4Ps survey, 84 items were included and classified into: (a) one item for signing the consent form; (b) 14 items for university characteristics; (c) 55 items for the four study constructs; and (d) four items for feedback (see Appendix A).

Program and university characteristics variables. A total of 14 items were developed to address the campus location (urban, rural, suburban), type of cohort (traditional, non-cohort, mixed cohort), type of instructional platform (face-to-face, online, hybrid), student ethnicities, campus population size, and the type of accreditation. In addition, the remaining variables were open-ended questions which were not included in the analysis.

Principal preparation constructs. In order to measure the differences between of preparation policies, four main constructs were considered and a series of items were developed to measure these constructs: (a) 12 items were developed to measure admission policies; (b) 30 items to measure internship policies; (c) 7 items to measure university-district partnership policies; and (d) 16 items to measure program course-content integration policies. Addition four open ended items were added to measure participants feedback.

Reliability of the Instrument

The 4Ps survey was pilot tested twice and reviewed by experts in educational administration. The first pilot tested the original 60 items using responses of a sample of program chairs (n=16). The reliability coefficient Cronbach alpha value was obtained to: (a) test the inter-item reliability(b) test the consistency of the questionnaire; and (c) evaluate the appropriateness of the measurement model used for final SEM (Doloi, Iyer, & Sawhney, 2011; Jin, Doloi & Gao, 2007). A Cronbach's alpha value of the sample was 0.91 which indicated that the items are reliable to the survey because they are larger than the cut-off 0.7 (Cronbach, 1952). Based on the verbal feedback, questions' wording was revised and two more new questions were added. The second pilot tested the 62 questions using responses of a sample of program chairs (n=52) at middle-sized universities. A Cronbach's alpha value proved a good reliability of 0.81 (Cronbach, 1952). The final revision was based on a face-validation conducted by two experts in education administration and program preparation. The two experts reviewed both the first and second pilot as well as the verbal feedback of the respondents. As a result of the

revision, the scale was modified to be binary scale (yes=1, and no=0). In addition, 21 items were added to the survey. The final survey comprised of a total of 83 items including 10 open-ended questions and 11 multiple choices questions. The overall reliability coefficient Cronbach alpha value was measured for the remaining 52 items ($\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ = 0.85) which indicated good reliability (See Appendix B).

Data Analysis

Several statistical tests were conducted to assess the differences between the groups based on the selected variables. First, all completed responses were subjects of coding procedures (yes=1, no=0). When 1 was selected, it indicates that particular aspect/content of the policies has been included. When 0 was selected, it means the respondent indicated that their policy does not have this item. I captured the total score for each participant for all four constructs. Based on the results, I created four new dependent variables in which each variable represented the total value of each construct: (a) admission policies; (b) internship policies; (c) partnership policies; and (d) program course integration policies. The universities clustered in high states group and low states group are the only one independent variable for this study.

Descriptive statistics were investigated to check that the sample, and the measures met the assumption of data analysis. A comparison between universities located in states scored as high leverage policy and states scored as low leverage policies was undertaken to obtain a better understanding of the importance of campus locations, campus size, program type, and instructional platform. Because the assumption of this study was to examine the differences between two groups based on four dependent

variables, Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was appropriate for this study (Timm, 2002). This comparison was computed using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). In addition to MANOVA, a comparison between the two groups based on the four constructs and the university/program characteristics has been conducted.

Results

In order to answer the research questions, descriptive statistics and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) analyses have been conducted. In descriptive statistics, the standard deviation and the mean of the two population groups (responses from universities at states with high leverage policies and responses from universities at states with high leverage policies). In addition, graphs have been developed for the comparison between the groups after adding the university characteristics variables. MANOVA analyses have been conducted to examine the differences between the two groups on regard to the four constructs (admission, internship, partnership, and program course-content).

Descriptive Analysis of the Data

As shown in Table 9, descriptive statistics provides a general overview of program chairs' responses to each construct. The total score of each independent variable was computed based on the number of items in each. Each item that was met was scored as 1, while the item which was not met scored as 0. The scores of admission, course-integration, internship, and partnership were 10, 11, 24, and 7 respectively. For partnership, the mean range is largely different between the two groups (high group: mean=2.875/SD=2.278, low scored group: mean=2.188/SD=2.447) which mean that the

mean of the responses from the group scored in states with high leverage policy was larger than those of the group scored in states with low leverage policy. Similarly, the remaining constructs show that the mean and standard deviation of the responses from campuses in states scored higher for developing preparation program policies. The data description per item was demonstrated in Appendix C.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics

	Group	*Mean*	*Std. Deviation*	*N*
Partnership	Low Leverage Policy	2.188	2.447	48
	High Leverage Policy	2.875	2.278	40
	Total	2.500	2.383	88
Program Content	Low Leverage Policy	5.396	4.266	48
	High Leverage Policy	6.300	4.165	40
	Total	5.807	4.221	88
Admission	Low Leverage Policy	4.688	3.054	48
	High Leverage Policy	6.225	3.017	40
	Total	5.386	3.116	88
Internship	Low Leverage Policy	9.542	7.580	48
	High Leverage Policy	12.800	7.332	40
	Total	11.023	7.602	88

For MANOVA analysis, the Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices was computed to examine the homogeneity of covariance across the groups (as shown in Table 10. Using $p < 0.001$ as a criterion (NCSS, 2018), there is no concern that Box's M (19.601) was not significant $p\ (0.046) > \alpha\ (.001)$. The conclusion based on this result was that there are no significant differences between the covariance matrices. Thus, the assumption was not violated and both Pillai's Trace and Wilk's Lambda tests are appropriate to use.

Table 10

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices

Box's M	19.601
F	1.860
df1	10
df2	32759.007
Sig.	.046

The Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variance tests were investigated to assess that each variable is equal across the groups. As shown in Table 11, Levene's tests were not significant *p*s > 0.05 (partnership (.343), Program integration (.729), admission (.285, and internship (.368) indicating that there was no violation of the assumption that the variables are equal across groups.

Table 11

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

	F	*df1*	*df2*	Sig.
Partnership	.909	1	86	.343
Program Course Content Integration	.121	1	86	.729
Admission	1.158	1	86	.285
Internship	.820	1	86	.368

MANOVA tests as shown in Table 12 provided evidence that there are significant differences between groups in admission (*p*-value = .02) and internship (*p*-value = .045) indicating that campuses that located in states that have high leverage policies are more likely to develop program admission and internship policies than the campus in the states that have low leverage policies. Using these findings helps answer the first and the third research questions which testify the differences between the two groups in terms of admission and internship policies. There are no significant differences between the two groups in terms of partnership and program course-content integration

policies. This finding helps answer the second and the fourth research questions which examine the differences between the two groups in terms of the university-district partnership and program course-content integration. This statistical finding indicates that there is no evidence to prove that the principal preparation state policies created significant differences in the university policies in terms of partnership and program content.

Table 12

Tests of Between-Subject Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Partnership	10.312[a]	1	10.312	1.834	.179	.021
	Program Course-content.	17.837[b]	1	17.837	1.001	.320	.012
	Admission	51.576[c]	1	51.576	5.591	.020	.061
	Internship	231.638[d]	1	231.638	4.153	.045	.046
Intercept	Partnership	559.176	1	559.176	99.422	.000	.536
	Program Course-Content	2984.564	1	2984.564	167.554	.000	.661
	Admission	2598.167	1	2598.167	281.666	.000	.766
	Internship	10890.547	1	10890.547	195.272	.000	.694
Group	Partnership	10.312	1	10.312	1.834	.179	.021
	Program Course-Content	17.837	1	17.837	1.001	.320	.012
	Admission	51.576	1	51.576	5.591	.020	.061
	Internship	231.638	1	231.638	4.153	.045	.046

Although the statistical MANOVA shows statistical significant differences between groups only in admission policies and the internship policies, the descriptive statistics of the estimated marginal means graphs shows that there are differences between groups in terms of the four constructs including university-district partnership and program course-content integration policy constructs. Figure 3 shows that campuses

in the states scored as states that developed high leverage preparation policies are more likely to perform better in developing preparation program policies than the campuses in states that developed low leverage policies.

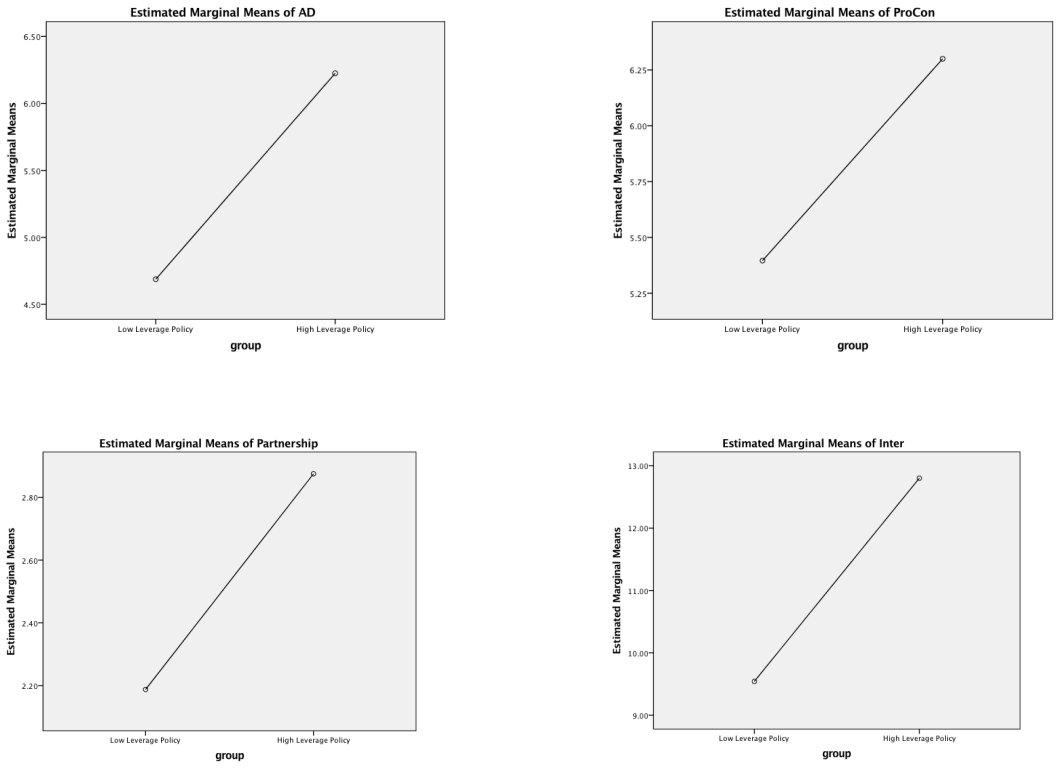

Figure 3. The group differences of partnership, program course-content integration, admission, and internship policies.

The Influence of the Demographic Variables

For this study, the program/university characteristics were defined as: (a) the program size in terms of the number of students enrolled in the program (i.e. small= 1-

50, medium=51-100, and large=100+); (b) the type of cohort (traditional, non-traditional, and mixed cohort, and others); and (c) the type of instructions (face-to-face, online, hybrid, and others). Others for the type of instructions included the off-campus courses in a school district. In addition, the type of standards adopted was added to overview which standards are followed in the two groups. In order to overview the demographic differences between the two groups, the following graphs were developed. The general overview indicated that the universities in high leverage states are more likely to develop policies than universities in states with low leverage policies.

Admission. The program enrolment size shows significant differences between the two groups. Statistical analyses indicated significant differences between groups in terms of admission. Adding the program size reported that the admission policies are more likely to be developed in the programs with small and large enrollments in the states scored as high leverage policy states than programs in states scored as low leverage policy states as shown in Figure 4. The program type also showed that the universities in the states with high leverage policies offer students with a variety of cohort type than the universities in the states with low leverage policies as shown in Figure 5. In terms of the instruction types, the universities in states with high leverage policies are more likely to provide students with face-to-face and online instructions than the universities in states with low leverage policies as indicated in Figure 6. The concluded finding indicated evidence that states policies correlate with the university policy.

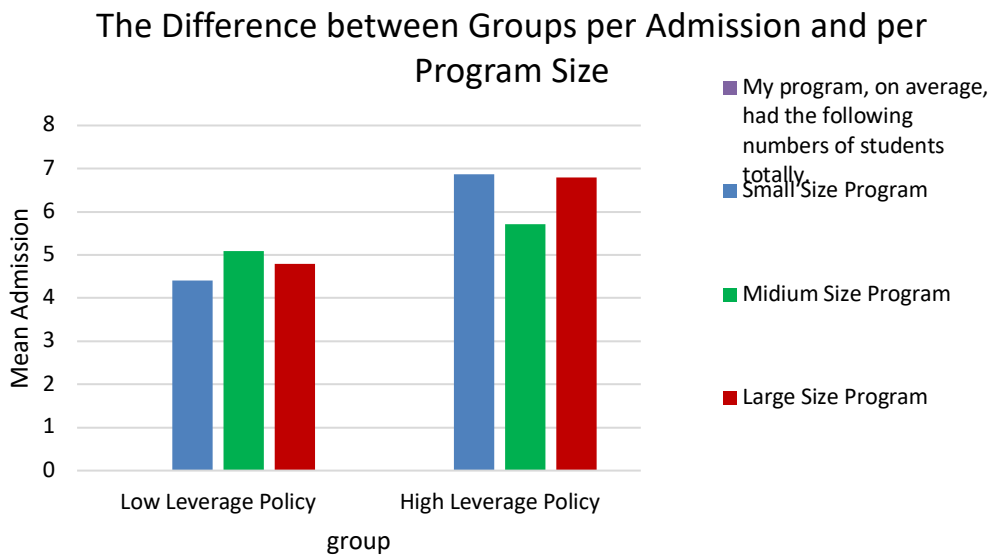

Figure 4. The differences between groups per admission and per program size.

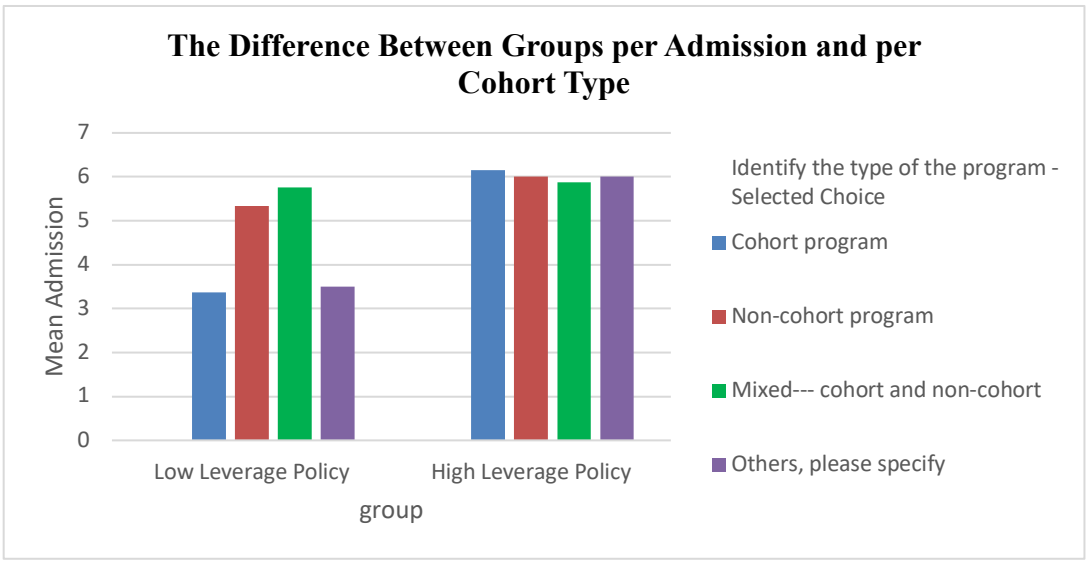

Figure 5. The differences between groups per admission and per cohort type.

