

Spring 3-23-2018

Human Resource Management Practices for Public School Principals: Recruitment, Selection, and Development

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College of Education

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Human Resource Management Practices for Public School Principals: Recruitment, Selection,
and Development

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Concordia University – Portland

College of Education

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the College of Education
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Educational Administration

Connie Greiner, Ph.D., Faculty Chair Dissertation Committee

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2018

Abstract

Increasing complexities of educational contexts intensify the importance of hiring effective principals and using systematic support to shift from manager to instructional leader. Using a systematic framework of support is responsive and adaptive to contextual and personnel variables affecting principal human resource management (HRM). It was not known what HRM practices districts used to recruit, select, and develop principals in Oregon public school districts. Using a qualitative methodology, a descriptive case study surveyed (using Farr's, 2004 and Van de Water's, 1987 instruments) and interviewed (using Hensley, Kracht, & Strange's, 2013 interview protocol) district administrators, triangulating with document analysis of 2016–17 principal job postings and National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES, 2016) to explore the research questions. Conclusions from data collection results were that while districts continued to rely on traditional HRM, some recruitment and selection practices are strategic and better assess applicants and candidates, yet HRM practices widely vary between districts. Spearman's Rank Order Correlation established some relationships between HRM applicant recruitment practices and district-contextual variables were statistically significant at 0.05 and 0.01 levels (2-tailed). There was a strong positive correlation between contextual variables ($N = 16$), traditional and strategic HRM practices ($N = 8$), applicant recruitment practices ($N = 33$), and OEL/AS ($N = 8$), totaling 64 variables. Positive relationships were found between contextual variables such as discipline incidents and number of schools and practices such as minority applicant recruitment, crafted job description, administrative experience, and effective leadership applicant. As the school, district, and community contexts and needs continue to change,

recommendations for change in practices are grounded in Critical Systems Theory to avoid perpetuating inequities and power distribution in principal HRM.

Keywords: human resources, principal, recruitment, selection, development

Dedication

Donna, Ash, Zane

Acknowledgements

The following people were instrumental in completing the dissertation.

Dr. Greiner, thank you for your advice, support, attention to detail, and positive encouragement.

This would not be complete without your timelines, ability to give answers for my roadblocks, and flexible problem-solving.

Dr. Jones, thank you for the support close reading, and questions to improve the clarity and content. I appreciate the careful consideration and time you spent to give feedback and communicate.

Dr. Boyle, thank you for your attention to grammar and style, APA format, content suggestions and joining WebEx meetings in the late evening from your time zone.

Dr. McGuire, Dr. Bullis, and Dr. Owusu-Ansah, thank you for providing professional advice and support throughout the program, research, and writing.

Dr. Farr, Dr. Van de Water, Dr. Hensley, Dr. Kracht, and Dr. Strange, thank you for your communication, support, and permission to use your data collection tool to research principal HRM.

My wife and sons: a bag of lime and shovel were allegedly purchased during your mom's dissertation, thank you for not finding and using them during mine.

Mom and dad, thanks for teaching me to read, write, learn, and persevere.

Thanks to The Riverside and staff in Maupin, Oregon for Wi-Fi, sustenance, and diversions which were all critical to remote work sessions and submissions.

Oregon trout, salmon, steelhead, thanks for having patience. I will soon return the favor.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Research literature identified recruiting, selecting, and developing an effective principal as critical to school success and student achievement (Ash, Hodge, & Connell, 2013; Clifford, 2010; Farr, 2004; Krasnoff, 2015; Rammer, 2007; Schlueter & Walker, 2008; Waters & Marzano, 2006). A principal's role requires responding to school and district contextual needs, managing systems and resources, and providing instructional leadership as evidenced in the evolving principal educational leadership standards (Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO), 1996, 2008; National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA), 2009, 2015, Oregon Department of Education (ODE, n.d.). Principal Human Resource Management (HRM) encompasses three phases: recruitment, selection, and development. Traditional Human Resource Management (THRM) separates these phases, whereas Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) explicitly and intentionally systematizes the phases as a self-informing process based on organizational needs and applicant/candidate capacity (Bartling, Fehr, & Schmidt, 2012; Brymer, Molloy, & Gilbert, 2014; Clifford, 2010; Wright, Coff, & Moliterno, 2014). THRM practices meet minimum requirements of HRM. Although recruitment and selection practices could have exhibited SHRM attributes, the HRM stages seldom inform a strategically designed professional development plan from recruitment to evaluation (Hassenpflug, 2013). This chapter presents the findings of a case study research project to investigate the extent contextual variables influenced the HRM practices districts used to recruit, select, and develop principals

