



The effectiveness of the Montana Office of Public Instruction K-12 School Administration Internship and the Regular University K-12 School Administration Internship
by Ramona Ann Stout

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education
Montana State University
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Abstract:

The problem of this study was to determine if there was a significant difference in the perceived preparation of administrative interns and in the mentoring activities of mentor (supervising) administrators in (1) the Office of Public Instruction (OPI) Internship program and (2) the internship included as part of the regular university administrator preparation program. Perceptions of interns and mentor administrators in both programs were surveyed.

The administrative skills examined were Leadership; Policy; Community Relations; Organizational Management; Curriculum Planning and Development; Instructional Management; Staff Evaluation and Personnel Management; Staff Development; Educational Research, Evaluation and Planning; and Values and Ethics of Leadership. The mentor activities were Relationship Emphasis, Information Emphasis and Facilitative Focus.

A two-way ANOVA was used to test the statistical hypotheses. The level of significance was set at $\alpha = .05$.

All participants of the OPI intern program from 1995-1999 and their mentor administrators were included in this study. For the regular university intern group a random selection was made of those who attained their administrative degree in the years 1995-1999 and their mentor administrators. Forty-two interns and 41 mentor administrators participated in the study.

Besides testing for significant differences between the two intern programs on administrative skills and mentoring, school size, AAJA and B/C, and level of internship, Grades K-8, Elementary, Grades 9-12, High School, and Grades K-12 were also tested.

Of the tests for significant differences on the 10 administrative skills in the two intern programs, there was one interaction of type of internship and size of school district on the administrative skill Educational Research, Evaluation and Planning. Of the tests for significant findings on the mentoring skills, there were two interactions of type of internship and level of internship in the perception of the mentors on Relationship Emphasis and Information Emphasis.

Other results of this study showed that the interns in both the OPI and regular university programs perceive themselves competent or very competent at the end of their internship experience. It was also noted that the mentor administrators perceived themselves much higher in their mentor activities than the interns perceived their mentors' activities.

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K-12 SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION INTERNSHIP
AND THE REGULAR UNIVERSITY K-12 SCHOOL
ADMINISTRATION INTERNSHIP

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Ramona Ann Stout

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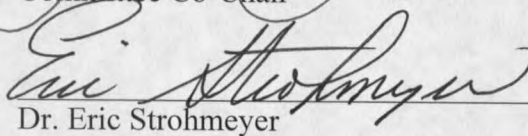
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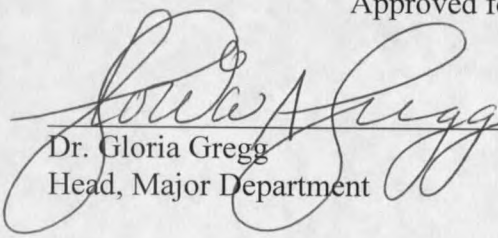
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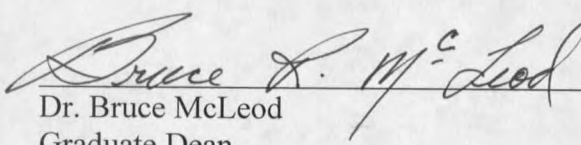
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ABSTRACT

The problem of this study was to determine if there was a significant difference in the perceived preparation of administrative interns and in the mentoring activities of mentor (supervising) administrators in (1) the Office of Public Instruction (OPI) Internship program and (2) the internship included as part of the regular university administrator preparation program. Perceptions of interns and mentor administrators in both programs were surveyed.

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Besides testing for significant differences between the two intern programs on administrative skills and mentoring, school size, AA/A and B/C, and level of internship, Grades K-8, Elementary, Grades 9-12, High School, and Grades K-12 were also tested. Of the tests for significant differences on the 10 administrative skills in the two intern programs, there was one interaction of type of internship and size of school district on the administrative skill Educational Research, Evaluation and Planning. Of the tests for significant findings on the mentoring skills, there were two interactions of type of internship and level of internship in the perception of the mentors on Relationship Emphasis and Information Emphasis.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The school year begins with the burst of noisy children rushing through the front doors of public elementary and high schools throughout the state. Their excited chatter fills the air as they eagerly find their teachers, classmates and classrooms. Some districts are finally ready to commence the new school year after a long and sometimes frustrating search to fill the vacant principal position with a quality leader. Where are the public school leaders? Why does a school of 600 children interview only three candidates for superintendent? Was that all the applications they received? Another school of 500 reopens their high school principal position for the third time in order to find that quality leader. Even one of the largest school districts in Montana begins the new year with an interim superintendent until the newly hired one can move from out-of-state.