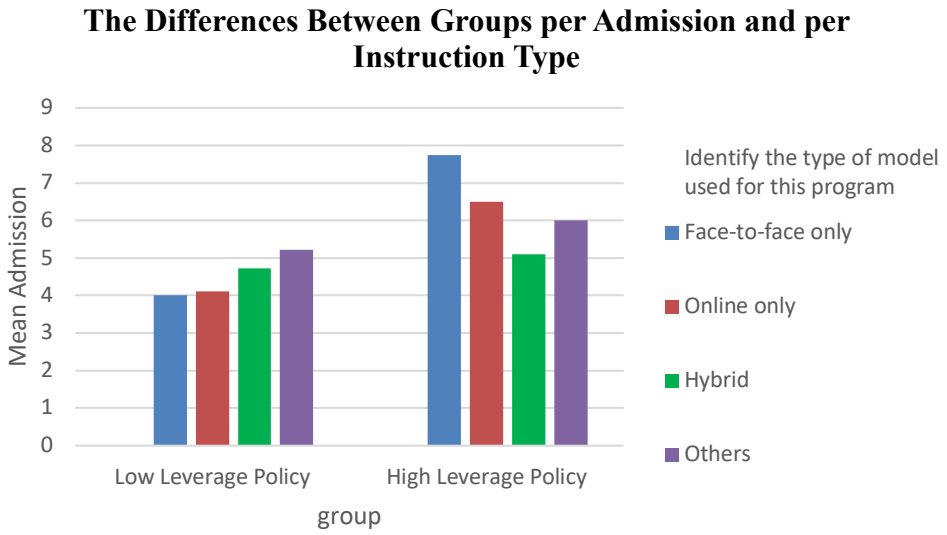

Figure 6. The differences between groups per admission and per instruction type.

Internship. Statistical analyses also indicated significant differences between the two groups. The three variables mentioned above (program size, cohort type, and instruction type) were added to examine the differences between the two groups. Figure 7 indicated that the universities, particularly those with large and small program enrolments, in states with high leverage policies are more likely to develop internship policies than universities in states with low leverage policies. The universities in states with high leverage policies are also more likely to provide students with a variety of cohort types as shown in Figure 8 and instruction types as shown in Figure 9.

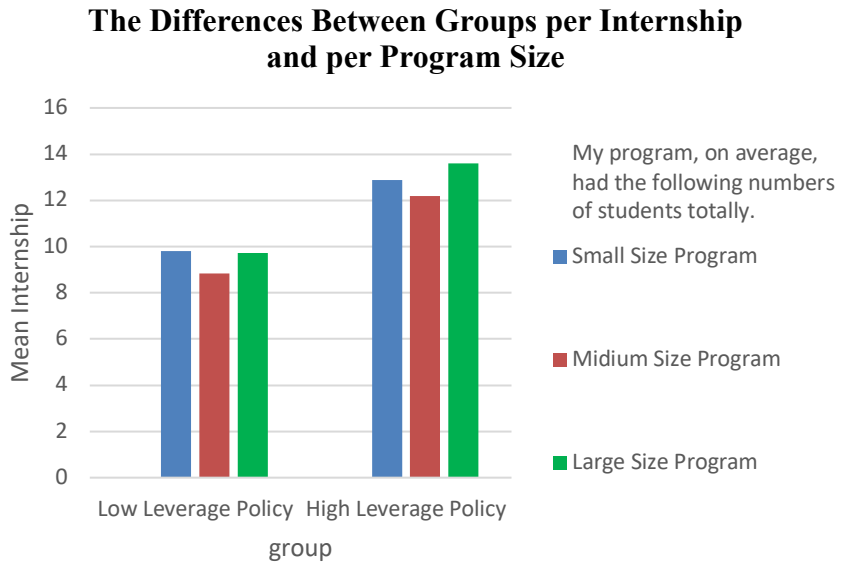

Figure 7. The differences between groups per internship and per program size.

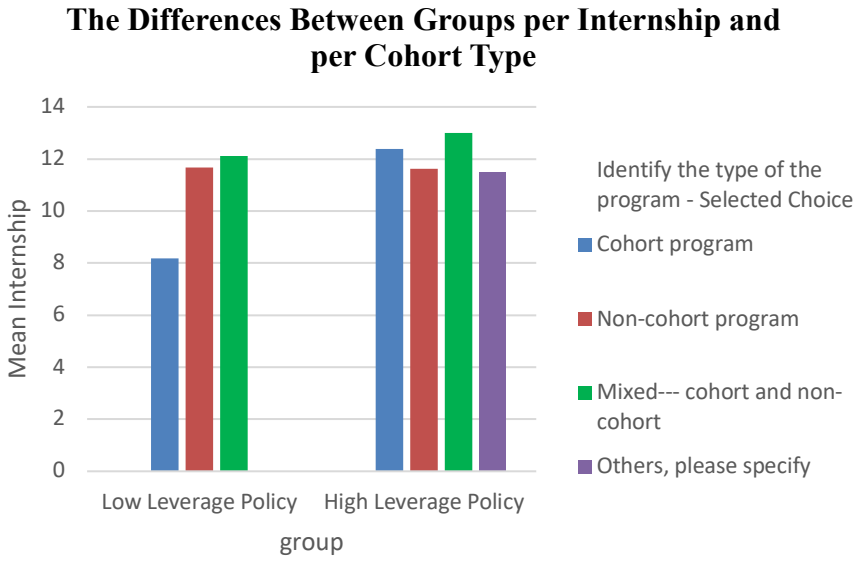

Figure 8. The differences between groups per internship and per cohort type.

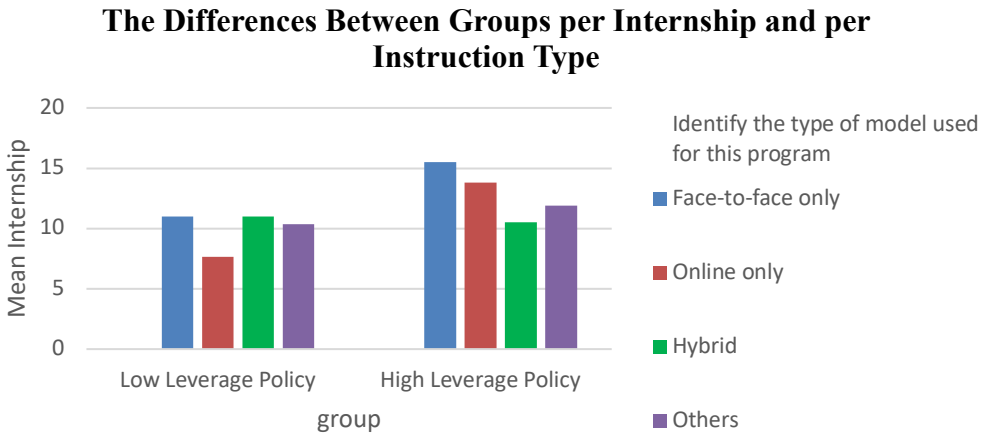

Figure 9. The differences between groups per internship and per instruction type.

The duration of the field-based internship was a factor which clarify the differences between the groups. As indicated in Figure 10, the programs in states with low leverage policies are more likely to require internship hours between 151 to 200 hours while the programs in the states with high leverage policies are more likely to require more than 300 hours of field based-experience.

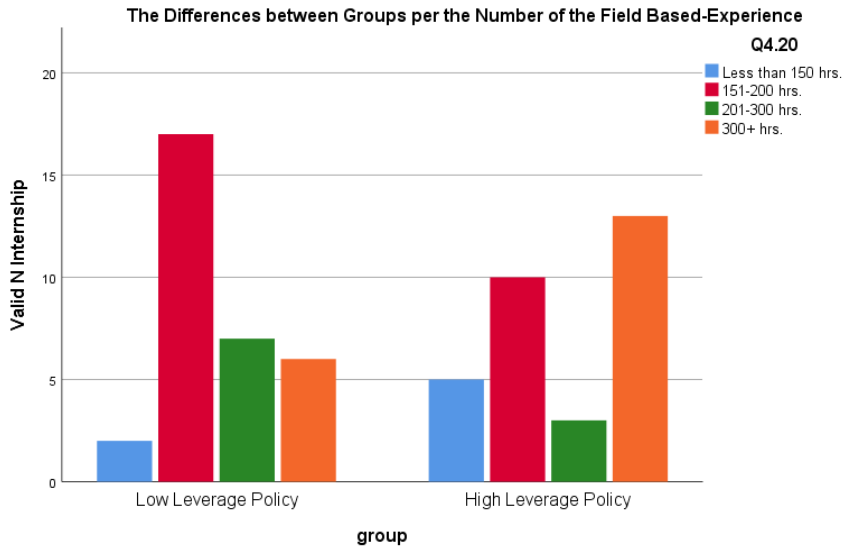

Figure 10. The differences between groups per the number of the field based-experience.

University-district partnership. Statistics analyses do not provide a significant evidence that the universities of the two groups are different in developing policies regarding to university-district partnership. Yet, universities in states with low leverage policies are more likely to develop partnership policies and more likely to provide students with mixed cohort programs. In contrast, the universities in the states with high leverage policies are more likely to develop cohort programs policies as shown in Figure 11. In terms of program size, the universities in states with high leverage policies and have medium size programs are more likely to develop university-district partnership policies. Universities that have small program enrolments in the states with low leverage policies are more likely to develop partnership policies as shown in Figure 12. When partnership was used as a variable, it shows that universities in low leverage policy states are more likely to develop partnership policies and provide a variety of instruction types to students as shown in Figure 13.

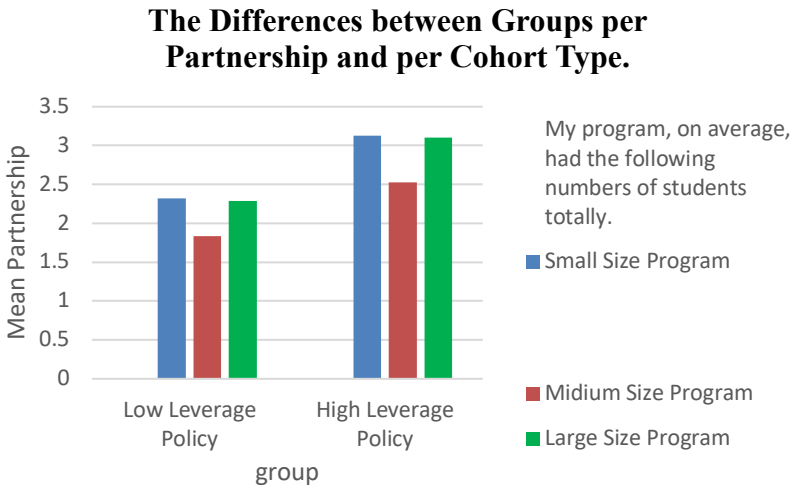

Figure 11. The differences between groups per partnership and per cohort type.

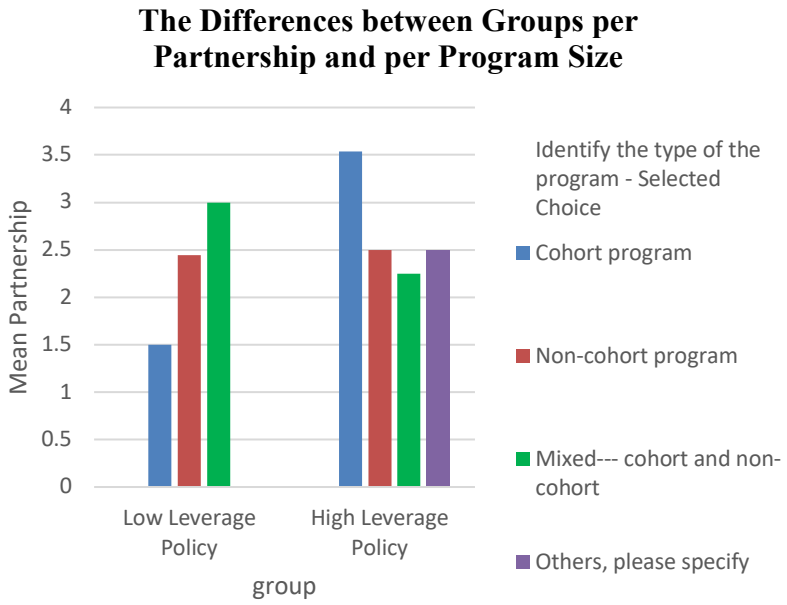

Figure 12. The differences between groups per partnership and per program size.

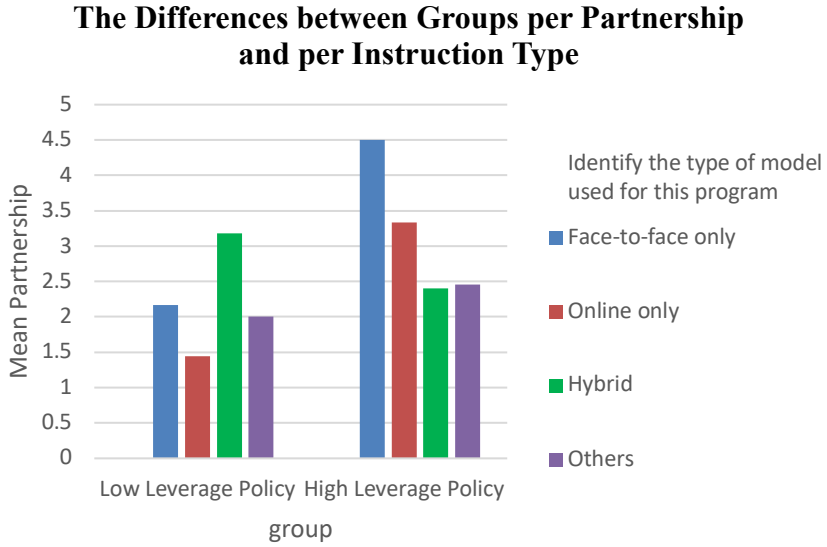

Figure 13. The differences between groups per partnership and per instruction type.

Program course-content integration. Although multivariate analysis of variance indicated that there was no significant difference between the two groups in terms of program course-content integration, adding the variables such as program size, cohort type, and instruction type show some differences. As shown in Figure 14 shows within the groups, the small size programs in low leverage states are more likely to develop program integration policies. In addition, they are more likely to provide mixed cohort programs to students (as demonstrated in Figure 15) and more likely to offer a variety of instruction types to students as indicated in Figure 16.

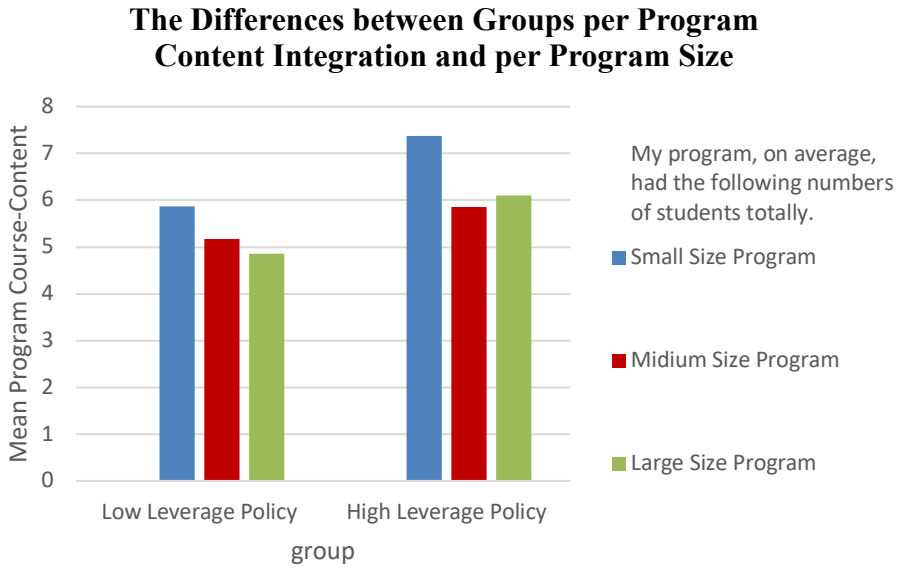

Figure 14. The differences between groups per program content integration and per program size.