Background, Context, History, and Conceptual Framework for the Problem

Background. Anderson (1991) projected 60% of principals in U.S. schools would retire during the 1990s. Marks (2013) discussed the phenomenon as the “baby boomer retirement bulge” which coincided with an increase in early principal retirement and a growing reluctance of teachers and administrators to pursue a principalship (p. 1). As the anticipated retirements were realized,

additional factors further complicated the administrative shortage, according to Barker (1997), as the role of the principal shifted from manager to instructional leader with a substantial increase in job complexities. Since the 1990s, administrative shortages and increasing job complexity have continued to cause concern, particularly at the high school level (Hsiao, Lee, & Tu, 2013; Pijanowski & Brady, 2009; Winter & Morgenthal, 2002).

Increasing complexities of educational contexts intensify the importance of hiring effective principals who can affect school success and student achievement (Ash et al, 2013; Clifford, 2010; Farr, 2004; Krasnoff, 2015; Rammer, 2007; Schlueter & Walker, 2008; Waters & Marzano, 2006). HRM practices reflected traditional as well as emerging practices and processes to respond to a wide range of principal recruiting, selection, and development contextual needs. Diverse and divergent practices and strategies reflect the local needs and desires for a principal, the influence of policy and politics, and the mercurial and complex educational contexts. Research literature established the significance of an effective instructional leader to lead change and improve student learning as second only to the impact a teacher had on student achievement (Ash et al., 2013; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Martineau, 2012; Waters & Marzano, 2006).

The Oregon Department of Education (ODE, n.d.) aligned administrative standards with the CCSSO (2008) and NPBEA (2009) standards and reflects research literature leadership characteristics (Ash et al., 2013; Cotton, 2003; Fullan, Bertani, & Quinn, 2004; Hill, 2009; Honig, 2012; Honig & Copland, 2008; Leithwood & Poplin, 1992; Waters & Marzano, 2006; Whitaker, 2003). The research literature leadership standards and characteristics defined and established the changing role of the principal as instructional (i.e., educational) leader. The result of the policy and standards development led to changes at the state level—adjusting law and policy—which influenced local school board policy and district administrative HRM. Traditional human resource

management (THRM) slowly evolved from traditional recruiting and selection to emerging best practices (Bartling et al., 2012; Brymer et al., 2014; Clifford, 2010; Wright et al., 2014).

As evidenced in the research literature since the 1990s, school districts throughout the United States employed a wide range of THRM and SHRM practices in the recruitment, selection, and development of building administrators (Barker, 1997; Brymer et al., 2014; Chapman et al., 2005; Chatzimouratidi, Theotokas, & Lagoudis, 2012; Clifford, 2010; Copland, 2001; Farr, 2004; Gill & Hendee, 2010; Gully, Phillips, & Kim, 2013; Klotz, da Motta Veiga, Buckley, & Gavin, 2013; Marks, 2013; Phillips & Gully, 2015; Pijanowski & Brady, 2009; Spanneut, 2007; Seawell, 2015; Whitaker, 2003). The research questions in this study reflect a perceived conflict between traditional and SHRM practices, guiding the discussion pertaining to how the use of standards, characteristics, and research structured and supported HRM to define and improve the quality of principals as instructional leaders in complex educational contexts.