What is causing this situation? Why does there exist an increasing lack of qualified administrator candidates? What kinds of programs could assist talented individuals to prepare for and seek a school leadership position?

In a 1999 study sponsored by the Montana School Boards Association (MSBA), the results indicated that many school administrators are planning to retire in the next five years, 50% of the 105 responding superintendents and 26% of 126 school principals. Of the 61.3 % or seventy-three (73) school board chairs and 63.8% or 67 of the district superintendents who had hired administrators in the last three years, only 20 school board

chairs and 10 superintendents indicated that there were no problems in filling the open positions. The problem most identified in hiring administrators was that the pool of candidates was too small. Board chairs also indicated that another often-encountered problem was that the applicants were not well qualified (MSBA, 1999).

This MSBA study also indicated that 88% of school board chairs responding said that their district had no plan in place for recruiting administrators. The majority of board chairs (68%), superintendents (76%), and principals (91%) indicated that they encourage their own employees to fill open positions. There is also very positive support among board chairs (64%) and superintendents (75%) to expand the OPI internship program to help address the shortage of qualified administrators. However, at this time most of the above individuals said that their school district did not currently have a formal administrator mentor program and thought that such a program would have been helpful in their own administrative skill development (MSBA, 1999).

Montana is not the only state facing administrative shortages. There is a national trend of increasing scarcity of superintendent candidates. The American Association of School Administrators' (AASA) Executive Director, Paul Houston (1999), estimates that acting or interim administrators are filling 15% to 20% of superintendent jobs at any particular time (AASA, 1999). A study commissioned by both the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) and the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) in 1998 found that shortages do exist nationwide. Of 403 telephone interviews of school administrators, 50% said that there was a shortage.

However, only 27% of school systems have an aspiring principal program with urban schools being better at 50% (ERS, 1998).

Each year the responsibilities of school administrators become increasingly more complex due to many different factors. One factor is the emphasis on standards and assessment required by state and federal regulations, laws, and court decisions. Another is the diversity of children's needs ranging from the disabled, to the maladjusted, to the gifted, and all those in between. Parents and community members are demanding that they be more involved in their child's education than they were in the past. The knowledge, skills and requirements for children to succeed in the modern world have created a need for school leaders to be better prepared not only as instructional leaders, but also school managers. As Fullan (1998) says, this requires not only restructuring, but also re-culturing.

Statement of the Problem

A multi-faceted approach is required to address the complexities in today's schools. No longer does it suffice for school administrators to complete a college program to prepare for school leadership (Sergiovanni, 1995). It also doesn't appear to be adequate preparation for an educator to "learn out in the field." This raises the question if there is a process composed of a variety of learning experiences that will develop K-12 school administrators into leaders who have the leadership skills to develop schools systems that enable students to grow both academically and socially into positive contributors to the world society.

The problem of this study was to determine if there was a significant difference in the perceived preparation of school administrators and in the mentoring activities of supervising administrators in (1) the Office of Public Instruction (OPI) Internship program and (2) the internship included as part of the regular university administrator training program. Perceptions of interns and supervising (mentor) administrators in both situations were examined.

Requirements for certification according to the State Accreditation Standards (OPI, 1999) as a school administrator in the state of Montana include a Master's degree that is completed while a member of a cohort, as an individual student, or as an OPI intern working in a school system. Principal certification is given for grades K-8, 5-12 and K-12. For superintendent certification, additional courses are required. The Montana University System prepares the aspiring administrator with a structured program that varies somewhat by institution. The programs are offered in many different modes including summer, weekend, and on-line computer courses. An internship experience is required by Montana State University. The University of Montana administrative candidates may participate in an internship as part of their program, but it is not required (MSU, UM, 1999).

Some aspiring administrators enroll in courses for their administrative certification while they are teaching school or working outside of education. Others participate in the OPI internship program in which the aspiring administrator is in effect employed as a school administrator. In this situation, the school district has been given permission by the Montana State Office of Public Instruction to use this alternative

approach while the person is completing their certification as a school administrator.

According to Don Freshour, OPI Certification Officer, the Office of Public Instruction Internship, or OPI Intern Program as it is commonly known, has evolved over the course of the last ten years originating with a federal grant. Since its inception the program has continued to be a viable option to meet the needs of school districts that were unable to find a principal or superintendent or who chose to hire and develop their own principal/superintendent prior to the administrator being certified (Freshour, 1999).