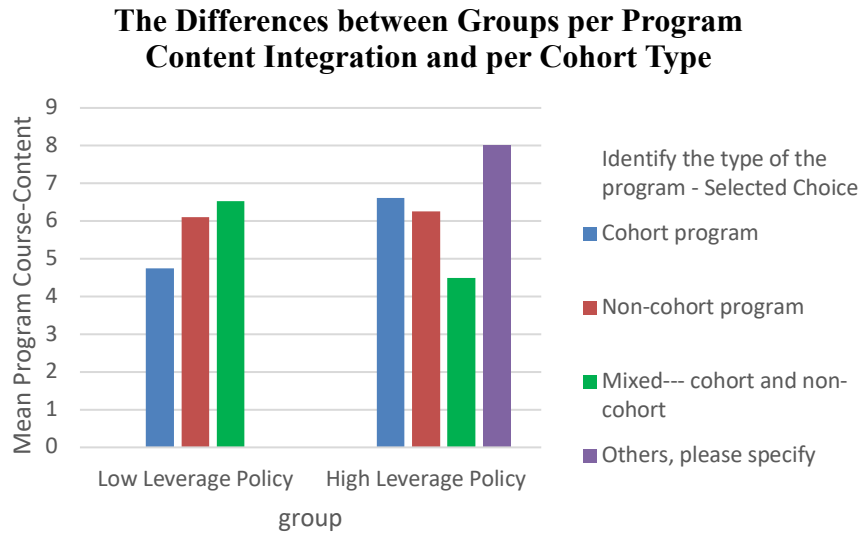

Figure 15. The differences between groups per program content integration and per cohort type.

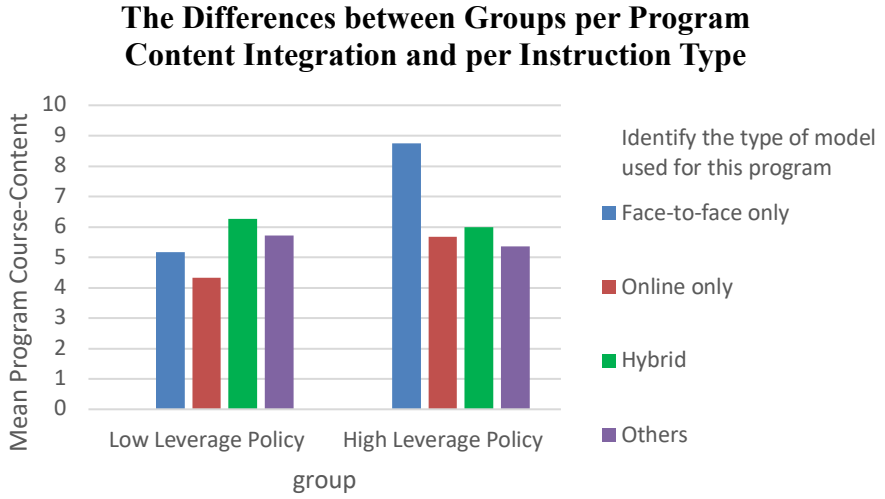

Figure 16. The differences between groups per program content integration and per instruction type.

Standards. The responses illustrated that both groups varied in adopting the standards. Both groups are more likely to adopt the state standards. Following the state standards, the programs in high leverage policy states are more likely to adopt ISLLC standards. In was interesting that there was a significant difference between the two groups in adopting the ISLLC standards. The programs in low leverage policy states are less likely to adopt ISLLC standards but they are more likely to adopt ELCC standards as indicated in Figure 17.

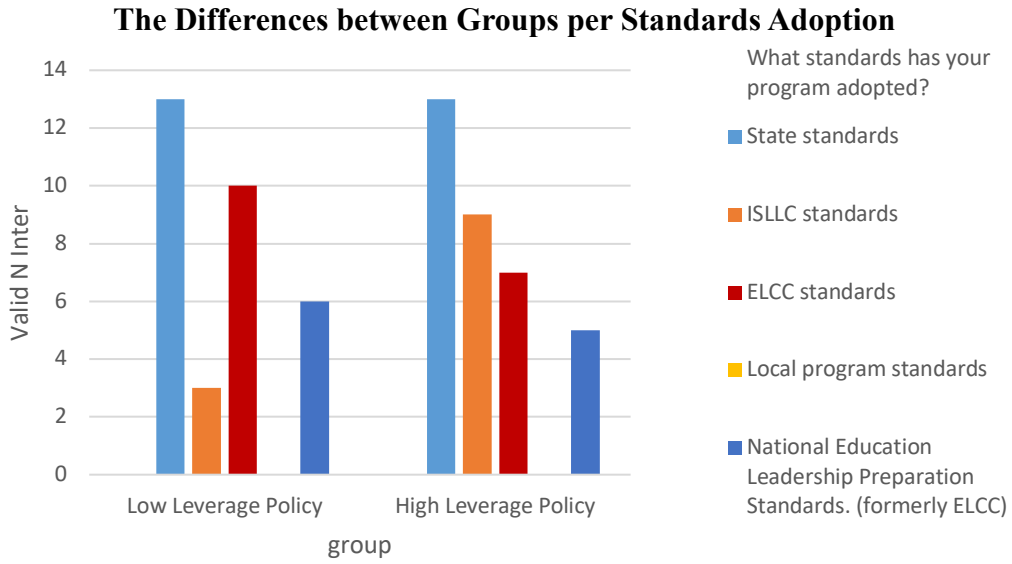

Figure 17. The differences between groups per standards adoption.

Discussion

As principal preparation policy is linked to the program implemented, my research stemmed from two main studies. The first was Orr's (2010) study, *Pipeline to*

Preparation to Advancement: Graduates' Experiences In, Through; and Beyond Leadership Preparation. Orr described the nature of university-based programs and their relationship with the characteristics of the participants. The second study was Anderson's and Reynolds' (2015), *The State of State Policies for Principal Preparation Program Approval and Candidate Licensure* in which state-by-state principal preparation policies were examined. The findings of those two sets of researchers were not sufficient to determine the relationships between the state policies and the program implementation at the university level. Therefore, I have conducted this study to identify the differences of the program constructs in the two groups.

In my study, I investigated the differences between preparation programs of universities located in states that scored as having high leverage policies and states that scored as having low leverage policies in terms of admission, internship, partnership, and course integration policies as determined by Anderson and Reynolds My overall findings indicated that there were significant statistical differences between the two groups in terms of admission and internship policies. Consistent with the literature, admission requirements of programs located in states identified as states having high leverage policies are different from those programs in states having low leverage policies.

The findings of this study affirmed that there was a significant difference between groups in terms of admission policies. The admission policies gave the most weight to the scholarly scores such as GRE, and undergraduate GPA (Creighton & Gary, 2001; Lashway, 2003; Lauder). The finding of this study was slightly not consistent with

the previous literature because the responses indicated GPA as the main requirement followed by the resume and the written essay as demonstrated in Figure 18. In 2000, Lauder claimed that principals are not only employing the knowledge they possess from the preparation programs but also they should possess the skills with which they interpret this knowledge to the school realm. Therefore, Lauder (2000) emphasized that the admission should include requirements tools with which the data about the potential leaders would be gathered. Consistent with Lauder's claim, the findings showed that resume weighted more than the GPA based on the analyses of this study. In addition, both the written essay and the personal statement weighted more than the GRE. These findings ensure that the university policymakers realized the value of the participants' skills with which they will interpret the knowledge they will gain into practice in the schools.

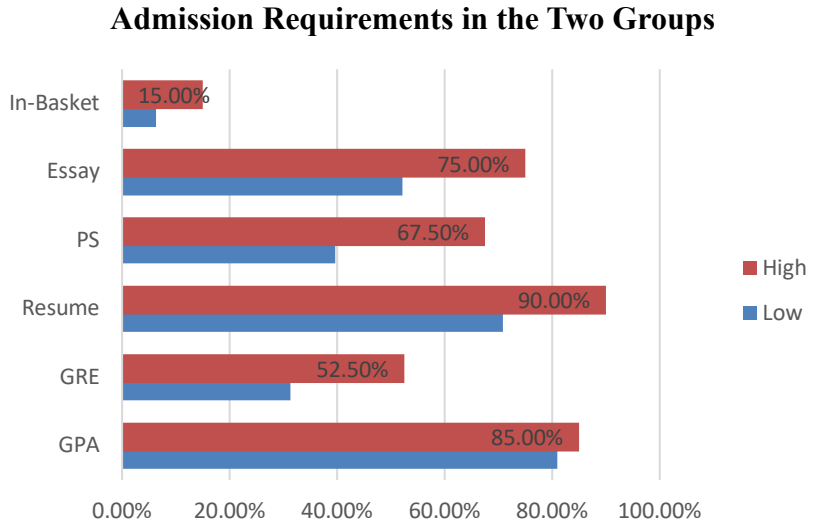

Figure 18. Differences between groups in terms of admission requirements.

Researchers of the previous studies have sharpened our knowledge about internship as one of the key factors with which the quality of a preparation program. In this current study, I have illustrated that there were significant differences between the internship policies of the universities located in states with concrete internship policies and the universities in states that did not. The large sized programs in states with high leverage policies are more likely to develop internship policies than others. This finding indicates that the enrolment rate promotes the program policymakers to develop policies that enrich the internship experience and link it to the coursework. Researchers, such as Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, and Cohen (2007), provided examples of the internship-course work integration. They put emphasis on hand-on field based-experiences, and problem-based instructions.

There were no statistically significant differences between the two groups in partnership policies and course integration policies which means that the two groups are more likely to develop partnership and course integration policies regardless the quality of the state policy. There were no statistically significant differences between the two groups in partnership policies and course integration policies which means that the two groups are more likely to develop partnership and course integration policies regardless the quality of the state policy. Yet, the graphs show that there are differences between the two groups in both university-district partnership and course integration. It was indicated that there was ‘substantively important positive’ finding (What Works Clearinghouse, 2014) because the effect size of standard deviation is larger than 0.25 and there was at least one statistically significant difference. Darling-Hammond et al. (2007)

emphasized that strong university-district partnerships would lead to a significant increase in the principal preparation quality. The awareness of the importance of a such partnership can aid policymakers at the university level to develop effective partnership policies regardless if the state has a policy for university-district partnership or not.

Consistent with the previous literature, university-district partnership affects the admission policies. This partnership helps identify the potential leaders and the candidates of the program. Hale and Moorman (2003) argued that partnership with the districts helps: (a) create mechanism to help the potential leaders find their pathways; (b) connect the curriculum and the theory with field base experience via internship; and (c) apply academic knowledge into practices. The significant difference between the two groups indicated that the state policies have influence on the university admission policies.

An increasing number of researchers have found evidence that the course integration with the field-based experience was significant for program quality improvement (Davis, Daling-Hammond, 2012; Hess & Kelly, 2007; Milstein et al., 1991; Williamson & Hudson, 2001). The results of this study indicated that there were no significant differences between the two groups in terms of developing course integration policies. This finding supports the previous literature which emphasizes the essence of rich internship lies on integrating learning with the field based-experience (Militello, et al., 2009; Murphy et al., 2008). This finding also indicates that the chairs and the program policymakers are aware of the importance of this construct (course integration). Therefore, the course-integration policies were effective in both groups

regardless whether the state has or has not a policy for course integration. The findings are clearly pointed that small sized programs are more likely to develop course integration policies than the medium and the large size programs in both groups.

To conclude that the findings gave evidence of differences between the two state groups in regard to four variables, state policies, cohort type, program size, program course integration, and instruction type. Based on the finding, the proposed model that link the four constructs as shown in Figure 19. The significant differences between the two groups were in both internship and admission. Which means that the universities located in the states with high leverage policies are more likely to develop detailed admission and internship policies than universities located in states with low leverage policies. Although the remaining variables do not show significant differences but the figures and graphs illustrated there were differences between the two groups. In addition, the admission and the internship were affected by the university-district partnership, cohort type, state polices, and program size. In the internship policies were affected by the state policies, program size, program course-content integration, and instruction type.

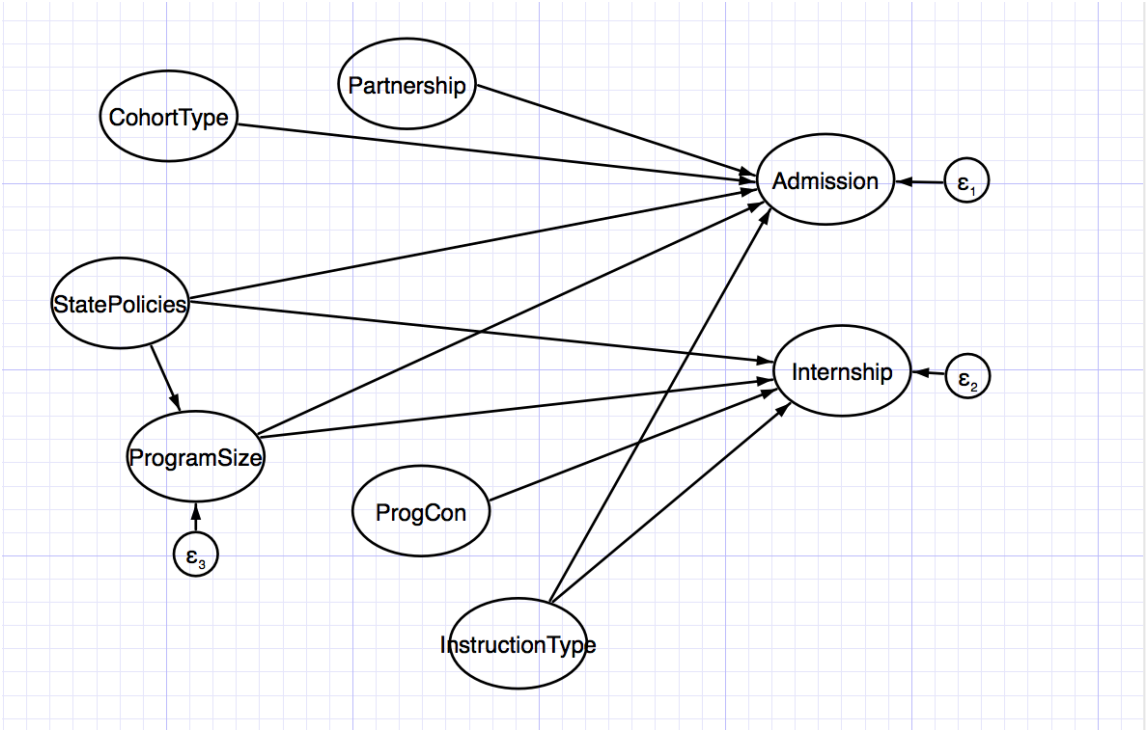

Figure 19. The final model of the relationship between the states and university policies.

Conclusion

The findings of the tests of between-subject effects table shown in (Table 12) answered the first four research questions. In first question, I examined the differences between the two groups of population regarding to the admission policies. This table shows significant differences between the two groups which indicates that the university in states with high leverage policies are more likely to develop high leverage admission policies. In the second research question, I tested the differences between the two groups of populations regarding to program course-content policies. The multivariate table discloses that there were no significant differences between groups in terms of the course integration policies. Therefore, the universities in both groups develop the course integration policies indifferently. In the third research questions, I quantified the

differences between the two population groups in regard to the internship policies of the principal preparation programs. The table illustrates there was a significant difference between groups indicating that the university in states with high leverage policies are more likely to develop high leverage internship policies. In the fourth question, I investigated the differences between the two groups regarding to university-district partnership. The multivariate table indicates that there was no evidence of a significant difference between groups which means that the universities in both groups perform indifferently in developing university-district partnership policies.

As shown in Figures 4 through 17, the fifth research question was answered. The question was an attempt to identify the differences between the two groups in terms of the four constructs with regard to the program size, the program type, and the instruction type. These figures illustrated that there were differences between the groups in developing admission, internship, partnership, and course integration policies with regard to the demographic characteristics. The graphs show differences between groups in all constructs although partnership and course integration policies were not statistically significant.