In changing and complex educational contexts identified in research literature, many factors influenced applicants and organizations in the HRM process of administrative hiring and development (Brymer et al., 2014; Carless, 2005; Harper, 2009; Marks, 2013; Phillips & Gully, 2015; Shen et al., 1999; Slowik, 2001; Whaley, 2002; Whitaker, 2003). Traditional human resource management (THRM) consistently reflected the use and reliance of the interview and applicant “fit” in recruitment and selection (Anderson, 1991; Ash et al., 2013; Palmer, 2014; Phillips & Gully, 2015; Pounder & Crow, 2005; Weller, 1998). Because it was unknown from research literature to what extent strategic human resource management (SHRM) was employed in administrative hiring and development, this study explored the variables and factors, such as school and district needs and contexts, influencing district HRM practices (Clifford, 2010; Fong, Fong, & Makkonen, 2011; Goldring, Huff, & Camburn, 2008; Hill, 2009). As no research literature explored Oregon principal SHRM, it was unclear how Oregon districts assessed school

and district needs in the HRM process, or how the school context affected the HRM processes used, as locale, size, and demographic influence applicant attraction (Carless, 2005; Clifford, 2010).

Context and history. Many researchers have suggested that systematic development of administrators is needed to assist them to grow into the new roles and responsibilities identified in the CCSSO (1996, 2009), NPBEA (2009, 2015) standards, Every Student Succeeds Act of 2015 requirements (Civic Impulse, 2016), ODE (n.d.) standards, as well as district and school community expectations and needs (Copland, 2001; Garofalo, 2015; Fullan et al., 2004; Harper, 2009; Hill, 2009; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Marzano et al. 2005; Spanneut, 2007; Waters & Marzano, 2006). To provide systematic support for changing the principal role from manager to instructional leader, organizational management literature recommended districts should establish a framework for responding and adapting to contextual variables (Schmuck, Bell, & Bell, 2012).

According to National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES, 2016), in the 2016–17 school year, 197 Oregon public districts supported 1,236 schools. The majority of these districts (104) were categorized by NCES (2016) as rural: remote locale and small (109) size, but these categories represented a minority of the number of schools: rural: remote 202 and small 204. In contrast, city and suburb districts accounted for 33 of the 197 districts, but 633 of the 1,236 schools (NCES, 2016). District and school context influenced administrative applicants' interest (Clifford, 2010; Fong, Fong, & Makkonen, 2011; Goldring, Huff, & Camburn, 2008; Hill, 2009). Funding was another district contextual variable affecting principal HRM. Stone-Johnson (2014) and Winter and Morgenthal (2002) found adequate funding of schools and resulting low-performance were barriers to attracting qualified candidates to a principalship.

The national and state economic crisis resulted in a reduction of funding to districts and school. Oregon distributed federal educational funds and tax revenues for public school funding

on a per pupil allocation; thus, massive school reductions of staffing, programs, and resources ultimately affected Oregon student performance on standardized testing and graduation rates (Imazeki & Reschovsky, 2006; Meteau, 2012; Sanders, 2014; Scott, 2008). In addition to budget restrictions, Oregon's tax structure, bond, and levy laws presented additional challenges for stable funding of K–12 and higher education (Oregon School Board Association & Confederation of School Administrators, 2016). Pijanowski and Brady (2009) found fewer teachers were willing to make the commitment to become administrators when the difference between a senior teacher salary and benefits package were not significantly different from a beginning administrator salary and benefits. Nearly a decade of freezing Cost of Living Allowance (COLA), salary advancements, and step advancements for educators and administrators made the transition to an administrative position less lucrative for teachers (Jarvis, 2011; Moore, 2015; Moore, 2016). Expectancy theory (Shen, Cooley, & Ruhl-Smith, 1999), explained the relationship between an applicant's perception of job expectations and compensation and the actual expectations and compensation. To ensure schools had quality instructional leaders and managers capable of responding to the changes in the increasingly complex educational context, expectancy theory related to principal compensation and retirement districts should consider in recruiting and selecting practices (Shen, Cooley, & Ruhl-Smith, 1999). As a variety of contextual factors affected the administrative candidate pool and applicant interest, the administrative shortage necessitated changes in how principals were strategically recruited, selected, and developed (Ash et al., 2013; Gully, Phillips, & Kim, 2014; Hill, 2009; Marks, 2013; Palmer, 2014; Stone-Johnson, 2014).