The OPI intern is bound by an official contract between the school district, the administrative candidate (intern), the supervising university, and OPI. The intern must have been admitted into an approved university program leading to the appropriate administrative endorsement and must have completed at least eight semester credits prior to beginning the first intern academic year. The OPI intern has three years in which to complete graduate credit in school administration to qualify for Montana administrative certification. The school district must provide a variety of experiences for the intern who will be compensated for part-time or full-time administrative work. The district provides funds toward university tuition, supervision by the university, professional dues and expenses, and also agrees to retain the intern for up to three years based on satisfactory performance. The school must also assign an on-site administrator to be a mentor for the intern. The university's role is to provide a supervisor for the intern who must visit at least three times per semester during the school year, and appropriate course work to complete certification requirements within the three years. Much of the course work takes place during the summer with some courses offered on weekends and on-line. The

OPI exempts the school district from the state standards certification requirements for this particular administrative position during the three-year period (OPI, 1999).

Research Questions to Be Answered

The OPI intern program is an alternate path to administration. The format has been used for at least 10 years. However, there has not been research on how well administrative skill competencies have been developed. Therefore, to accomplish the purpose of this study, the following questions were answered.

1. To what degree do OPI interns as compared to regular university interns perceive that their internship prepared them in selected administrative competencies?
2. To what degree do mentor administrators perceive that the internship prepared the OPI intern or regular university intern in selected administrative competencies?
3. To what extent were the mentoring activities of Relationship Emphasis, Information Emphasis and Facilitative Focus by mentor administrators part of both the OPI and the regular interns training as an administrator?
4. Do selected variables, such as intern's school district size, and the level of the completed internship (elementary, grades K-8; high school, grades 9-12; and K-12) have an effect on degree of competency on selected administrative skills?
5. What career decisions did the OPI interns and regular university administrative interns make after the internship?

Significance of the Study

Sergiovanni (1995), in his text on the principalship, states that the new dimensions of leadership in schools involve leading change to facilitate the implementation of innovations to improve academic learning. To do this, there must be skills in both leadership and management. Leadership includes “mission, direction, inspiration” while management involves “designing and carrying out plans, getting things done, working effectively with people.” Developing an effective principal, i.e. school administrator, means doing both (Fullan, 1991).

How are these leadership and management skills developed? According to Fullan (1991), people change by doing new things in conjunction with others. Nearly all leaders are highly proficient in learning from experience. Most were able to identify a small number of mentors and key experiences that powerfully shaped their philosophies, personalities and operating style.... Learning is the essential fuel for the leader... Very simply, those who do not learn do not long survive as leaders.”

Haller and Brent (1997) stated that there is very little research regarding the efficacy of administrator training programs. They allude that perhaps administrator training programs are not quality programs and, therefore, educators do not enroll or having completed their programs, do not have the competencies needed to do the work. Is experiential learning through different types of internships an effective school leadership development practice?

To conduct a study of leadership development, a determination had to be made as to what standards and skills would be used to determine administrative competency.

Hoyle, English, and Steffy (1998) clarified a set of administrative standards and skills as described in their book, Skills for Successful 21st Century School Leaders. Their goal was to establish a useful set of standards that contains skills that every administrator should possess. These education leaders were committed to developing standards to “stimulate thinking about the preparation and licensure of school leaders for the 21st century to ensure that our school administrators are successful leaders of high-performing schools for all students.”

Using these 10 administrative skills as a standard for school administrators, this study determined if there is a difference in skill attainment level between OPI interns and RU (regular university) interns from their own perceptions and from those of their mentor administrators. The results indicated whether one or both intern programs were effective. If the OPI program was as effective as the regular program, then school boards may consider the OPI program as an alternate means by which administrative vacancies can be filled.

By examining the competency level on the administrative skills, universities and school districts can determine if the prospective school administrator is proficient as well. If interns, OPI and RU, perceive that they have attained competency on the skills and that their mentors support this, then again, university and school districts can feel confident in the preparation of these interns.

In internships, mentors play roles of being a trusted advisor, an information source, and a facilitator to assist with an intern's plans. The results of this study can give direction to university programs in what skill instruction is needed to best prepare future school administrators.

In Montana there is a shortage of school administrators as stated by Loran Frazier (2000), executive director of the School Administrators of Montana. He reported that there were 45 superintendent and 57 principal openings for the 1999-2000 school year. Two of those positions were not filled. In several instances one superintendent filled the superintendent position in two school districts. There were also three principal positions filled with teachers who had no administrative preparation. In the MSBA study (1999) of school board chairs reporting 39 indicated that there were not enough applicants and 23 stated that applicants were not well qualified (p.32).

Findings from this study can be examined, discussed and integrated with findings from other studies to provide guidance in developing a best practice in the preparation of interns to be school administrators. With the help of information from this study, a collaborative administrator preparation model could be developed between school districts and the university whose goal would be to prepare skilled administrators for Montana schools.

Definition of Terms

The following terms, which are used throughout the study, are defined below.