CHAPTER IV

A MODEL-BASED APPROACH TO VALIDATING INTERNSHIP PROGRAM INDICATOR USING STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELING

Introduction

A field-based internship is identified as the most valuable part of either principal and superintendent preparation programs (Daresh, 1997; Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, & Cohen, 2007; Davis & Darling-Hammond, 2012; Williamson & Hudson, 2001). Murphy (2008) emphasized that a robust internship integrates the theoretical learning with leadership experiences. Therefore, a sizable body of research has suggested that clinical internship is a valuable instrument with which interns synthesize the theoretical knowledge and put them into action. Milstein, Bobroff, and Restine (1991) addressed the need of interns to examine their competencies to place the theory into practice, so that the internship plays a role to ensure the validity of theoretical knowledge and the courses that are taught in the preparation programs. Milstein et al. (1991) emphasized these needs to include several domains of professional knowledge such as the local knowledge (e.g. understanding the community setting); tacit knowledge (e.g. administrative and managerial behaviors); culture knowledge (e.g. organizational believes, vision, and mission); research knowledge (e.g. data-based decision making); personal knowledge (e.g. abilities and skills); theoretical knowledge; critical knowledge; political knowledge; and craft knowledge. Milstein et al. linked these domains of knowledge with three skills: technical skills; human skills, and conceptual

skills. Robust internship programs are required to provide prospective principals with knowledge and skills.

Most preparation programs require an internship as an essential requirement of program completion. The interns need to get formal approval from the school in which the internship takes place and the site mentor who follows up and evaluates the intern's progress. The internship should link the theoretical knowledge gained during the course section to the practical experience (Angelle & Bilton, 2009; Davis & Darling-Hammond, 2012). As such, mentorship is the most valuable part in the internship as the intern works directly with a school mentor who guides her/him to practice leadership roles. Davis et al. (2005) argued that mentorship loses its rigor if the intern does not genuinely practice leadership roles. Williamson and Hudson (2001) also found challenges that interns encounter when they are not assigned relevant leadership roles or when the mentor is not giving opportunities to make a decision without risk of receiving severe judgements.

Literature Review

The field-based internship is one of the most important and integral components of a principal preparation program. It is defined as the component through which students are bridging the theoretical knowledge with practical field experience (Cunningham, 2007; Figueiredo-Brown, Ringler, James, 2015; Hackman, Russell, & Elliott, 1999). The internship has been described as the "professional seal of approval before a new principal is certified" (Bottoms, Fry, Gray, & O'Neill, 2007, p.10). Cross disciplinary research has suggested that field-based experience builds the ability of new leaders by allowing them to put leadership theories into action (Browne-Ferrigno, 2003;

Browne-Ferrigno, 2004; Butler, 2008; Cunningham, 2007; Cunningham & Sherman, 2008; Figueiredo-Brown, Ringler, & James, 2015). Cunningham and Sherman (2008) defined a robust internship as a field experience with which the intern possesses the principal professional requirements and skills. They summarized these requirements to include: (a) the intern is responsible for providing authentic opportunities; (b)) the intern is responsible for developing skills that match with diverse situations; (c) internship program should cover specific state and national standards; (d) there is a need of efficiency in linking the theory with practice; (e) there is a need to achieve feasibility and sustainability, and all possible accessibility of resources; and (f) there is a need to ensure the building of the intern's competencies and confidence in managing administrative roles.

An internship should be robust, rich, and clinical. Internships vary from one program to another, but typically it spans an academic year as part-time service. The required duration ranges from 100 working hours to 800 working hours. Interns are required to practice field-work experience at schools to implement the coursework they completed. Milstein et al. (1991) gave an example of the University of Washington in which the internship requires a student to intern for 720 hours (at least 16 hours per week) in a school that is different from her/his own school. The length of internship is important because it determines the extent to which interns experience various cultural and administrative situations, build relationships, and are rigorously involved in school leadership practices (Figueiredo-Brown, Ringler, & James, 2015).

Gaining leadership experience is one of major components of the internship. Figueiredo-Brown, Ringler, and James (2015) studied reflections of interns who completed a principal preparation program at East Carolina University (ECU) and found most of the reflections supported the notion that interns learn better when they exposure to diversity and diverse settings.

Leadership preparation has a significant influence on principals' practices and experiences. Orphanos and Orr (2014) examined the perceptions of two groups of teachers: a group whose principals enrolled in traditional preparation programs (589 teachers); and a group whose principals enrolled in innovative preparation programs. Orphanos and Orr found there were significant effect of the leadership programs on leadership practices and on the teacher collaboration and satisfaction.

Summary of State Policies with Regard to Principal Preparation Internship

At the state level, policies to ensure robust internship opportunities are existed. Based on the previous research, the UCEA reported seven main criteria of a robust internship: (a) deliberate structure which is addressed in principal preparation policies of 21 states such as Alabama, Arizona, Texas, and New York; (b) field work that linked to the theoretical curriculum (addressed in policies of 16 states such as Alabama, New York, and Tennessee); (c) engagement in core leadership roles (addressed in policies of 18 states e.g. Alabama, Florida, Georgia, and Tennessee); (e) supervision by an expert (addressed in policies of 25 states e.g. Arizona, Iowa, Montana, and New York); (f) exposure to diversity (addressed in policies of 18 states e.g. Alabama, Illinois, South Dakota, and Tennessee); and (g) more than 300 hours of field experience (addressed in

policies of 14 states e.g. Colorado, Delaware, New Jersey, and Utah). Only policies of Iowa, Massachusetts, Minnesota, and Virginia met the six criteria while five criteria out of the six were addressed in policies of Alabama, California, Georgia, Illinois, Kentucky, Maine, Missouri, New York, Tennessee, and Utah. As shown in Figure 20, the state policies addressing the criteria of robust internship requirements vary.

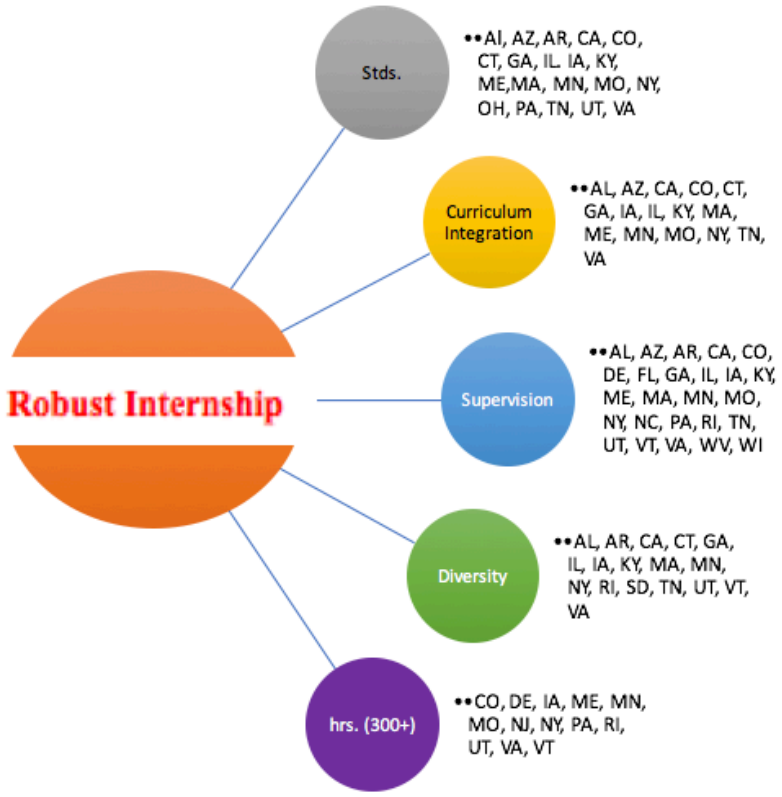

Figure 20. States with internship policies.

The Purpose of the Study

The internship is the major component in principal preparation programs (Davis, & Darling-Hammond, 2012; Orr, 2011). The quality of the internship is measured by the

structure of the internship (Hackmann, Schmitt-Oliver, & Tracy, 2002), the integration with the course work (Orr, 2011), mentoring and supervision (Davis, & Darling-Hammond, 2012; Hackmann, Schmitt-Oliver, & Tracy, 2002), exposure to diverse populations, and the number of the working hours (Anderson, & Reynolds, 2015; Orr, 2011). While controlling for campus size and location, the emphasis of this study was to examine the influence of admission, university-district partnership, and program course integration as indicators of the quality of internship.

Research Questions

There were seven research questions included in this study. Those questions follow.

1. To what extent do the internship policies relate to district partnership policies?
2. To what extent do the internship policies relate to university course-content integration policies?
3. To what extent do the internship policies relate to the admission policies?
4. How does the program course integration policies impact indirectly internship policies through admission policies?
5. How does the partnership indirectly impact on internship policies through admission policies?
6. To what extent do the internship policies relate to university location?

7. To what extent do the internship policies relate to type of the program (based on program platform such as online, face-to-face, and the cohort type such as cohort, non-cohort, and mixed)?

Conceptual Model

Based on the literature, a robust field experience (internship) is built on three factors: (a) university-district partnership; (b) integration of coursework with the field based-experience; and (c) admission (Anderson, & Reynolds, 2015; Hackmann, Schmitt-Oliver, & Tracy, 2002; Orr, 2011). The three factors capture various characteristics and relate to the quality of the internship. The proposed model, as shown in Figure 21, indicates direct paths from district-university partnership, program integration, and admission to internship. Indirect path from the university-district partnership to the internship using the admission as a mediation.

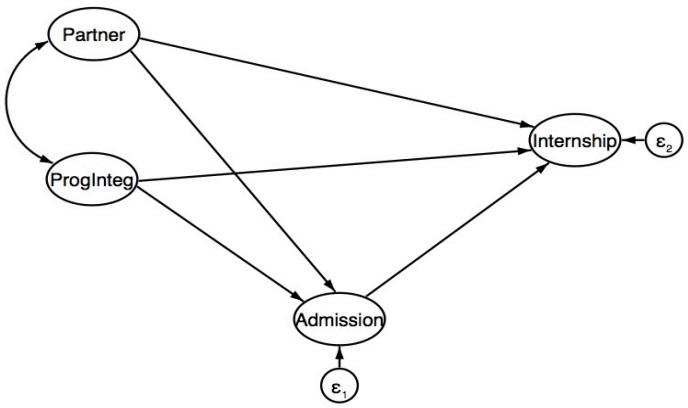

Figure 21. The hypothesized model of policy relationships with robust internship indicators.

Principal Preparation Field-Based Internship Measurements

Researchers have suggested that there are three major constructs that influence the quality internship policies: (a) university-district partnership policies (Hale & Moorman; Lashway, 2003; Orr & Orphanos, 2012; Orr, 2011); (b) program course integration policies (Hale & Moorman, 2003; Lashway, 2003; Orr, 2011); and (c) admission policies (Orr & Orphanos, 2012). The university-district partnership can take the form of hosting meaningful internship experiences in the district to support university-based preparation programs (Orr & Orphanos, 2012). Concurrent with the expansion of principal preparation programs, the internship became a major requirement of university-based preparation programs. Based on previous research, Williamson and Hudson (2001) discussed the common components among the university-based preparation programs that include (a) developing purpose and vision in collaboration with students, school district personnel, and prospective school leaders; (b) incorporating the program knowledge and skills to meet school leadership requirements; (c) enhancing teaching and student achievement and to make an overall change at school (Figueiredo-Brown, Ringler, & James, 2015); and (d) expanding the inclusion of clinical activities such as a clinically rich internship.

The purpose of having field work experience was to provide the interns with developmental opportunities to do authentic application of the leadership knowledge they acquire at the preparation program. Every preparation program requires certain field hours of field experience as part of their principal preparation programs. This requirement varies from one program to another ranging from 100 hours to be 400 or

more (Hackman, Russell, & Elliot, 1999). For example, principal preparation program at Colorado State University requires 300 hours of field work while New Mexico requires 120 hours (Education Science, 2018; College of Education, 2015). In order to make the internship experience more rigorous, most universities require the internship school to be different from the school in which a teacher serves. In order to complete principal certification, an internship course (3-credit hours) is required. This course should follow specific state standards. Many programs such as programs at New Mexico University (College of Education, 2018), Texas A&M University (College of Education and Human Development, 2018) and Tennessee State University (Educational Leadership, 2018) require this course to be taken within the last 12 credit hours of the program. In addition to the coursework, students are required to have a mentor from the internship school who would support the learning experience (Darling-Hammond, Meyerson, LaPointe, & Orr, 2010; Figueiredo-Brown, Ringler, & James, 2015) and a university supervisor who would follow up the implementation of the internship program (Cunningham, 2007).

Program course-content integration. In their qualitative study, Davis and Darling-Hammond (2012) examined preparation programs on five university campuses. They contended that a curriculum-based internship was the common feature among the five programs. The coursework of the internship was mainly online. Most of the university-based preparation programs require a three credit-hours internship course. For example, College of Education and Human Development at Texas A&M University (TAMU) offers a principal certification that includes a three credit-hours internship course which should be completed within the last 12 hours of their certification program.

This internship course is online and students are expected to login on a regular basis. In addition, interns should create their online weekly journal in which they log their learning experiences (CEHD, 2017).

Admission policies of principal preparation programs. Program admission is a controversial component because it affects the preparation program as a whole. Researchers have argued that admission policies do not significantly help identify the high potential applicants (Creighton, 2002; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Hale & Moorman, 2003; Hess & Kelly, 2005). Lashway (2003) emphasized that there is an indirect relationship between the program admission and the internship policies. He also found that the university-district partnership mediates this relationship and plays a role to identify the high potential candidates besides to hosting meaningful internship.

Methods

Structural equation modeling (SEM), using MPLUS 8, was employed to examine the hypothesized model within a simple path model that assessed the relationships between the effectiveness of internship policies on the implemented internship programs. The WLSMV estimator using MPLUS was utilized because it does not assume normally distributed variables plus it works well with small sample size (DiStefano & Morgan, 2014). Hancock (2003) emphasized SEM is commonly employed in social science because it has the ability to make relationships between the unobservable (latent variable) constructs and the observable ones (indicators).

Data Source and Participants

Carnegie Mellon University Classification was employed to determine the sample population. The population includes 4,665 universities across the nation. Guion (2002) asserted that the sample selection must be built on the basis of criteria that is relevant to the purpose of the target measurement. Therefore, two main criteria were considered: (a) only public universities of the states; and (b) public universities in which 1000+ master students were enrolled as noted by Carnegie classification of 2015. Thus, a total of 518 universities were surveyed and analyzed. In order to achieve significant accuracy in SEM, a large sample size is required (Kline, 2011; Nevitt & Hancock, 2004).

Data Collection and Instrumentation

Principal Preparation Program Policy (4Ps) survey has been developed to collect the data required for this study. 4Ps was developed using the literature, the UCEA principal preparation rubric (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015), and the Taskforce on Evaluating Leadership Preparation Programs (UCEA/LTEL-SIG) survey (Orr, 2003). The researchers identified five constructs in the UCEA rubric: (a) admission; (b) standards; (c) internship; (d) partnership with the district; and (e) program oversight (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015). The Taskforce on Evaluating Leadership Preparation Programs (UCEA/LTEL-SIG) survey included items to address the perceptions of the program graduate on the quality of the program. In 4Ps I adopted items from the UCEA/LTEL-SIG survey to address the university characteristics, 4Ps Included 84 items (a) one item for signing the consent form; (b) 14 items for university characteristics; (c)

12 items for the admission construct; (d) 30 items for the internship construct; (e) seven items for the university-district construct; (f) 16 items for the program course-content integration construct; and (g) four items for feedback (see Appendix A).

Data were collected using the Principal Preparation Programs Policy Survey (4Ps) that was developed and utilized as the instrument of this study. Questions about internship requirements, description, and policies were included. This survey was built on the basis of the UCEA rubric (Anderson & Reynolds, 2015), the UCEA INSPIRE survey, and the UCEA/LTEL-SIG Survey of Leadership Preparation and Practice (see Appendix A). The focus of the survey questions measured four constructs related to the internship: (a) demographic information; (b) admission; (c) program course integration; and (d) partnership with the school district. The survey was tested three times through two pilot tests and face-validation with two experts in education administration (the reliability was explained in details in the results).

The survey was distributed online, using Qualitrics, and sent to the chairs of the principal preparation programs at 518 large size public universities between October 3, 2017 and November 5, 2017. There were 193 responses collected (37.25%) which approximated the number recommended by Kline (2011). The responses were universities from most states as shown in Table 13. The highest responses came from Texas (19 responses), California (11 responses), and North Carolina (9 responses). The lowest responses came from states that submitted only one response. These states were from Washington D.C., Iowa, Oregon, South Carolina, South Dakota, Vermont,

Washington, West Virginia, and Wyoming. The responses represented universities in urban, suburban, and rural locations as shown in Figure 22.