Conceptual framework. As investigation of research literature did not reveal a principal SHRM conceptual framework, the researcher created a framework for this study based on THRM phases in the literature. The researcher's conceptual framework identified the current gap in

research literature and HRM practice as the recruitment and selection stage assessments were not strategically used to establish an instructional leadership growth plan to connect district teaching and learning personnel to SHRM. Applying SHRM practices and processes to the conceptual framework in this study encompassed recruitment, selection, and development stages and were based on strategic human capital theory, which addressed individual characteristics an organization could leverage as capital to complement existing member characteristics to attract human capital in lean environments (Brymer et al., 2014, Wright et al., 2014). SHRM relied on professional standards, characteristics, and research to define the knowledge, skills, and experiences an effective secondary instructional principal should have possessed. Although the standards and research provided districts with a fairly consistent and clear framework for educational leadership, the contextual variables and constraints make hiring an effective principal even more challenging. Hill (2009) and Marks (2013) asserted factors associated with the administrative shortage were complex and contextual. These contextual factors included the conflict between traditional human resource management (THRM) and SHRM practices, the changing role of leadership and systems, and educational funding implications.

Although some national and international districts in the research literature were leading reform efforts in strategic hiring practices, such as Instructional Leader Directors (Honig, 2012), Leading Student Achievement Project (Garofalo, 2015), and succession (Hargreaves, 2009), many relied on traditional practices. Traditional recruitment and selection were largely based on “fit” and familiarity with candidates, frequently lacking a systematic process (Anderson, 1991; Barker, 1997; Brymer et al., 2014; Clifford, 2010; Hargreaves, 2009; Harper, 2009; Maurer & Cook, 2011). Traditional development practices usually lacked clear expectations and support (Anderson, 1991).

Principal HRM and instructional leadership development bracketed the relationship between principal, school, and district to systematize typically discrete processes, even though both are founded on leadership standards (CCSSO, 1996, 2008; NPBEA, 2009, 2015; ODE, n.d.) and research-based leadership characteristics (Cotton, 2003; Marzano et al., 2005; McEwan, 2003; Waters, Marzano, McNulty, 2003; Waters & Marzano, 2006; Whitaker, 2003). SHRM considered how the school, district, and individual each exerted influence on the recruitment, selection, and development stages of a principal human resource management (Klotz et al., 2013). Results from the SHRM recruitment and selection stages should aid districts in developing a collaborative instructional leadership growth plan, and inform the supervision and evaluation process (Chatzimouratidi, Theotokas, & Lagoudis, 2012; Copland, 2001).