Regular University Intern (RU Intern): A student who is completing an internship as part of an administrative preparation program that leads to the attainment of an administrator certificate as a principal and/or superintendent. Referred to in this paper as the RU intern.

Supervising Administrator: The principal or superintendent of a school who has been designated as the on-site supervisor for the OPI intern or regular university intern.

Office of Public Instruction (OPI): The state education office that administers Montana's K-12 school program.

OPI Intern: An educator who has been accepted and is participating in the administrator preparation program called the OPI Internship Program.

Mentor or Mentor Administrator: Synonymous with supervising administrator.

Administrator: An educator who is a K-12 educator working as a certified elementary principal, middle school principal, high school principal, or superintendent.

Elementary Principal: An educator who is certified by OPI to be administrator of Grades Kindergarten through 8th grade.

High School Principal: An educator who is certified by OPI to be an administrator in Grades 7-12 or 5-12 but most generally works in Grades 9-12.

K-12 Principal or Administrator: An educator who is certified by OPI to be an administrator in grades Kindergarten through 12th Grade.

AA/A School: This classification, based on athletic/activity groups, ranges in high school student population from 370 and above.

B/C School: This classification, based on high school athletic/activity grouping, ranges in high school student population from 1 to 369.

Methodology

This research used a quantitative approach in which group effects were the focus rather than individual differences. The participants in this study were the population of OPI interns, a random sample of regular university interns, and the mentor administrators of both the OPI and RU interns who were involved during the time period, 1995-1999.

There were two instruments, one for administrative skills and the other for mentoring activities. Both groups of interns and their mentors completed the two instruments. Using a five-point Likert scale, the interns responded with their perceptions about their own administrative skills developed during the internship and about the mentoring activities of their mentors. The mentors gave their perception of their own intern's administrative skills and of their personal mentoring activities.

Data was analyzed according to the whole population and then subgroups of different school sizes, AA/A and B/C, and school levels, Grades K-8, elementary, Grades 9-12, high school and Grades K-12. To obtain appropriate statistical data, a two-factor ANOVA was used.

Descriptive data was gathered from the study's participants through open-ended questions included as part of the survey instrument. This demographic information was

used to describe the participants and provide information about their education, career choices, years in education, and interest in a potential follow-up telephone interview.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Both the MSBA study (1999) and a national study conducted by Educational Research Service (1998) indicate there is a shortage of school administrators, superintendents and principals, that will be even more acute in the future when many school leaders retire. Although a statewide education profile (Nielson, et al., 1999) reported that in the year 1996-97 teachers were distributed across the age ranges in a balanced manner, administrator age distribution in that same report suggested that 50% of principals and 60% of superintendents in the state of Montana would be new to their position within 10 years or 2007. There is evidence that a high demand for new school administrators across the state already exists.

Preparing new K-12 school administrators is a task that requires understanding of not only current leadership theory but also organization theory and change. Schools have changed to mirror societal change, which has given impetus to a rapid growth in the body of research and literature that gives direction to today's school leaders. The knowledge gained must then be integrated into the school setting as it is today and is predicted to be in the future.

Adult learning theory includes learning from books and learning from life's experiences. Combining the two, in which adults develop their own meaning from their

learning, supports the constructivist view that appears to be part of learning for all ages. In the process of reflecting on experiences the mentor, or guide, gives perspective that assists the adult learner in making sense of their own learning. Therefore, administrator preparation programs are concentrating not only on theory but also on practice in the school setting guided by a mentor in whom the aspiring administrator finds support and challenge. This literature review is to develop a framework and provide insight into the key elements of this study.

Leadership

Leadership in education has changed over the years. Schools are no longer seen as bureaucratic institutions in which teachers are treated like factory workers in a top-down hierarchy of autocratic management. School leaders, faced with diverse expectations of the public, parents and students, need to prepare new leadership models that will be able to satisfy constituents (Spillane and Regnier, 1998). Taking a lesson from business and industry, Peter Drucker (1985) says that one must optimize not just maximize. Schools, in optimizing, need to precisely identify their mission, set goals accordingly, and measure their progress regularly. To maximize, trying to do many things while trying to serve many different constituencies, has not been successful for business and will not work for schools either (Drucker, 1985).

Therefore instead of directing workers, the modern school leader understands that leaders of today's schools must have the skills and experiences to solve problems and build programs that are committed to children, teaching, and teachers (Sergiovanni,

1995). Today, and in the future, school leaders must understand that “To lead is to influence others to achieve mutually agreed upon and socially valued goals that help an organization stretch to a higher level. Leading does not mean moving people through time in a status quo environment” (Patterson, 1997).