Table 13

The Frequencies of Responses per State

State	Freq.	State	Freq.	State	Freq.	State	Freq.	State	Freq.
AL	5	IA	1	MN	4	NY	6	VA	7
AR	3	ID	2	MO	5	OH	4	VT	1
AZ	4	IL	5	MS	6	OK	2	WA	1
CA	11	IN	4	MT	6	OR	1	WI	5
CO	5	KS	4	NC	9	PA	6	WV	1
CT	2	KY	5	ND	3	SC	1	WY	1
DC	1	LA	5	NH	2	SD	1	Guam	1
FL	3	MD	5	NJ	4	TN	4	Total	193
GA	7	ME	3	NM	4	TX	19		
HI	1	MI	7	NV	4	UT	2		

The responses represented universities in urban, suburban, and rural locations as shown in Figure 22.

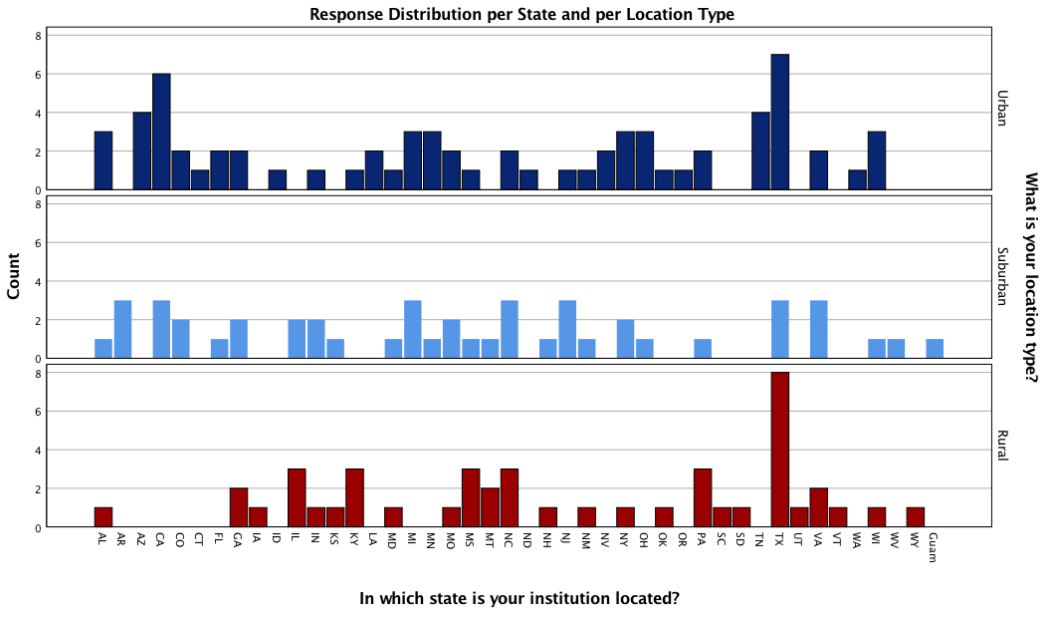

Figure 22. The responses distribution per state and per location.

Data Analysis

As preliminary analyses, exploratory factor analysis was conducted to determine the underlying constructs. In addition, Cronbach's alpha value was calculated to measure the reliability of the constructs. Because the survey was developed for this study, explanatory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted using MPLUS to divulge the underlying structure relationships between the measured variables (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999; Norris, & Lecavalier, 2010). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was computed to test the hypothesis of the existence of relationships between the observed and the latent variables (Kline, 2015). The two-index presentation strategy was employed to evaluate the model fit (Hu, & Bentler, 1999). Hu and Bentler (1999) identified a good fit model as the model which includes SRMR close to 0.8, combined with comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) with a value close to .95 for each; and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) with a value close to .06. Because of the dichotomous nature of the data, the weighted root mean square residual (WRMR), CFI, TLI, and the RMSEA, were computed. Mplus 8 was used to examine the model fit.

Reliability of the first draft of the survey. A Cronbach reliability test was utilized to evaluate the appropriateness of the measurement model used for final SEM (Doloi, Iyer, & Sawhney, 2011; Jin, Doloi, & Gao, 2007). Cronbach's alpha was tested to measure the reliability. Gliem and Gliem (2003) defined Cronbach's alpha as "a test reliability technique that requires only a single test administration to provide a unique estimate of the reliability for a given test" (p. 84). The range of Cronbach alpha is from 0

to 1 (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). Santos (1999) described the acceptable consistency of Cronbach's alpha as the value of 0.7 while George and Mallery (2003) argued that a value or .6 or larger is an acceptable Cronbach alpha value. Excluding the demographic questions, 41 questions were examined and found that the value of Cronbach alpha value was .911 which is significantly higher that the cut off value of 0.7.

Stage two (pilot distribution II). The revision of the first pilot resulted in an increase in the number of the questions and modifications to the content of the questions. Two questions were added and revisions to the existing questions were conducted. The second version included 62 questions under the same five constructs. The questions were distributed among a larger pilot sample (200 program chairs and professors) and 52 individuals responded to the survey. The value of Cronbach alpha value was .601 which is lower than the cut-off (Cronbach alpha value > .7). Thus, this version needed more revisions.

Stage three (face-validation). Stage three in the 4Ps survey validation was the content validity assessment. Two experts in educational administration reviewed the each of the 62 survey questions. The expert reviews assess the extent to which the items in the scale fit their dimensions (Luo, 2008). As a result of the face-validation, the scale was modified to be binary in which Yes=1 and No=0. Some of the existing questions were modified, and more questions were added. The final instrument (4Ps) was comprised of 85 questions under the five constructed as mentioned above. After excluding the demographic and open-ended questions, the Cronbach alpha value for the

final version was 0.791 which indicates high reliability (Cronbach, 1951). For the purpose of this study, only 21 questions out of the 85 questions were analyzed.

The Instrument Constructs and Their Reliabilities

Prior to examining the fit of the hypothesized model, the reliability coefficients of Cronbach's alpha for the four constructs was calculated. The reliability coefficients of Cronbach alpha for the four constructs: (a) admission; (b) internship; (c) university-district partnership; and (d) course-content integration were .81, .84, .83, and .74 respectively which means that the reliability coefficients of the four constructs are larger than 0.7 (Cronbach, 195) as shown in Table 14.

Table 14

Description and Reliability of the Items

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Admission	19.3295	176.292	.744	.560	.808
Internship	13.6932	75.548	.864	.749	.841
Partnership	22.2159	189.872	.792	.643	.826
Program Content integration	18.9091	144.359	.842	.731	.740

Measures of the study. Internship was measured as the dependent variable and then the three independent constructs (e.g. university-district partnership, program course integration, and admission). The four variables were measured using binary scale: yes=1 and no=0.

The dependent variables of internship construct include seven items: (a) the internship has field work that is an extension of course work; (b) our program/university has a policy that requires interns to collaborate with principals (their mentors) in core leadership responsibilities; (c) our program/university has a policy that requires interns to design projects that improve leadership; (d) our program/university has a policy that requires interns to design campus projects based on standards; (e) our program/university has a policy that requires Interns to complete a minimum of one activity for each standard for the adopted standards (ELCC, ISLLC, State, etc.); (f) during the internship period, an assigned program faculty member is required to evaluate the progress of the intern; and (g) interns are required to be supervised by a mentor from the field-site.

University-district partnership represents the first independent variable. It includes four items: (a) There is a commitment from partner districts to provide a robust internship experience; (b) Our program/university has a policy that requires the district to participate in nominating and/or selecting candidates to the program; (c) Our program/university has a policy that aligns our program with the partner district's needs; and (d) The partner district gives priority to hiring program graduates into school or district leadership positions.

Program course integration represents the second independent variable. It includes five items: (a) There is a requirement for the program to undergo a state review at specified intervals; (b) There is an emphasis on including a feedback mechanism to improve the program; (c) If a feedback mechanism is included, there is an emphasis on

assessing students' satisfaction of the overall program; (d) If a feedback mechanism is included, there is an emphasis on assessing the knowledge and skills gained by the overall program; and (e) Our program/university has a policy regarding program evaluation.

Admission represents the third independent variable. It includes five items: (a) Our program/university has a policy that requires some type of leadership experience to be noted by the applicants; (b) Our program/university has a policy that requires professional letters of recommendations from the applicants; (c) Our program/university has a policy that requires a personal statement from applicants; (d) Our program/university has a policy that requires an essay from applicants; and (e) Our program/university has a policy that requires a résumé from applicants.

Results

Factor analysis was utilized to determine the underlying constructs for measures on the 21 questions of the 4Ps survey. The survey was on a dichotomous scale representing categorical data (the data include yes or no responses). MPlus 8 provides functions that deal better with the categorical data (Muthén & Muthén, 2015; Schmitt, 2011). Therefore, EFA was conducted using Mplus. Four models were produced to examine the underlying constructs. The 1-factor model did not have a good fit because the chi-square (χ^2=1721.334) is large and significant; the RMSEA is larger than 0 (RMSEA=0.225); CFI and the TLI are <.9 (0.863 and 0.848 respectively). The results of 2-factors and 3-factors models also did not show a good fit as shown in Table 15. In contrast, the fit indices of the 4-factors model show perfect fit because chi-square (χ^2 =

288.152 is respectively small compared with the other three models; the RMSEA is not equal to zero, but it is relatively small; CFI and TLI are higher than 0.9 (0.986 and 0.978 respectively). In conclusion, the 4-factor model fits the data best compared with the other three models and confirms that the fit indices of this model are acceptable.

Table 15

The Fit Indices of EFA Four Models

Model Fit Indices	1-factor model	2-factor model	3-factor model	4-factor model
χ^2	1721.334	763.296	549.347	288.152
p-value	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
df	189	169	150	132
RMSEA	0.225	0.148	0.129	0.086
CFI	0.863	0.947	0.964	0.986
TLI	0.848	0.934	0.950	0.978
SRMR	0.240	0.095	0.078	0.048

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

The next step was to examine the discriminate and the convergent validity. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to examine the theoretical relationships among both the observed variables (latent variables) and the unobserved variables (the question items of the survey) (Jackson, Gillaspy, & Purc-Stephenson, 2009; Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2006). As shown in Table 16, the goodness-of-fit indices indicated that the model provides an adequate representation of the data. The fit indices for the four-factor model are as follows: =868.037/183, CFI= 0.939, TLI= 0.930. Based on previous studies, the model is considered acceptable fit when the values are 0.9 or above (Byrne, 1994; Kline, 2015; Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2006). Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value reflects the model goodness-of-fit

with a consideration of the model parsimony. Thus, the adequate RMSEA value is 0.08 or less. Because this model was scaled on a binary scale, the RMSEA = 0.153 and the weighted root mean square residual (WRMR)= 2.08 are acceptable and fit the data. Based on the results, the model is considered as an acceptable fit for the four constructs. The correlation estimates (maximum likelihood-ML) among the four latent constructs are all statistically significant. The conclusion based on using these indicators was that the hypothesized model described the relations among the internship policies, district-university partnership policies, admission policies, and program course integration policies as shown in Figure 23.

Table 16
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Fit (CFA) Indices

Model Fit Indices	CFA
χ^2	868.032
p-value	0.0000
df	183
RMSEA	0.153
CFI	0.939
TLI	0.930
WRMR	2.087

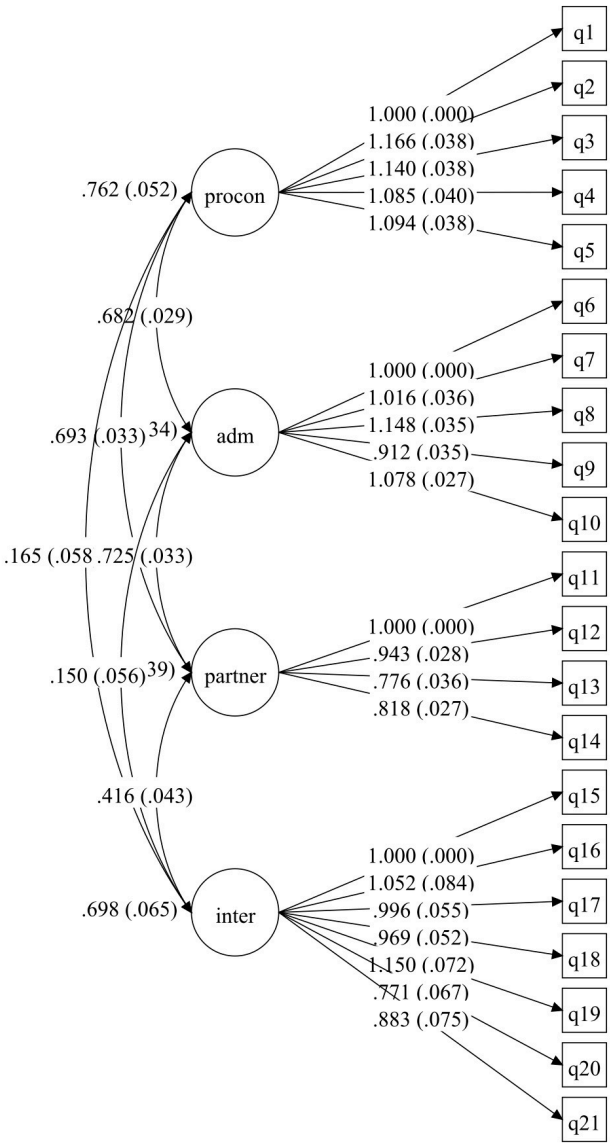

Figure 23. Schematic diagram of the confirmatory factor analysis CFA model permutations.

SEM- Model 1A: Internship Policy Relationships

The purpose of this study was to develop structural equation models to examine the factors that affect internship policies in three dimensions: (a) admission; (b) university-district partnership; and (c) program course integration. Structural equation modeling is a useful quantitative function to achieve this purpose because researchers can determine, estimate, and test the hypothesized models that describe relationships between variables (Hoyle, 1995; Kline, 2011).

The measure of fit-root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was utilized to evaluate and specify the model instead of using the chi square because the sample size influences significantly the value of chi square. RMSEA value was 0.053, which is less than 0.06 and indicates a good fit (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2006). The comparative fit index (CFI) and the Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) were also examined. CFI compares the fit of the existing model with the null model. The CFI and TLI of this model are 0.94 and 0.93 respectively which indicate a good fit.

Consistent with the hypothesized model, the internship policies are associated with university-district partnership. The university with good partnership policies is more likely to have good internship policies and efficient internship programs. The admission policies; however, were less likely to be associated with the internship policies. The results show that universities that developed good internship policies do not have relatively good admission policies. Interestingly, the course integration policies were less likely to be associated with the internship policies as shown in Figure 24. This finding led universities to reconsider their policies regarding the program course

integration. The literature suggested that the more course integration the better internships students would have (Murphy, 2006; Orr, 2010). However, there is no evidence of the significance of the correlation between the policies regarding internship and course integration.

The results also illustrated that admissions policies predicted the program course integration policies and the university-district partnership policies. Campuses that developed good admission policies are more likely to have well-developed program courses that are integrated with the internship program. In addition, campuses with clear and concrete collaborative district partnership policies are more likely to have good admission policies as shown in Figure 24.