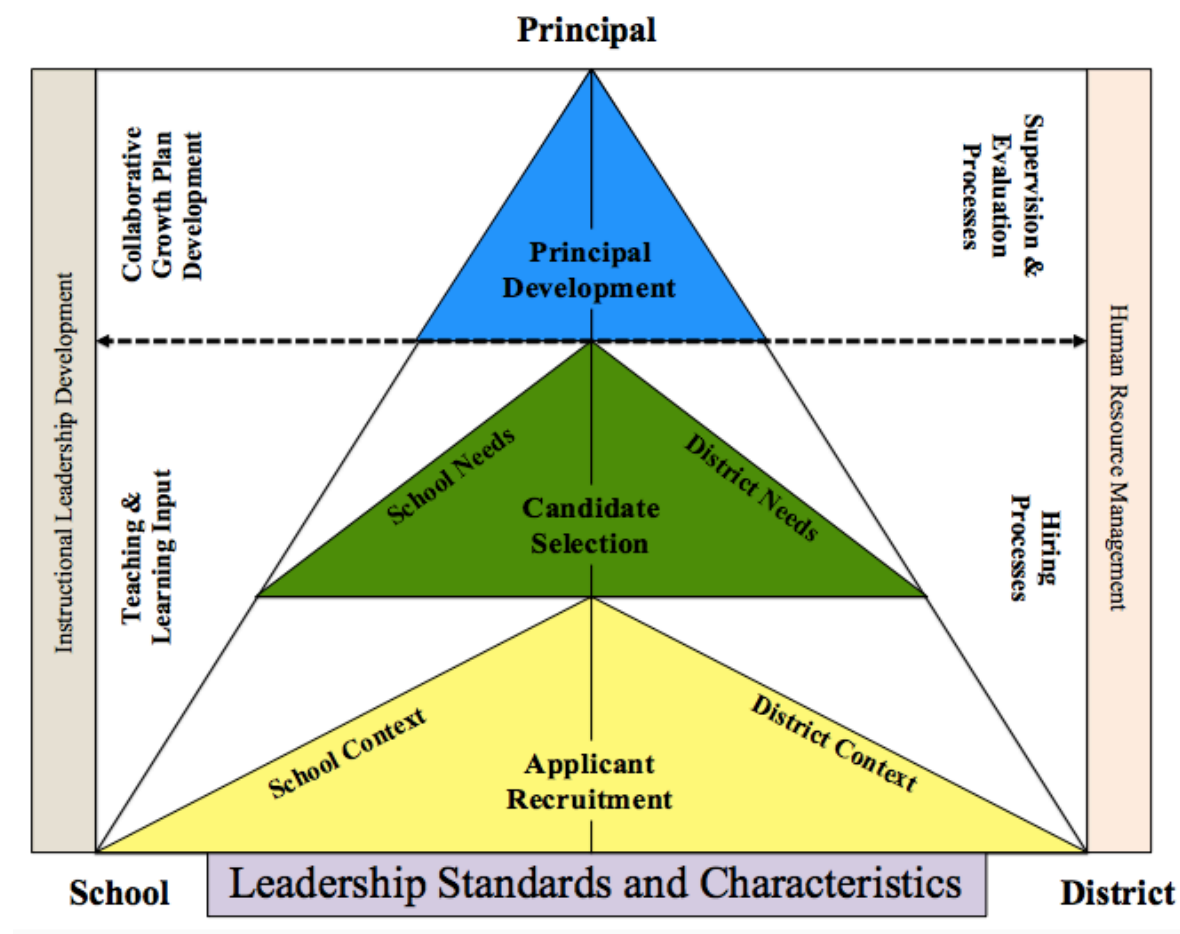


Figure 1. Conceptual framework.

Statement of the Problem

As there was a gap in the research literature relating to principal HRM processes and the relationship to contextual variables and needs, it was not known to the researcher to what extent district-contextual variables affect principal recruitment, selection, and development.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to determine what HRM practices Oregon public school districts used to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional principals; and if the HRM practices associate/relate with district-contextual demographics. To explore the research questions, this qualitative case study of Oregon public school districts sought to discover what HRM practices are being used in Oregon public school districts. The researcher gathered data using triangulation of self-report surveys, archival data analysis, and district administrator interviews, and determine whether an association/relationship existed between district-contextual variables and the practices.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1. What practices do districts use to recruit, select and develop effective instructional principals?
2. How do district-contextual variables affect practices to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional principals?

Rationale, Relevance, and Significance of the Study

Objectives of the case study were to:

1. Determine what HRM practices Oregon public school districts use to recruit, select, and develop principals, and

2. Determine if contextual variables gathered from archival data (i.e., district demographics) associate/relate with specific HRM practices used to recruit, select, and develop instructional principals.