As Fullan states, “The school principal as a leader should strive not to be an instructional leader, but rather a leader of instructional leaders.” In order to accomplish the appropriate changes so that others in schools can effect positive changes, school leaders must be able to express their own vision but not impose it. School leaders must be able to manage conflict and to solve the problems that may arise. At the same time school leaders must remain open to the ideas of those who are at all working levels of the school system, both professional and classified staff (Fullan, 1992).

Organization Theory

Leadership has changed over the years not so much because organizations have changed but because research findings have clarified how organizations operate. In the beginning of the study of organizations, it was thought that these entities were closed systems with no connection to the outside environment. As researchers studied the activities and operations of organizations, they made some very important discoveries. Organizations were systems that were open to and interacted with the environment, were social entities, and were dynamic in that they were constantly changing as in disequilibria (Hoy and Miskel, 1991).

The organization, furthermore, was made up of many different components in which each played a different role in the organization's function. People who made up organizations such as schools, acted according to their own individual needs (Hoy and Miskel, 1991) in reference to Maslow's theory that people act according to a hierarchy of needs that he identified as physiological, safety, social, self-esteem, and self-realization. As basic needs are filled, people will strive to meet their own higher level needs in a developmental sequence. The needs at a lower stage must be fulfilled before a person can move on to a higher stage (Hoy and Miskel, 1991).

Another researcher, Herzberg, in his research in the 1960's found that work achievement and responsibility motivated workers more than monetary or tangible rewards. From this basis came the work of Hersey and Blanchard (1977) in situational leadership and then the concepts of Total Quality Management (TQM) developed by W. Edwards Deming. Deming, in TQM, stressed that improving the quality of the system which is made up of inputs, processes, outputs and the environment surrounding the system, could influence a worker's motivation and therefore production (Schwahn and Spady, 1998).

Not only must school leaders be knowledgeable in and understand the functioning of an organization, they must also be able to put that knowledge into practice to develop effective organizations. Administrator preparation programs must be designed to develop a school leader who not only has the knowledge but also has the practice in implementing organizational components in excellent schools. In an interview, John Goodlad told Goldberg (2000) that to develop a quality school administrator there should be a

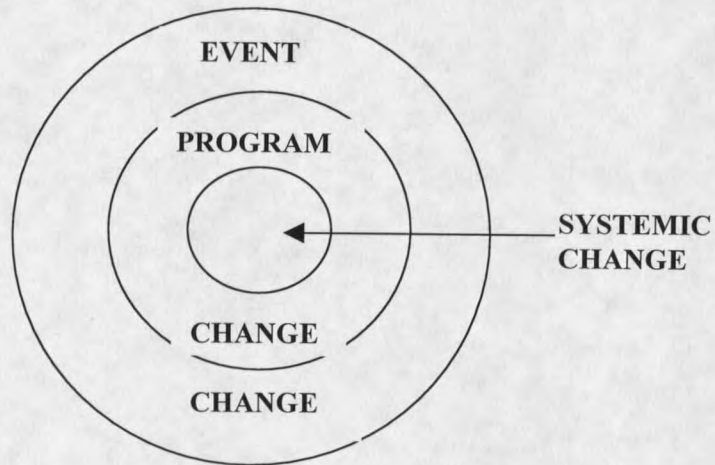
continuation of the best training available. The command of the change process and skills to be able to work with people are both more important than technical skill development. Using their people skills, administrators can build leadership within their own schools so that as they leave, there is already a trained administrator to replace them (Goldberg, 2000).

Change in Schools

School superintendents and principals must also understand the processes by which schools achieve quality and excellence. Teachers and other school personnel will transform their school to provide for the needs of children not by staying the same but by changing their beliefs, their thinking and their actions. In order for this to happen in an orderly way, the change process itself must be understood and facilitated with each individual at each stage of his/her development. The change that is desired must be lasting system change and not the simple shallowness of event change (Patterson, 1997).

Patterson illustrates organizational change with three concentric circles (see Figure 1). The inner circle is system change. It is central to the change and is very powerful as it affects the norms, values and power relationships in the entire organization. This is called systemic change. It appears that system change is necessary in order to have a long-term meaningful change in the organization. The example used by Patterson (1997) is the concept of a middle school. In order to make it different from the junior high model, the norms, values and power relationships must change. Otherwise, the result is only an unchanged junior high model.

Figure 1: Model of Systemic Change (Patterson, 1997)



A middle school will develop only when teachers realize that middle school children have different needs than younger or older students. Teachers must construct learning environments that capitalize on cooperative learning and individualized help provided within an integrated curriculum across subject areas. Teachers must understand and then design their teaching to support middle school students' specific learning styles and needs.