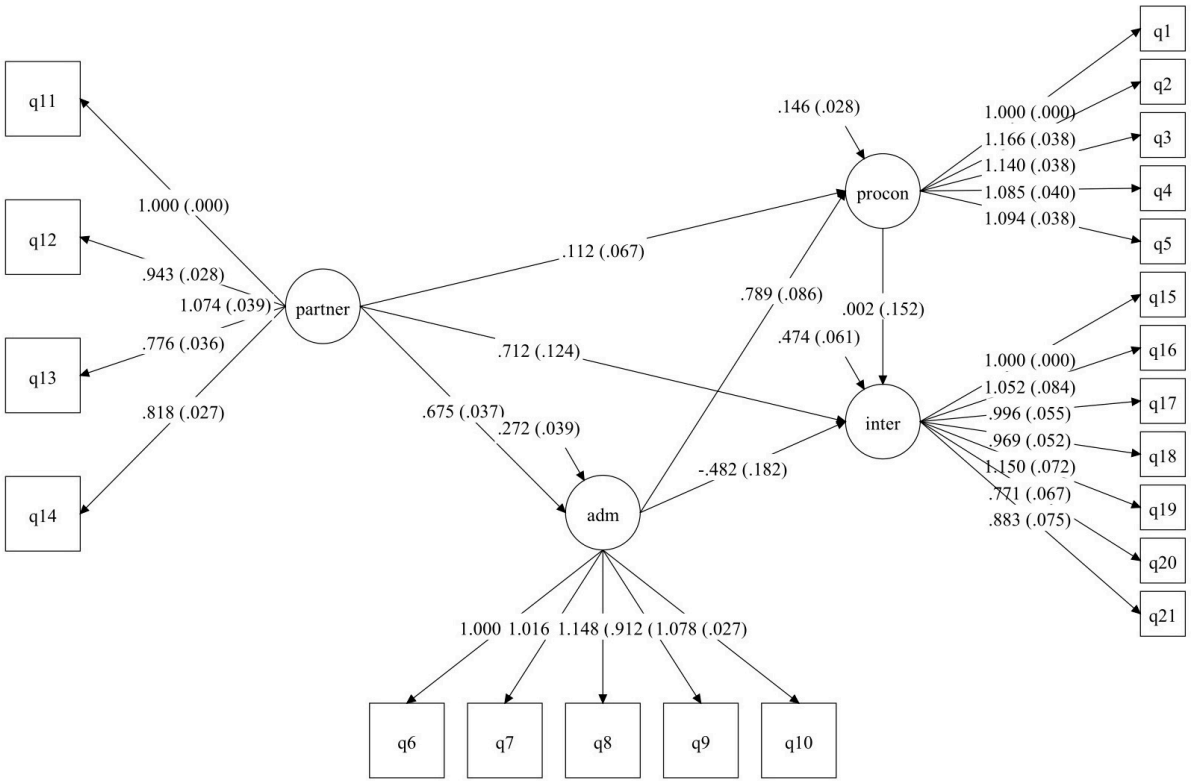

Figure 24. Schematic diagram of structural equation model 1.

SEM- Model 1B: Internship Policy Relationships with Only Significant Paths

Based on Model 1, university-district partnership does not have a significant relationship with the program course integration policies. After removing this relationship, model 2 (as shown in Figure 25) was developed to show the relationships between the four constructs without partnership-course integration relationship. Model 2 shows that the model has an acceptable fit (=850.059, *p*-value < 0.001, CFI=0.94, and TLI=0.932). In this model, partnership policies have significant and positive estimation

values with internship and admission (0.77/*p*-value<0.001, and 0.687/*p*-value <0.001 respectively). These relationships mean that the universities that develop good district partnership policies are more likely to have good internship and admission policies for their preparation programs. Similarly, admission policies have a significant relationship with positive estimation (0.919/*p*-value=0.001) with the program-course integration, which means that the universities that produce good admission policies are more likely to produce good program course integration policies. In contrast, this model shows that the relationship between internship policies and admission policies was significant but with negative estimation value (-0.755/*p*-value=0.007), which means that the universities that develop good admission policies are less likely to develop good internship policies. In addition, this model shows that the internship does not have a significant relationship with the program course-integration policies (0.214/*p*-value=0.288). In order to create a more understandable picture, some controlling variables including the university location (urban, suburban, and rural), the type of the instruction platform (face-to-face, online, and hybrid), and the type of the cohort (traditional cohort, non-cohort, and mixed cohort), were added.

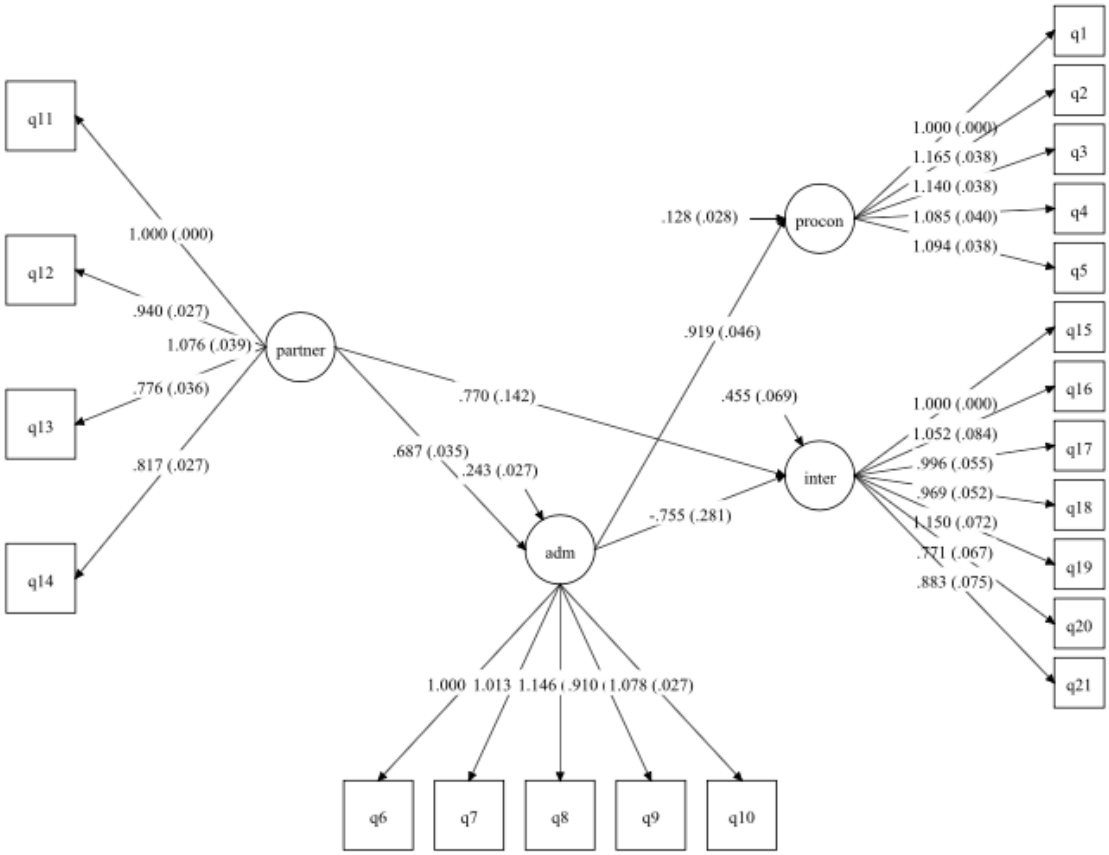

Figure 25. Schematic diagram of SEM model 1 only with paths with significant coefficient.

SEM-Model 2: The Effect of Location and Program the Model Relationships

In order to examine whether the relationships between the four constructs would change when adding an additional controlling variable, I have included the location of the university (rural, suburban, and urban), the type of the cohort (mixed cohort), and the type of the course platform (online). Traditional cohort and non-cohort, face-to-face, and hybrid variables were excluded due to their low factor loading. The new developed model shows an acceptable fit because the values of the comparative fit index (CFI) and

the Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) are 0.931 and 0.923, respectively, which are larger than 0.9. Chi square also reports an acceptable fit 757.468 with a significant *p*-value of 0.001.

Because this study is exploratory, the significant value of 0.10 is used to examine the path estimation. As shown in Figure 26, the new model drew a significant relationship between partnership and the admission (0.62, *p*-value 0.001), which means that universities that develop good university-district partnerships policies are more likely to have good internship policies. In addition, the university-district partnership has a significant relationship with the program course integration (0.16, *p*-value 0.02), which means that the universities that develop good partnership policies are more likely to have good course integration policies. Similarly, there is a significant relationship between the admission and program course integration (0.78, *p*-value 0.001), which illustrates that universities that develop good admission policies are more likely to have good policies related to program course integration. This model also illustrated that there is a significant relationship between program course integration policies and internship policies (0.47, *p*-value 0.001), which means that universities that develop good program course integration policies are more likely to have good internship policies. Internship and the university-district partnership policies have a significant relationship (0.36, *p*-value 0.001). Admission, mixed-cohort, and the rural location of the university have negative and significant relationship with internship policies (-0.41/*p*-value 0.004, -0.31/*p*-value 0.07, and -0.28/*p*-value < 0.001, respectively) which means that universities in the rural locations and/or develop good admission policies are less likely to have good internship policies. An online platform has a significant relationship with internship

(0.335, *p*-value 0.78), which means that the universities that promote online education are more likely to have good internship policies. Only universities in suburban locations do not a significant relationship with internship (0.16, *p*-value 0.34).

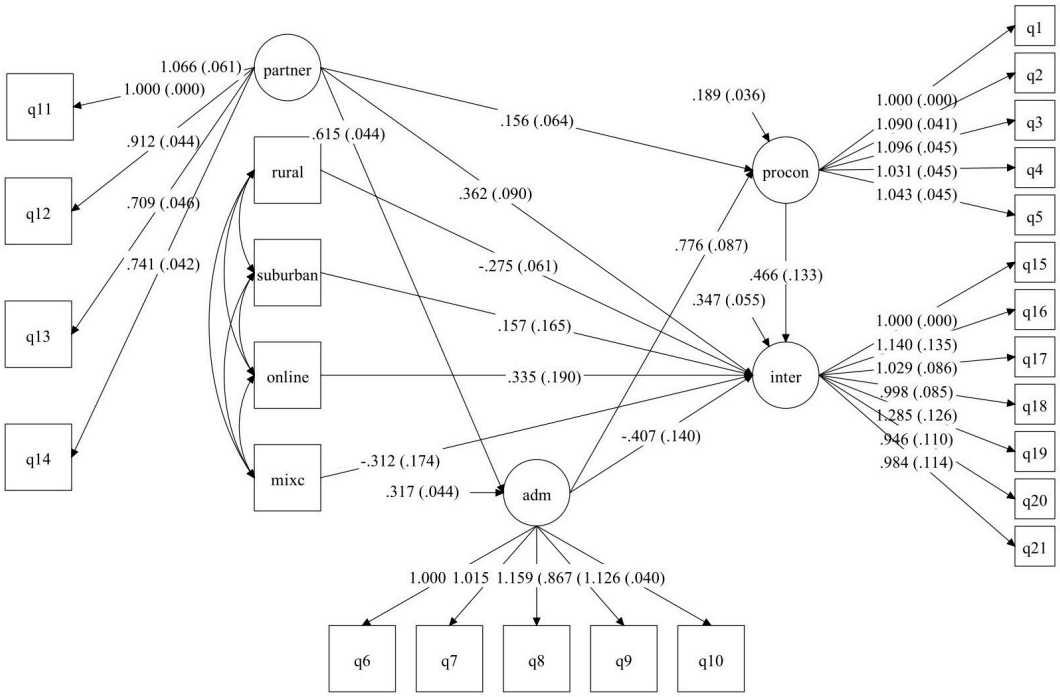

Figure 26. Schematic diagram of Structural equation model 2.

Comparing the two models, model 2 has the smaller Chi-square (χ^2=757.46) and the smallest RMSEA (0.108), and acceptable CFI (0.931) and acceptable TLI (0.923). There was, then, evidence that model 2 has acceptable fit as indicated in Table 16. Based on model 2, the research questions are answered. In addition, the χ^2 difference is significance because is larger than 0.

Table 17

Fit Indices for the Basic Model1, and Model 2

Model	χ^2	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	χ^2 diff
Model 1 (Basic conceptual model with only paths with significant paths)	850.059	0.150	0.940	0.932	
Model 2 (Basic conceptual model with adding controlling variables)	757.468	0.108	0.931	0.923	
Difference between Model 1 and Model 2					92.591

Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to indicate the relationships between the internship policies and the policies related to admission, university-district partnership, and program course-content that developed as parts of principal preparation programs at the university level. The chairs of principal preparation programs were surveyed to examine these relationships based on their experiences. The responses revealed overall precise mapping of the internship relationships. The internship policies are associated with the university-district partnership, program course integration, admission, location, the type of the program, and the type of instructional platform.

In addition to address the relationships between internship policies and the policies of admission, partnership, and program course-content integration, the effects of the university location, instructional type, and cohort type were considered. Using structural equation models helped answer the research questions. In the three questions, I examined the relationship between internship and the university-district partnership,

course-content integration, and admission respectively. I found that there was significant relationship between the three constructs and the internship. In questions four and five, I testified the indirect relationships between internship policies and both course-content integration and university-district partnership through admission. Based on the results, I concluded that there were significant relationships linked internship with the partnership and course integration through admission. In questions six and seven, I quantified the relationships between internship and the university location, the instructional type, and the cohort type. I found that online instructional type and the mixed cohort type have significant relationship with the internship as shown in Table 17.

Table 18

The Types of the Relationships between the Constructs and the Controlling Variable Based on Model 2

Relationship	(RQs)	Type of the relationship
University-district partnership and Internship	RQ-1	Significant and positive
Program course-content Integration and Internship	RQ-2	Significant and positive
Admission and Internship	RQ-3	Significant and negative
Admission and Program course-content Integration	RQ-4	Significant and positive
Admission and University-district partnership	RQ-5	Significant and positive
Universities in rural locations and Internship	RQ-6	Significant and negative
Universities in urban or suburban locations and Internship	RQ-6	Insignificant
The type of program platform (face-to-face and/or hybrid) and the internship	RQ-7	Insignificant
The type of program online and the internship	RQ-7	Significant and positive
The type of program cohort (cohort and/or non-cohort) and the internship	RQ-7	Insignificant
The type of program cohort (mixed cohort) and the internship	RQ-7	Significant and negative

The Effects of University-District Partnership on Internship

The results of the relationship between the internship and the partnership with the district are consistent with the previous research (Davis & Darling-Hammond, 2012; Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Hale & Mooreman, 2003; Williamson & Hudson, 2001). The University-district partnership helps achieve the vision in the standards. The internship was perceived as the main pillar of the preparation program, therefore, there is a need to develop good internship policies. Universities realized that the internship would not be accomplished without having effective collaboration with school districts. The analyses of the collected data show that there was a significant relationship between the university-partnership policies and the internship policies. This significant relationship emphasizes the importance of establishing collaborative communications and cooperation between the university and the district with which the internship would be enriched.

The university-district partnership is an important component of preparation program improvement because it affects directly and indirectly the quality of the internship. Consistent with the previous literature, the results revealed that the program decision makers emphasize that there should be collaboration with school districts by which districts are committed to provide internships with high quality (Murphy, 2006). These results are consistent with the previous findings on the district's role in improving the quality of the preparation programs (Davis & Darling-Hammond, 2005; Hess & Kelly, 2005; Lashway, 2003; Orr & Orphanos, 2011). The high frequency of the number of required internship hours illustrated that the more internship hours the program

requires, the better internship would be received when these hours are associated with on-site mentoring, faculty supervision, and engagement in leadership practices. On the one hand, the district collaboration and commitment to the preparation program extended to build trust between the university and the district based of which the district: (a) would be involved in the nomination the program candidates; and (b) would hire the graduates of the preparation program upon their graduation. On the other hand, the university seeks for the district support to align the preparation program with the district needs.

The Effects of Admission on Internship

Admission requirements are the first step of enrollment in the preparation program. Applicants need to meet at least the minimum requirements that includes: (a) > 3.0 GPA in the bachelor degree; (b) GRE score; (c) student's resume; (d) personal interview; (e) essay sample; and (f) leadership experience. Admission was a controversial component because researchers argued that preparation program admission requirements do not reflect the program features (Levine, 2005; Orr & Orphanos, 2011). Therefore, the exemplary preparation programs do not show distinct relationships between admission and the internship. Consistent with the previous literature, this study revealed that there is a negative relationship which means that the universities do not align the admission policies with the internship requirements and with the program as a whole.

Admission requirements are the first step of enrollment in the preparation program. Applicants need to meet at least the minimum requirements that includes: (a) a

GPA of at least 3.0 from undergraduate coursework; (b) GRE scores; (c) resume; (d) personal interview; (e) essay sample; and (f) leadership experience. Admission was a controversial component because researchers argued that preparation program admission requirements do not reflect the program features (Levine, 2005; Orr & Orphanos, 2011). Therefore, the exemplary preparation programs do not show distinct relationships between admission and the internship. Consistent with the previous literature, this study revealed that there is a negative relationship between admission policies to the preparation program and internship (Lashway, 2003; Murphy, 2006; Orr & Orphanos, 2011). This indicates that the universities do not align the admission policies with the internship requirements and with the program as a whole.