The following premises provided the focus and perspective of the study:

1. Leadership standards and research-based characteristics should have guided districts' SHRM applicant recruitment and candidate selection of an instructional principal in complex educational contexts.
2. SHRM recruitment and selection should have been systematically assessing principal knowledge, skills, and experiences to inform instructional leadership development plans responsive to the educational context.

To achieve the objectives, the researcher gathered data using case study research design, triangulating a self-report survey, document analysis, and interviews to collect study data (Yin, 2014). Self-report surveys and individual interviews of Oregon public school district human resource personnel provided data to determine current use of HRM practices at the time of this study; these practices were categorized as THRM or SHRM to answer the first research question, determining if the first and second premises of this study were accepted and practiced. The researcher analyzed relationships between the self-report and interview data with archival district-contextual data in order to answer the second research question while determining if the premises were influenced by district-context.

As the majority of Oregon districts were rural: remote and small size, district-contextual data was significant considering Pijanowski and Brady's (2009) findings that urban and rural schools experienced a vast difference in recruiting administrative candidates with minimal credentials, further exhibiting the influence a school's location, community wealth, characteristics, and student achievement had on applicant attraction. In the researcher conceptual framework,

SHRM practices considered contextual factors when seeking to fill a principal vacancy, and districts could reduce the impact of the principal shortage on applicant pools through strategically recruiting, selecting, and developing the best candidates to improve student learning and growth. Determining association between district-context and HRM practices—either traditional or strategic—to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional principals connected the premises of this study to the problem statement and research question, allowing determination of association/relationship between HRM practice and archival data.

Definition of Terms

The researcher utilized the following terms and definitions within this study the common and applied definitions of each stage established working definitions and common language in order to define the following terms for the purposes of the study:

Complex context: defined by school and district size, locale, and demographics (NCES, 2016).

Development: related to the professional growth plan for a principal based on the results of the selection process to guide mentoring, coaching, supervision, and evaluation; and increase principal effectiveness as an instructional leader and manager as measured by predetermined criteria (Harper, 2009).

District demographic contextual variables: size, locale, and specific student demographic variables such as the percentage of special education students in a population or the number of teachers influencing district and school contexts and needs (NCES, 2016; ODE, 2016).

Recruitment: included practices to identify qualified applicants for an open position, such as job postings, organizational needs assessment (ONA), methods and modes of marketing, applicant attraction, etc. (Phillips & Gully, 2015).

Selection: included practices an organization used to assess candidates against predetermined criteria; and determine candidates' knowledge, skills, experiences, and characteristics to predict effectiveness and success in an open position (Kwan & Walker, 2009).

Strategic Human Resource Management: organizational practices and processes intentionally scaffolding and informing recruitment, selection, and development to predict and then support job performance through articulated messaging and common practices meeting needs while sustaining organizational culture, climate, values, and goals (Gully, Phillips, & Kim, 2014).

Traditional Human Resource Management: as an antonym to Gully, Phillips, and Kim's (2014) SHRM, traditional organizational practices and processes are generic, unstructured, and less able to predict successful job performance (Ash, Hodge, and Connell, 2013).

Assumptions, Delimitations, and Limitations

Assumptions. The following assumptions related to the focus and perspective of the study:

1. Leadership standards and research-based characteristics should guide districts' SHRM applicant recruitment and candidate selection of an instructional principal in complex educational contexts.
2. SHRM recruitment and selection should systematically assess principal knowledge, skills, and experiences to inform instructional leadership development plans responsive to the educational context.

The small population size (197 districts) and the majority of rural and small districts was expected to affect response rates of because of limited district staff willing and having capacity to respond to the self-survey report, but respondents were expected to do so honestly. Human resource directors or district administrators were expected to express interest in participating in the survey as well as the interview in order to address the study problem statement's relevance and significance for

Oregon education. Districts were expected to use readily accessible online resources to publish principal job postings in 2016–2017.