The second circle from the center is program change. This level of change affects the norms and values of some parts of the school without having a major impact on the entire school. An example would be the Accelerated Reader program that helps students learn to read with meaning and understanding using technology as an instrument. The program can operate with minor changes that do not include changes in the school culture or values. Program change is often the result when schools don't quite get to the system changes that they designed.

The outer circle is event change. This level of change is very shallow and has no lasting effect on the norms, values, or power within the school. The changes are generally only single occurrences with no connection to the history or the future of the school. Often school people continue to operate as usual even though there may be the facade of change that takes place when a particular principal or superintendent requires something to happen with no buy-in from the teaching staff. Event change happens when school people continue to operate as they have always done because the changes are often cosmetic and don't have any underlying meaning. An example of this is a school that works to change the way science is taught from a lecture method to a hands-on method without the staff development to actually change teacher and student behavior (Patterson, 1997).

Hall and Hord, in studying change extensively, have given great insight into what must happen before a significant and lasting difference in an individual's behavior will occur. Their program of organization and personal change, called the Concerns Based Adoption Model or CBAM, provides the basis for the statement that "change is a process, not an event." The process as we know it occurs over time, usually at least a year, and is accomplished by individuals not by events. It is only when people in a system have absorbed and used the improved practice can it be said that change has actually occurred. Change will occur differently for each individual according to the change that is being sought (Hall and Hord, 1987).

When a person changes, developmental growth occurs. The skills and feelings seem to shift as an individual passes through more and greater degrees of experience.

The best way for change to occur is to have it be in operational terms. How will it affect me as to what and how I need to do tasks? The real part of any change must be human, not a new program or a new book. Change happens when people change their behavior. Behavior changes occur more readily when the facilitator of the proposed changes recognizes a person's needs and goes about developing the behaviors required in an adaptive and systematic way. In this way, the school leader, the facilitator of this proposed change will be able to maximize the results for success and achievement (Hall and Hord, 1987).

Individuals who want to become a school administrator must change their ways of thinking, their processes and their practices. Speaking in change terms, the school administrator must first be changed through the facilitation process in order to have the skills to be able to facilitate change in others. In a school setting facilitated change of an educator can take place through a mentor-mentee relationship. The mentor has many opportunities to influence and guide the intellectual, affective and career development of the aspiring administrator (Cohen, 1995).

It is important to remember in the change process that if attention is focused on the concerns of those who are asked to make the change, the change will take place more quickly and with better results. Change is a very complex process and the demands of the process are imposed at every level of the system. Innovations are not easy and when events seem like single items, in actuality they may be bundles of many components that complicate the process of effective management (Hall and Hord, 1987).

Schools of the Future

An effective leader with strong management skills who understands changes describes the superintendent of the future. He or she will be a reflective thinker, have a broad learning base, and be comfortable in both the worlds of practical activities and of ideas and concepts, state Spillane and Regnier (1998), nationally recognized school superintendents. To understand what is required to become a futuristic school leader requires that we examine what has changed in education, what is changing and what will change.

According to Spillane and Regnier (1998), the following are examples of what has changed in education:

1. In governance, there is much more state involvement with politicians taking more control and having more influence at all levels, local, state and federal.
2. Community control has moved toward decentralization and more parent input. However, in some areas the parent council programs have not fared well resulting in a noticeable return to centralized management.
3. Superintendents must become instructional leaders instead of school managers because they are expected to lead the way in the classroom and in making instructional decisions. More women and more minority individuals are represented.
4. Special Education, a program good for children, has gone from nothing to the largest budget, making it very expensive to local taxpayers.

5. Teacher training and professional development have become more rigorous and realistic. Even when this training is shown to be necessary to instructional program success, the public is often still critical and reluctant to provide financial support. In contrast, businesses have found training to be essential to prosper. They fund it and require it.

6. Minimum competency testing was a central theme of the 70's and 80's. Now in an era of standards, accountability and high stakes testing, Americans believe that our students can do as well as any student in the world if we expect and demand it.

7. Today student populations are made up of more minorities, low socio-economic, limited English proficiency, and immigrant students than 30 years ago. Taxpayers are not willing to fund public education because today's student population does not look like them.

8. Incentives for teacher performance and merit pay have been suggested but are often viewed negatively with little agreement as what should be done.

9. Privatization is popular. More and more parents feel like their children are not getting what they need in the public school and besides, the government can do nothing very well anyway.

10. At Federal levels some specialized and minority programs have been implemented, but have not become great factors in curriculum or operation of schools.

Spillane and Regnier (1998) go on to describe what is changing in education right now as well as what they predict will change in the future.

1. National standards and assessments are coming from Capitol Hill politics and are exerting a great deal of pressure. Superintendents, as school leaders, should always support strong accountability for student achievement.