In order to enrich the internship experience, policymakers of the preparation programs need to integrate internship policies with the admission policies. The awareness of the importance of school leadership to students' achievement led the policymakers to increase their emphasis on the preparation programs. Based on the NCLB (2001), ISLLCs and other principal preparation policies added more responsibilities for the school principals to help enhance students' achievements (Walters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003). Therefore, there was an increased interest on principal preparation to achieve this goal. As internship is the key component of the preparation program, there was a need to strengthen this component. In order to enrich the internship, policymakers of the preparation programs need to integrate internship policies with the admission policies. The relationship between admission and internship

policies is consistent with the previous literature because the researchers put great emphasis on connecting the admission with the leadership practices (Lashway, 2003).

The Effects of the Course-Content Integration on the Internship

There is a significant relationship between the internship and the course-content integration. This finding was consistent with the previous studies because it reflects the importance of linking the field experience with the coursework. Davis and Darling-Hammond (2012) emphasized that the exemplary preparation programs should include active instructional strategies that linked to the field-based internship in order to link theory to practice.

The Effects of the University Location on the Internship

It was found that the location of the university has a negative effect on the internship only when the university is located in rural and suburban locations. This finding indicates that the location of the university would help enrich the internship. For example, the university which serves urban settings would have more opportunity to develop rigorous internship programs because interns would have better opportunity to expose to diverse settings.

CHAPTER V

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

General Implications and Summary

This dissertation was designed in the three peer-reviewed journal articles. In this chapter, I summarize the past chapters which includes an introduction and the three peer-reviewed journal articles. The first chapter was introduction about the whole dissertation in which I explored the problem, the significant of the problem, and the main definitions. The second chapter was the first peer-reviewed journal article which was a systematic review of the literature. The purpose of this systematic study was to explore what was in the literature regarding to principal preparation policies and program. Chapter three was the second peer-reviewed journal article. The emphasis of the third chapter was on examining the differences between university preparation policies at states with high leverage policies and states with low leverage policies. In order to determine these differences, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was utilized. The fourth chapter was examining the relationships between internship as a major component of the preparation program and the admission, university-district partnership, and program course-content integration as aligned with the university principal preparation policies. For the fourth chapter, structural equation modeling was employed to address these relationships and their significance.

Implications and Recommendations from the First Study

The first study was *A Systematic Review of the Principal Preparation Policies and Programs*. The systematic review of principal preparation programs and policies revealed that there was a gap between the preparation programs and the leadership advancements. This argument led to the assumption that the preparation programs do not focus on the actual preparation of the potential leaders. Thus, there was a need to conduct more research that examine the influence of the preparation programs on the potential leaders. There was also a lack of policy analysis research on preparation policies. Thus, there was a need to conduct more analyses of the preparation policies and their influence on implementing preparation programs at the university level.

The ISLLC and the PSEL standards have been developed to meet the new tasks that principals have which substantially would help improve students' success. There was a need to provide the current and prospective principals with comprehensive professional development, which would promote them to develop and adapt their leadership application to be more effective in diverse school settings and contexts. One of the main objectives of the standards was meeting public expectations by creating an effective leadership practice that led to significant leadership outcomes; therefore, there is a need to establish a dynamic collaboration with: (a) professional associations; (b) higher education; and (c) non-profit organizations and foundations.

Integrating technology in school management is necessary to help build dynamic school leadership. The systematic review study revealed that there was a big gap across states in developing technology integration policies. States should develop policies for

school leaders with clearly defined standards emphasized creating a vision and implementing a plan focused on technology integration. In addition, states would develop a model of technology integration in school management which would be utilized to strengthen the school relationship with the community. For prospective principals, the preparation programs need to include more courses and knowledge about technology integration in school management.

Implications and Recommendations from the Second Study

The second study was *The Influence of State Policy and University Policies on the Principal Preparation Programs*. Because this study involved program preparation policy issues, there are many implications for future research and for practice that can be made for program reform. Firstly, because it was found that there were significant differences between admission policies of the programs developed in high leverage policies states and low leverage policy states, it would be crucial for the chairs of the preparation programs to be address the best policies for admission process. There is a need to conduct more empirical studies to examine the validity of the admission process. Policymakers need more research to help identify the potential leaders and help those future leaders to find their own leadership pathways. Secondly, because there was a significant difference in terms of internship between the two groups, it would be important to study internship requirements and processing in both groups. Thirdly, the difference between the two groups in terms of coursework integration was not statistically significant but the descriptive analysis shows slight differences. The importance of integrating courses with leadership practices would help the future leaders

to establish their leadership pattern and their leadership paradigm. Lastly, the analysis of the admission policies revealed that resume weighted more than GRE and GPA requirements. This finding indicates that the teaching and leadership experiences are more important qualification than the scholar scores. This indication would help develop admission policies which highlight the type of teaching and leadership experiences the applicants have. These new admission policies should address the teaching and leadership experiences in schools with high needs students and in schools with high diverse population.

For practice, I found differences between the preparation program policies in the two groups. Preparation programs at states with high leverage policies develop more concrete policies than states with low leverage policies. This means that state policies somehow guide the university to develop their own policies. This finding would help the chairs of the program to explore the policies of other universities preparation programs in order to enhance their own policies. In addition, the findings show that there were differences between the two groups when the school size, cohort type, and instruction types were considered. This finding would guide the chairs to understand the factors which motivate students to enrol in the preparation programs. This understanding would help improve the policies regarding to admission, internship, university-district partnership, and coursework integration. In addition, social justice should be one of the variables on which the admission policies are developed. Candidates from diverse groups should be considered in the admission process.

Implications and Recommendation from the Third Study

The Last study of this dissertation was *A Model-Based Approach to Validating Internship Program Indicator Using Structural Equation Modeling***.** Because the focus of this research was addressing the relationships between internship, admission, university-district partnership, and the program course integration policies, there are many implications for research and practice that can be made for the field of education leadership. First, because the research provides empirical evidence that the university-district partnership has a significant impact on the internship, it was important to review the exemplary university-district partnership and to hold regular meetings with the district administrators to discuss their need and their recommendations to improve the preparation programs. Additionally, there is a need to hold semi-annual meetings with the school superintendents as well as school principals to review the current policies and to evaluate their effectiveness. University-district assessment of the program is also required in order to help enhance the program. Internship is the major component of the program, therefore, the dynamic partnership with the district in required to make the internship valuable.

Second, because it was found that internship policies have a negative relationship with the admission policies, it means that the states with good internship policies do not have good admission policies. This finding would guide us to conclude that there is a need to develop better admission policies to help determine the potential leadership qualities of the students who would intern at schools at some points of the preparation program. The policymakers of leadership preparation programs need to include more

requirements that affirm the potential leadership skills that the applicant demonstrate or acquire, or they need to include more admission requirements that assesses the applicant's needs and expectations from the program. The admission interviews for the program should include questions about the relationship between the previous experience and the applicant's expectations of the program. It also needs to include questions about their expectation of the internship, and their perceptions about mentoring, diversity, and collaboration with the school administrators.

Third, because there was a significant correlation between the program course integration and the admission policies, it might be important for the admission teams at the university to collaborate with the team of the faculty members who develop the syllabi for this program. Those two teams need to create one vision with which the applicant can connect the admission requirements with their needs, and expectations of the program.

Fourth, because it was found that the location of the university has a negative effect on the internship only when the university is located in rural and suburban locations, it was important for those universities to reconsider their internship policies. The policymakers of the leadership preparation programs in the universities located in the rural and suburban locations need to create active and strong communication channels with school districts where the internships will take place. These communications would help create better internship plans as well as better partnership with the district.

Finally, I found that online courses are important for the internship as students can access the program content and communicate better with their faculty members. For the internship, it is important for the policymakers to increase the online courses to make the courses more accessible.

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APPENDIX A

PRINCIPAL PREPARATION PROGRAM POLICY SURVEY (4Ps)

Q1.1 Project Title: **An Analysis of University-Based Policies Related to Principal Preparation Programs (IRB2017-0299)** You are invited to take part in a research study conducted by Dr. Beverly J. Irby and Nahed Abdelrahman, from the Department of Educational Administration and Human Resource Development, College of Education and Human Development, at Texas A&M University. The information in this form is to help you decide whether or not to take part. If you decide to take part in the study, you will be asked to select "accept to participate" at the bottom of this information sheet. If you decide you do not want to participate, there will be no penalty to you, and you will not lose any benefits you normally would have. You may choose to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

Purpose of the Survey

The purpose of this study is to examine university-based policies related to principal preparation programs (These policies may emanate only from the program itself, and, if so, we will accept those as university-based policies for the purpose of this study.). We ask you to describe important aspects of your campus policy related to principal preparation programs. There are no right or wrong answers. Your opinion is what is desired. Your answers will enable us to map university-based policies related to principal preparation programs.

Why is this study being done?

Much research has been conducted to examine the effect of principal leadership and

principal preparation programs, but little has been done to examine university policies related to principal preparation programs. The purpose of this study is to examine how principal preparation programs correlate to university-based policies.

Why am I being asked to be in this study?

You are being asked to be in this study, because you are a coordinator or a professor of the principal preparation program at your campus.

How many people will be asked to be in this study?

Seven hundred sixteen (716) participants are anticipated to be invited to participate in this study.

What are the alternatives to being in this study?

The alternative to being in the study is to not participate.

What will I be asked to do in this study?

You will be asked to answer questions about the university-based policies related to the principal preparation program on your campus. In addition, there will be questions about university characteristics (e.g. size, location, or diversity).

Are there any risks to me?

Although the researchers have tried to avoid risks, you may feel that some questions that are asked are too personal. Feel free to skip the question(s) you do not want to answer. Your confidentiality is guaranteed, and all information you mention in the survey will be used for the purposes of this study.

Are there any benefits to me?

There is no direct benefit of participation.

Will there be any costs to me?

Aside from your time, there are no costs for taking part in the study.

Will I be paid to be in this study?

You will not be paid for being in this study

Will information from this study be kept private?

The completed surveys will be stored in electronic files protected with passwords and with a protection system that is developed to protect TAMU files. Information about you and/or your university will be kept confidential to the extent permitted or required by law. People who have access to your information include the Principal Investigator and research study personnel. Representatives of regulatory agencies such as the Office of Human Research Protections (OHRP) and entities such as the Texas A&M University Human Subjects Protection Program may access your records to make sure the study is being run correctly and that information is collected properly. Information about you related to this study will be kept confidential to the extent permitted or required by law.

Who may I contact for more information?

You may contact the PI, Dr. Beverly J. Irby, to tell her about a concern or complaint about this research at irbyb@tamu.edu.

For questions about your rights as a research participant, to provide input regarding research, or if you have questions, complaints, or concerns about the research, you may call the Texas A&M University Human Research Protection Program office by phone at 1- 979-458-4067, toll free at 1-855-795-8636, or by email at irb@tamu.edu.

What if I change my mind about participating?

This research is voluntary, and you have the choice whether or not to be in this research study. You may decide to not begin or to stop participating at any time. If you choose not to be in this study or stop participating in the study, there will be no effect on you, your employment status, medical care, employment, evaluation, or relationship with the university.

PLEASE SELECT EITHER "I ACCEPT TO PARTICIPATE" OR "I DO NOT ACCEPT TO PARTICIPATE" BELOW.

I accept to participate

I don't accept to participate

Q2.1 My program is:

- A Master's Degree Program
- A Specialist Degree Program
- A Post-Master's Degree Program (certification or licensure only)

Q2.2 Please provide the name of the program._____

Q2.3 What is the name of your institution?___

Q2.4 My program admits students...

- Once a year
- Twice a year
- Three times a year
- More than three times a year

Q2.5 My program, on average, had the following numbers of students totally.

- 10 to 50

- 51 to 100
- 101 to 200
- 201 to 300
- 301 to 500
- 501 to 1000
- 1000

Q2.6 My program is accredited by (Mark all that apply)

- A national accrediting agency such as SACSCOC
- CEAP- ELCC
- The State Education Agency
- Others: Please specify _____

Q2.7 In which state is your institution located?

- ▼ AK (1) ... WY (51)

Q2.8 What is the university size?

- Small (Total enrollment is up to 5,000 students)
- Medium (Total enrollment is between 5,000 and 15,000 students)
- Large (Total enrollment is between 15,000 and 30,000 students)
- Very Large (Total enrollment is more than 30,000 students)

Q2.9 What is your location type?

- Urban
- Suburban
- Rural

Q2.10 Academic year to which the program information you are providing here best applies:

- ▼ 2017-2018 (1) ... 2014-2015 (4)

Q2.11 Identify the type of the program

- Cohort program
- Non-cohort program
- Mixed--- cohort and non-cohort
- Others, please specify _____

Q2.12 Identify the type of model used for this program

- Face-to-face only
- Online only
- Hybrid (50% face-to-face, 50% online)
- Hybrid (49% face-to-face, 51% online)
- Hybrid (51% face-to-face, 49% online)
- Off campus in a school district
- Face-to-face, online, and off campus in a district (or a combination of these three)

Q2.13 What is/are the race(s)/ethnicity(ies) represented in the program? ***Check all that apply***

- White
- African American
- Hispanic

- Asian
- Native American
- International
- Other

Q2.14 Please indicate if your campus policies related to principal preparation program are at the following level(s):

- Program/Department
- College/School
- University
- All of the above

Q3.1 Our program/university has a plan for student recruitment.

- Yes
- No

Q3.2 Admission policies utilize performance-based assessment (Choose all that apply):

- GPA
- GRE
- Student résumé
- Personal interview
- Essay
- In-basket or other simulation activity

Q3.3 Our program/university has a policy that requires some type of leadership experience to be noted by the applicants.

- Yes, please provides example(s) _____
- No

Q3.4 Our program/university has a policy that emphasizes prior relevant experience when selecting students for admission into the program.

- Yes, please provide examples of prior experiences. _____
- No

Q3.5 Our program/university has a policy that requires professional letters of recommendations from the applicants.

- Yes
- No

Q3.6 Our program/university has a policy that supports recruitment of a diverse pool of students into the program.

- Yes
- No

Q3.7 Our program/university has a policy that requires a full review of the undergraduate transcripts for student selection for admission into the program.

- Yes
- No

Q3.8 Our program/university has a policy that requires the GRE, or MAT, or GMAT, or equivalent of applicants.

- Yes
- No

Q3.9 Our program/university has a policy that requires a personal statement from applicants.

- Yes
- No

Q3.10 Our program/university has a policy that requires an essay from applicants.

- Yes
- No

Q3.11 Our program/university has a policy that requires a résumé from applicants.

- Yes
- No

Q3.12 Our program/university has a policy that requires an interview with applicants.

- Yes
- No

Q4.1 Students receive written expectations of the field-work (e.g. field-work handbook).

- Yes
- No

Q4.2 What standards has your program adopted?

- State standards
- ISLLC standards
- ELCC standards
- Local program standards
- National Education Leadership Preparation Standards. (formerly ELCC)

Q4.3 Our program/university has a policy that requires embedding internship activities into content courses throughout the program.

- Yes
- No

Q4.4 The internship has field work that is an extension of course work.

- Yes
- No

Q4.5 Our program/university has a policy that requires interns to collaborate with principals (their mentors) in core leadership responsibilities.

- Yes. Please give examples_____
- No

Q4.6 Our program/university has a policy that requires interns to design projects that demonstrate leadership.

- Yes
- No

Q4.7 Our program/university has a policy that requires interns to design campus projects based on standards.

- Yes
- No

Q4.8 Our program/university has a policy that requires Interns to complete a minimum of one activity for each standard for the adopted standards (ELCC, ISLLC, State, etc.).

- Yes

- No

Q4.9 During the internship period, an assigned program faculty member is required to evaluate the achievement of the intern has served and is certified/licensed as a principal.

- Yes
- No

Q4.10 During the internship the faculty member makes face-to-face campus visits to the intern.