Delimitations. This study focused on public school districts in Oregon, excluding private and charter districts. Private and charter districts are not required to use administrative standards and the same HRM practices as public school districts are, who abide by Oregon legislation, Department of Education, and Teachers Standards and Practices guidelines. One hundred and ninety-seven school districts comprise the Oregon public education. These districts represent a range of demographic and contextual variables according to size, locale, student, and staff descriptors (NCES, 2016). As some public charter districts are included in the total number, and potential researcher bias could emerge as a result of professional or personal connections to a district, the overall number of districts was reduced to 182 for this study. The 182 districts exhibited the district-contextual variables drawn from the NCES (2016) categories for size and locale.

Selection of a qualitative case study and the three data sources for triangulation delimited the impact low participation/response rates were expected to have on a quantitative study, affecting validity, reliability, and confidence. The researcher defined the data analysis procedures correlational data in order to the study's validity and reliability through Pearson's Partial Correlation and Spearman's rank-order correlation, aiding in delimiting concerns Yin (2014) identified for case study research in level of rigor and derived generalizations. HRM was expected to be primarily an internal process directed by a district office administrator, leading to variance in policy, practices, and transparency, especially related to professional development plans, supervision, and evaluation.

The researcher combined elements from three validated instruments to create a survey which gather data on all three HRM stages, increasing the rigor of data collection instead of a

rigorous piloting a developed instrument for reliability and validity testing in the absence of an valid and reliable SHRM instrument. The researcher obtained permission to use interview instruments developed by prior research as field-testing in order to increase validity and reliability of interview results. To delimit potential conflicts of interest and biases, the study did not include district data where the researcher worked as a principal or where any family worked as an administrator. To promote the researcher's scholarship as a doctoral student at Concordia University (CU) and not position as an acting principal or association with any district, the researcher used CU email to invite participation in the study.

Limitations. Yin (2014) acknowledged case study research lacked formally defined skills or standardized design, and cautioned statistical generalizations cannot be drawn, as cases have small and limited samples. Review of research literature did not reveal surveys or interview protocols/questions combining all three stages of HRM addressed in the study, which presented a challenge as field-testing each was beyond the study's scope. Population size and geographic accessibility for interviews limited the study, and available resources and time to conduct the study were limiting as well. As a result, the researcher decided to use Yin's (2014) case study research design and triangulate the results to improve validity. Concerns of voluntary participation rates were addressed by targeting interview participants in under-represented districts by context to increase credibility. Dependability was challenged by return rates as well and was addressed by establishing consistent and stable research processes for surveys, content analysis, and interviews, intended to lead to findings of associations/relationships between the data collection designs establishing dependability.

The study survey was limited by two factors. Van de Water's (1987) and Farr's (2004) validated surveys provided the items in this study, but the researcher did not validate the self-report survey used which included selected items from each researcher, resulting in a modified

instrument. The timing for distributing the survey limited response rates as the initial recruitment coincided with active administrative and teacher recruitment at the Oregon Educator's Job Fair in April and the subsequent work to select candidates.

Chapter 1 Summary

The significance of an effective instructional leader to lead change and improve student learning is second only to the impact a teacher has on student achievement (Waters & Marzano, 2006). The purpose of the study was to determine what human resource management (HRM) practices Oregon public school districts used to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional principals; and if the HRM practices associate/relate with district-contextual demographics. Research questions reflected a perceived conflict between traditional and SHRM practices and guided the discussion pertaining to how standards, characteristics, and research were used in systematic recruiting, selection, and development to define and improve the quality of principals as instructional leaders.

Chapter 2 explores the research literature with the conceptual framework serving as the organizational structure for the background and methodological foundation. Chapter 3 explains the qualitative case study methodology, the three data sources, and the processes used in the study. Chapter 4 presents the results from the three data sources and associations/relationships between district-context and HRM practices. In Chapter 5, discussion of the results relies on Critical Theory to challenge existing HRM practices and made recommendations for further research. Based on the study's findings, districts may choose to consider principal HRM practices based on district and school contexts to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional leaders.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction to the Literature Review

To understand the purposes of the study, the literature review was organized into three sections:

- Recruitment, selection, and development stages of principal human resource management (HRM)
- Review of the research literature and methodological literature organized by strategic human resource management (SHRM) stage and methodology
- Review of the methodological issues.