2. National professional teaching standards along with national teacher certification will strengthen educator credibility and expertise in the eyes of the public.

3. Use of technology will open new learning opportunities for educators and students. However the critical areas are still books, reading, writing and math.

What will change in the field of education in the future? The following predictions by Spillane and Regnier (1998) are listed below.

1. National assessments will not be supported except by a few parents in some schools. However, some parents in some schools will pressure their schools to meet higher standards, thereby pressuring other schools to meet higher standards.

2. In both academic achievement and job skills, standards will be higher for both college and non-college standards.

3. Privatization and choice will develop within public schools, including charter schools, vouchers, tax credits and more home schools, which will result in pressure on superintendents for more accountability.

4. Special Education will narrow its focus to help children instead of placating parents.

All of the above changes and proposed changes will affect the preparation of school administrators. "There will be more standards for preparing superintendents for

the job rather than just moving up the ranks.” As a result, this insures more quality control and will satisfy school boards (Spillane and Regnier, 1998).

With a base of good, solid traditional education, superintendents can develop skills of thinking thoroughly and quickly about complex issues that will require current knowledge not only in education but also in the sciences, world politics, cultural trends and business. Work is accomplished in schools by choosing the right people and motivating them for excellent work. In the future it will be critical for a school superintendent to be able to work with personnel and the community to accommodate their needs and garner support. Even though understanding the budget is absolutely necessary, the main goal remains academic learning for students, for which leadership skills are essential. The superintendent’s work is three-fold: set standards, establish measures, and hold people accountable (Spillane and Regnier, 1998).

Adult Learning

In order to lead schools, superintendents of the future will need vigorous pre-service preparation and ongoing training using sound adult learning principles and techniques. Developing competent school principals and superintendents involves understanding how to teach adults and how adults learn.

The situated learning approach is effective for adults because in it knowledge and skills are developed in the context of how knowledge is gained and applied in everyday situations. The basis for this learning approach comes from situated cognition theory that

defines learning as a socio-cultural phenomenon instead of the acquisition of knowledge through books, other printed text or classroom delivery (Stein, 1998).

From work that has been done on adult learning, particularly with college-aged students and older, it has been found that active learning, the participation of the student in the lesson, improves the chances that the student will actually learn the material. Interactions with the student assist in adult learning, as do discussions, role-playing, simulations and student presentations (Menges and Weimer, 1996).

Situated learning experiences are built on four major premises: 1) Learning results from normal everyday activities, (2) Knowledge gained from specific situations by the student is then transferred to other similar situations, (3) Learning does not take place in isolation but is social and includes processes of "thinking, perceiving, problem solving and interacting" that an adult utilizes in addition to general and operational knowledge, (4) Learning is not separate from active, complex social activities made up of people, their actions and situations (Stein, 1998). Adult learners, because they have a variety of backgrounds, are able to relate stories, data and situations by which they enhance their learning and reflect upon situations in order to understand them within the context of real community and workplace happenings (Kerka, 1998).

Oftentimes, situated learning takes place in the workplace in the form of an internship. The internship, as most are set up, involves a mentor relationship. The definition of mentoring includes a relationship between an experienced and a less experienced person in which the mentor provides guidance, advice, support and feedback to the mentee. The skills developed in a mentoring relationship are not only work-related

but also are cultural, and enhance appreciation and the potential of different aspects of a person's life (Kerka, 1998). Additionally, for the student to really come to understand oneself and become a reflective learner, a mentor can be of great assistance. Universities are working on including mentors in many different programs to allow for greater sharing of knowledge by the professor with the student (Menges and Weimer, 1996).

Mentoring

As with many concepts, mentoring has changed to meet the needs of organizations. The people, now in mentored relationships, are well educated but are still in need of a mentor for practical knowledge and wisdom. The ancient process of the beginners developing new skills from their elders is still a viable method to transmit "craft knowledge" that can best be acquired experientially. Many organizations, as attested to by The Mentoring Institute (1999), have found mentorships to be useful particularly in working with women and minorities (Kerka, 1998).

Mentoring is supportive of current learning theories that state that the "socially constructed nature of learning and the importance of experiential, situated learning experiences" (Kerka, 1998) is how people learn. Experts or mentors can help one to learn by modeling problem-solving strategies and guiding learners to solve and think about problems while they are reflecting upon their own way of working through their own thought processes. As this occurs, mentors can coach learners with aids and scaffolds that are timely for the particular situation. With practice and assistance, the learner becomes more adept and develops the confidence to problem solve successfully so that

the mentor can decrease his/her assistance. The learners internalize their own thought and skill processes and construct their own knowledge and understanding as they see it. "Mentors are experts who can provide authentic, real experience learning along with a personal relationship with another through which the social side of learning can take place" (Kerka, 1998).