- 10-15 times
- 4-9 times
- 3 times
- 2 times
- 1 time

Q4.11 During the internship, the faculty member makes online campus visits with the intern.

- 10-15 times
- 4-9 times
- 3 times
- 2 times
- 1 time

Q4.12 Interns are required to be supervised by a mentor from the field-site.

- Yes
- No

Q4.13 Mentors are selected by the intern only.

- Yes
- No

Q4.14 Mentors are selected by program faculty only.

- Yes
- No

Q4.15 Mentors are selected by both program faculty and the intern.

- Yes
- No

Q4.16 Selection of mentors is based on the match between the intern's needs and mentor's expertise.

- Yes
- No

Q4.17 It is required to provide on-site mentors with training to guide supervision of the interns.

- Yes
- No

Q4.18 Interns are required to be exposed to multiple levels of campus sites (i.e., elementary, middle, or high school).

- Yes
- No

Q4.19 An intern is required to work in one or more schools, serving students from a variety of backgrounds, ethnicities, and languages.

- Yes
- No

Q4.20 On average, how many field-based experience hours does the intern need to complete in your program?

- less than 150
- 150-200
- 200-300
- 300-400
- more than 400

Q4.21 If the program is a residency program with the above-mentioned hours in the field, how are the required residency hours recorded?

- By semester
- By year
- By summer

Q4.22 Our program/university has a policy that supports an induction year for the principal/assistant principal

- Yes
- No

Q4.23 Our program/university has a policy that financially supports principal candidates in the program to engage in a full-time or part-time internship/practicum

- Yes
- No

Q4.24 Interns must observe teachers and provide feedback in a coaching session during the internship.

- Yes
- No

Q4.25 Interns must analyze student data from a campus and provide a report during the internship.

- Yes
- No

Q4.26 Interns must lead a professional development related to instruction during the internship.

- Yes
- No

Q4.27 Interns must analyze the budget of the campus and provide a report during the internship.

- Yes
- No

Q4.28 Interns must review the Campus Improvement Plan and provide a report as to the effectiveness of implementation during the internship.

- Yes
- No

Q4.29 Interns must address an issue related to social justice, cultural bias, or student equity during the internship.

- Yes
- No

Q4.30 Interns complete an internship portfolio.

- Yes
- No

Q5.1 There is commitment from partner districts to provide a robust internship experience.

- Yes
- No

Q5.2 There are negotiations with school district(s) about the schedule of the program in general and internship in particular.

- Yes
- No

Q5.3 Our program/university has a policy that requires the faculty members involve district and campus personnel in making contributions in designing the program based on their needs.

- Yes
- No

Q5.4 Our program/university has a policy that requires the district to participate in nominating and/or selecting candidates to the program.

- Yes
- No

Q5.5 Our program/university has a policy that aligns our program with the partner district's needs.

- Yes
- No

Q5.6 The partner district gives priority to hiring program graduates into school or district leadership positions.

- Yes
- No

Q5.7 Our program/university has a policy that requires or recommends the engagement of an Advisory Board for obtaining feedback for the program.

- Yes
- No

Q6.1 What is the minimum number of credit hours required to complete the program?

Less than 30

- 31-40
- 41-60
- 60 +

Q6.2 The number of the program credit hours are sufficient for achieving the program goals.

- Yes

- No

Q6.3 What is the duration of a typical program?

- 2 -3 semesters
- 3-4 semesters
- 4-6 semesters
- 6 semesters or more

Q6.4 Our program/university has a policy that requires the faculty members to have superintendency or principalship experiences.

- Yes
- No

Q6.5 The faculty members are required to have PK-12 educational supervisory or administrative experience to teach in the internship.

- Yes
- No

Q6.6 There is a requirement for the program to undergo a state review at specified intervals.

- Yes
- No

Q6.7 Our program/university has a policy that requires including instructional leadership courses in the program.

- Yes
- No

Q6.8 There is an emphasis on including a feedback mechanism to improve the program.

- Yes
- No

Q6.9 If a feedback mechanism is included, there is emphasis on assessing students' satisfaction of the overall program.

- Yes
- No

Q6.10 If a feedback mechanism is included, there is emphasis on assessing the knowledge and skills gained by the overall program

Yes

No

Q6.11 Our program/university has a policy regarding program evaluation

- Yes
- No

Q6.12 Is the evaluation of the program dependent in large part on the student's performance on a state exam

- Yes
- No

Q6.13 How does the program use the outcomes of the program evaluation to improve program quality?_____

Q6.14 If the program includes school/student achievement where the graduate is the principal, how long after graduation do you collect such data?

- 1-2 years
- 3-5 years
- 5-10 years
- More than 10 years
- N/A

Q6.15 Students pay additional fees for distance or online education in the amount of:

- $0
- $1-$100 per credit hour
- $101-$200 per credit hour
- $201-$300 per credit hour
- >$300 per credit hour

Q6.16 Students who may be international who are enrolled in the program online, pay international (out of state) fees.

- Yes
- No

Q7.1 If you could alter any policy related to your university's principal preparation program, what would that be?_____

Q7.2 Our questions are completed. We would appreciate it if you would share additional information to help us understand your program better. _____

Q8.2 Thank you so much for participation.

APPENDIX B

RELIABILITY MEASURES OF THE SURVEY VARIABLES

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Our program/university has a policy that requires professional letters of recommendations from the applicants.	32.89	50.445	.249	.852
Our program/university has a policy that supports recruitment of a diverse pool of students into the program.?	32.96	49.389	.393	.849
Our program/university has a policy that requires a full review of the undergraduate transcripts for student selection for admission into the program.	32.91	49.993	.318	.851
Our program/university has a policy that requires the GRE, or MAT, or GMAT, or equivalent of applicants.	33.32	48.744	.409	.849
Our program/university has a policy that requires a personal statement from applicants.	32.81	50.593	.339	.851
Our program/university has a policy that requires an essay from applicants.	33.19	48.506	.441	.848
Our program/university has a policy that requires a résumé from applicants.	32.94	49.931	.313	.851
Our program/university has a policy that requires an interview with applicants.	33.23	50.835	.105	.856

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Students receive written expectations of the field-work (e.g. field-work handbook).	32.85	51.434	.071	.855
Our program/university has a policy that requires embedding internship activities into content courses throughout the program.	33.02	48.717	.463	.848
The internship has field work that is an extension of course work.	32.79	50.997	.277	.852
Our program/university has a policy that requires interns to design projects that demonstrate leadership.	32.85	49.521	.508	.848
Our program/university has a policy that requires interns to design campus projects based on standards.	33.06	48.931	.409	.849
Our program/university has a policy that requires Interns to complete a minimum of one activity for each standard for the adopted standards (ELCC, ISLLC, State, etc.).	32.85	50.695	.238	.852
During the internship period, an assigned program faculty member is required to evaluate the achievement of the intern has served and is certified/licensed as a principal.	32.79	51.041	.262	.852
Interns are required to be supervised by a mentor from the field-site.	32.74	51.846	.000	.854

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Mentors are selected by the intern only.	33.43	54.598	-.427	.867
Mentors are selected by program faculty only.	33.70	51.127	.232	.853
Mentors are selected by both program faculty and the intern.	33.11	49.619	.291	.851
Selection of mentors is based on the match between the intern's needs and mentor's expertise.	32.98	49.152	.419	.849
It is required to provide on-site mentors with training to guide supervision of the interns.	33.17	48.970	.375	.849
Interns are required to be exposed to multiple levels of campus sites (i.e., elementary, middle, or high school).	33.13	50.896	.101	.856
An intern is required to work in one or more schools, serving students from a variety of backgrounds, ethnicities, and languages.	33.23	50.357	.172	.854
Our program/university has a policy that supports an induction year for the principal/assistant principal	33.62	50.068	.349	.850
Our program/university has a policy that financially supports principal candidates in the program to engage in a full-time or part-time internship/practicum	33.62	50.328	.293	.851
Interns must observe teachers and provide feedback in a coaching session during the internship.	33.06	49.409	.334	.850

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Interns must analyze student data from a campus and provide a report during the internship.	32.91	48.688	.569	.846
Interns must lead a professional development related to instruction during the internship.	33.04	47.955	.574	.845
Interns must analyze the budget of the campus and provide a report during the internship.	33.11	48.575	.448	.848
Interns must review the Campus Improvement Plan and provide a report as to the effectiveness of implementation during the internship.	33.00	48.783	.466	.848
Interns must address an issue related to social justice, cultural bias, or student equity during the internship.	33.06	49.713	.288	.851
Interns complete an internship portfolio.	32.87	51.766	-.007	.856
There is commitment from partner districts to provide a robust internship experience.	32.94	48.844	.512	.847
There are negotiations with school district(s) about the schedule of the program in general and internship in particular.	33.17	48.014	.517	.846

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Our program/university has a policy that requires the faculty members involve district and campus personnel in making contributions in designing the program based on their needs.	33.11	49.184	.356	.850
Our program/university has a policy that requires the district to participate in nominating and/or selecting candidates to the program.	33.36	49.975	.235	.853
Our program/university has a policy that aligns our program with the partner district's needs.	33.36	48.453	.461	.847
The partner district gives priority to hiring program graduates into school or district leadership positions.	33.47	49.211	.383	.849
Our program/university has a policy that requires or recommends the engagement of an Advisory Board for obtaining feedback for the program.	33.06	48.539	.470	.847
The number of the program credit hours are sufficient for achieving the program goals.	32.79	52.606	-.271	.857
Our program/university has a policy that requires the faculty members to have superintendency or principalship experiences.	33.26	49.673	.269	.852

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
The faculty members are required to have PK-12 educational supervisory or administrative experience to teach in the internship.	33.06	50.539	.162	.854
There is a requirement for the program to undergo a state review at specified intervals.	32.83	50.188	.395	.850
Our program/university has a policy that requires including instructional leadership courses in the program.	32.81	50.767	.289	.852
There is an emphasis on including a feedback mechanism to improve the program.	32.87	49.114	.554	.847
If a feedback mechanism is included, there is emphasis on assessing students' satisfaction of the overall program.	32.87	49.070	.563	.847
If a feedback mechanism is included, there is emphasis on assessing the knowledge and skills gained by the overall program.	32.91	49.036	.501	.848
Our program/university has a policy regarding program evaluation	32.96	49.042	.455	.848
Is the evaluation of the program dependent in large part on the student’s performance on a state exam	33.30	51.344	.035	.857

Students who may be international who are enrolled in the program online, pay international (out of state) fees.	33.11	51.880	-.038	.859

APPENDIX C

DATA DESCRIPTION OF THE VARIABLES

Item	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
Our program/university has a policy that requires professional letters of recommendations from the applicants.	71	.87	.335
Our program/university has a policy that supports recruitment of a diverse pool of students into the program.?	71	.77	.421
Our program/university has a policy that requires a full review of the undergraduate transcripts for student selection for admission into the program.	72	.81	.399
Our program/university has a policy that requires the GRE, or MAT, or GMAT, or equivalent of applicants.	72	.43	.499
Our program/university has a policy that requires a personal statement from applicants.	71	.93	.258
Our program/university has a policy that requires an essay from applicants.	70	.56	.500
Our program/university has a policy that requires a résumé from applicants.	71	.83	.377
Our program/university has a policy that requires an interview with applicants.	72	.50	.504
Students receive written expectations of the field-work (e.g. field-work handbook).	66	.86	.346
Our program/university has a policy that requires embedding internship activities into content courses throughout the program.	66	.70	.463
The internship has field work that is an extension of course work.	65	.94	.242
Our program/university has a policy that requires interns to design projects that demonstrate leadership.	65	.86	.348
Our program/university has a policy that requires interns to design campus projects based on standards.	64	.67	.473
Our program/university has a policy that requires Interns to complete a minimum of one activity for each standard for the adopted standards (ELCC, ISLLC, State, etc.).	65	.86	.348

Item	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
During the internship period, an assigned program faculty member is required to evaluate the achievement of the intern has served and is certified/licensed as a principal.	64	.94	.244
Interns are required to be supervised by a mentor from the field-site.	65	.92	.269
Mentors are selected by the intern only.	58	.29	.459
Mentors are selected by program faculty only.	58	.05	.223
Mentors are selected by both program faculty and the intern.	58	.67	.473
Selection of mentors is based on the match between the intern's needs and mentor's expertise.	58	.76	.432
It is required to provide on-site mentors with training to guide supervision of the interns.	58	.55	.502
Interns are required to be exposed to multiple levels of campus sites (i.e., elementary, middle, or high school).	63	.57	.499
An intern is required to work in one or more schools, serving students from a variety of backgrounds, ethnicities, and languages.	63	.48	.503
Our program/university has a policy that supports an induction year for the principal/assistant principal	63	.11	.317
Our program/university has a policy that financially supports principal candidates in the program to engage in a full-time or part-time internship/practicum	63	.11	.317
Interns must observe teachers and provide feedback in a coaching session during the internship.	63	.67	.475
Interns must analyze student data from a campus and provide a report during the internship.	63	.81	.396
Interns must lead a professional development related to instruction during the internship.	63	.67	.475
Interns must analyze the budget of the campus and provide a report during the internship.	63	.65	.481
Interns must review the Campus Improvement Plan and provide a report as to the effectiveness of implementation during the internship.	63	.70	.463

Item	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
Interns must address an issue related to social justice, cultural bias, or student equity during the internship.	63	.65	.481
Interns complete an internship portfolio.	63	.87	.336
There is commitment from partner districts to provide a robust internship experience.	60	.82	.390
There are negotiations with school district(s) about the schedule of the program in general and internship in particular.	61	.56	.501
Our program/university has a policy that requires the faculty members involve district and campus personnel in making contributions in designing the program based on their needs.	61	.57	.499
Our program/university has a policy that requires the district to participate in nominating and/or selecting candidates to the program.	60	.40	.494
Our program/university has a policy that aligns our program with the partner district's needs.	60	.42	.497
The partner district gives priority to hiring program graduates into school or district leadership positions.	60	.25	.437
Our program/university has a policy that requires or recommends the engagement of an Advisory Board for obtaining feedback for the program.	61	.62	.489
The number of the program credit hours are sufficient for achieving the program goals.	61	.97	.180
Our program/university has a policy that requires the faculty members to have superintendency or principalship experiences.	61	.46	.502
The faculty members are required to have PK-12 educational supervisory or administrative experience to teach in the internship.	61	.70	.460
There is a requirement for the program to undergo a state review at specified intervals.	59	.93	.254
Our program/university has a policy that requires including instructional leadership courses in the program.	61	.95	.218
There is an emphasis on including a feedback mechanism to improve the program.	61	.89	.321

Item	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
If a feedback mechanism is included, there is emphasis on assessing students' satisfaction of the overall program.	60	.87	.343
If a feedback mechanism is included, there is emphasis on assessing the knowledge and skills gained by the overall program	60	.82	.390
Our program/university has a policy regarding program evaluation	60	.82	.390
Is the evaluation of the program dependent in large part on the student’s performance on a state exam	61	.46	.502
Students who may be international who are enrolled in the program online, pay international (out of state) fees.	55	.65	.480

APPENDIX D

UCEA STATE POLICY CRITERIA

Policy Criteria Principal Preparation Program Approval Rubric
1. Explicit Selection Process
1.1. Includes a plan for targeted recruitment
1.2. Utilizes performance-based assessments
2. Program Standards
2.1. Adopted or adapted school leadership standards from a nationally recognized organization
3. Clinically Rich Internship
3.1. Deliberately structured
3.2. Field work that is tightly integrated with curriculum
3.3. Engagement in core leadership responsibilities
3.4. Supervision by an expert mentor
3.5. Exposure to multiple sites and/or diverse populations
3.6. Requires 300+ hours of field-based experience
4. University-District Partnership
4.1. Commitment from district to provide a clinically rich internship experience
4.2. District-provider collaboration on selection
4.3. Alignment between district needs and program design
5. Program Oversight
5.1. Requires state review at specified intervals
5.2. Plan for initial program oversight includes documentation and/or site visits
5.3. Requires oversight team to have relevant experience and training
5.4. Includes feedback mechanism to improve practice

Source: A Policymaker's Guide: Research-Based Policy for Principal Preparation Program Approval and Licensure reported by Anderson and Reynolds to the UCEA, 2015