An example of this concept is adult birds that guide their young in leaving the nest. They support, help problem solve and have the courage to let the learner fail. In a mentoring relationship the mentee can go beyond the basic knowledge and skills to put these aspects into practice so that the link-up between basic learning and the job is very rapid resulting in a learner who can apply knowledge quickly and accurately to work situations (Kerka, 1998).

Another aspect of the mentorship is the relationship of trust that develops between the mentor and mentee. This trust provides a safe place for the learner to try on new roles, make decisions, and practice their ideas and understandings. This process is much more real-life than the classroom situation in which the activities are temporary and short-term. Real life practice gives one the opportunity to actually develop and hone one's practical skills while applying the principles and knowledge of the textbook (Kerka, 1998). Galbraith and Cohen (1995) state that mentoring provides two basic functions: (1) career/instrumental: benefit from mentor's knowledge, contacts, support and guidance, and (2) psycho-social: internal value of the dialogue with another: collaborative critical thinking, planning, reflection and feedback.

Mentorships are often used in training women. It appears that the psychosocial, relational learning is more of a team approach, rather than authoritarian, which women seem to favor. It is through relationships that women have opportunities to learn their company's cultural processes that gives them both cognitive and experiential learning. Other researchers found that mentoring helps an individual to become personally introduced and socialized into the workplace culture, thus giving them critical exposure to both work and academic settings. Sometimes in this same context the relationship may stifle the mentee's growth. It appears from research that there is less satisfaction if the mentor and the mentee are not similar in areas of gender, race and ethnic backgrounds. Even though there is some doubt that this makes a difference, the mentor must be sensitive to different cultural perspectives that may influence one's openness to others' way of behaving and thinking. Kerka (1998) concludes that in developing learning organizations, mentoring can give important assistance in helping people develop their potential.

In the business world, mentoring is recognized by many companies as being critical to the development and succession in the leadership ranks. It is noted on "The Mentoring Institute's" website that most do not make it to the top without being mentored along the way. In a work position success often depends on conforming to social norms, assimilation to standards, adhering to rules and customs of the organization. To improve work opportunities, finding a good mentor helps one succeed so Glickman (1995) also supports the practice that mentees help to choose their own mentor.

In its application to educational as well as business settings, mentoring:

1. Prepares a talent pool for leadership positions and functions,
2. Ensures that all quality performers have an opportunity to become leaders,
3. Provides for continuity (succession planning) while empowering innovation ideas that prevent stagnation,
4. Provides for transmission of knowledge to the next generation,
5. Broadens the perspectives of interns and their mentors,
6. Prepares leaders for shifting their way of thinking and operating,
7. Fills in gaps that they may be in an intern's preparation (Mentoring Institute, 1999).

Administrator Preparation

How can administrators in our present and future schools be best prepared to deal with organizational change? Research seems to support using adult learning research, and mentor support to develop the leadership skills that can meet the public's expectations. The increasing demands on administrators and the schools that prepare them have not lessened. In fact, during the 1990's, 60% of our nation's current school principals will retire. Not only are there pressures for school administration programs to produce school leaders for the changing face of education, they must also produce more of them and faster. If the 500 or so institutions nation-wide that have administrator preparation programs do not meet the demand for school leaders, our nation's school children will not have the skills to compete in the global economy of the future (Kraus and Cordeiro, 1995).

To answer the above call, many schools and universities have revamped their administrator preparation programs. Revised programs can be described as tri-dimensional. A tri-dimensional model of professional development includes academic preparation, field-based learning (internship) and professional formation (mentoring, reflection and personal development) (Daresh and Playko, 1992). The Danforth Program for Preparation of School Principals has an integrated program that includes internships, mentoring relationships, reflection activities and student cohorts. The Institute for Executive Leadership at Lewis and Clark College in Portland, OR was created in 1984. The content of the course is made up of clinical knowledge in school administration presented in a holistic way created from practice and understanding. The material is composed of a cycle of experience, feedback, reflection and understanding.

The goal of these revised programs, as Schön noted, was to enable school administrators to become “managers of culture.” To do this, administrative students learned more educational foundation theory in the context of a liberal arts focus in order to become leaders who developed the common good. By using learning journals and developing practical skills while working in a student cohort, school administrators learned that by utilizing a cycle of experience, feedback, and reflection upon their skills and practice, they could become the moral, instructional and community leaders needed in their school (Schmuck, 1992).

Research that was done in 1995 at the request of Montana’s Certification, Standards and Practices Advisory Committee examined the worth of internships in the development of school principals. Specifically, first-year principals and their