Applicant attraction, applicant fit, person-job, and person-organization fit were applied in each of the HRM stages to understand the relationship between an applicant's Realistic Job Perspective (RJP) during the recruitment state and how the RJP remains constant or changes through the selection process (Carless, 2005) and was significant in development and retention (Brymer et al., 2014; Harper, 2009; Marks, 2013; Phillips & Gully, 2015; Shen et al., 1999; Slowik, 2001; Whaley, 2002; Whitaker, 2003).

Anderson (1991) projected that 60% of principals in U.S. schools would retire during the 1990s. Administrative shortages continued to cause concern for school districts, particularly at the secondary high school level (Hsiao et al., 2013; Pijanowski & Brady, 2009; Winter & Morgenthal, 2002). Marks (2013) identified factors influencing early principal retirement and reticent teachers who did not pursue administration careers. The principal role was critical to the success of the school and contributed—in part—to the overall success of the district as a member of the administrative team (Ash et al., 2013; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Marineau, 2012; Waters & Marzano, 2006).

The National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983) released *A Nation at Risk* to America and increased educational reform momentum, highlighting educational concerns affecting the economy, national security, and international relationships. Through the 1990s, educational reform gained momentum, culminating in the U.S. Department of Education's No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001. From the Act, further complexity emerged as charter schools became more popular for families seeking local control, educational options, and flexibility (U.S. Department of Education, 2007). The Act enforced additional accountability measures, requiring districts to anticipate and provide for changing demographics during the economic downturn and the resulting recession, which impacted K–12 and higher education funding (Imazeki & Reschovsky, 2006; Meteau, 2012; Sanders, 2014; Scott, 2008). The results of funding constraints and increased accountability complicated the educational context, presenting new capacity considerations and concerns for educational human resources (Goertz, 2005; Sunderman & Orfield, 2006).

Administrator roles changed significantly because of the reforms (Farr, 2004; Garofalo, 2015; Hill, 2009; Stone-Johnson, 2014; Winter & Morgenthal, 2002). As the leader of the school, the principal was solely responsible for instructional leadership and management. Hiring an effective principal in the reform environment was critical to school success and student achievement (Ash et al., 2013; Clifford, 2010; Farr, 2004; Krasnoff, 2015; Rammer, 2007; Schlueter & Walker, 2008; Waters & Marzano, 2006). To fulfill districts' obligation to hire effective principals, a wide range of principal recruiting, selection, and development human resource management (HRM) practices reflected traditional as well as emerging strategies. The diverse and divergent practices and strategies represented local needs and desires for a principal, influence of policy and politics, and created mercurial and complex educational contexts. Increasing complexities of educational contexts intensified the importance of hiring effective

principals: the significance of an effective instructional leader to lead change and improve student learning was second only to the impact a teacher had on student achievement (Waters & Marzano, 2006).

Leadership standards (CCSSO, 1996, 2008; NPBEA, 2015) and leadership characteristics research (Ash et al., 2013; Cotton, 2003; Fullan et al., 2004; Hill, 2009; Honig, 2012; Honig & Copland, 2008; Leithwood & Poplin, 1992; Waters & Marzano, 2006; Whitaker, 2003) defined and defended the changing role of the principal as instructional leader. Traditional principal recruitment and selection differed from emerging best practices (Bartling et al., 2012; Brymer et al., 2014; Clifford, 2010; Wright et al., 2014). The best practices supported by research literature contained a wealth of principal competencies and characteristics describing and bracketing the principal as an instructional leader as a general topic and investigated the phenomenon in a few geographic areas, but the researcher was unable to discover studies particular to principal HRM practices in Oregon.

Context. SHRM encompassed recruitment, selection, and development stages and was based on strategic human capital theory, which addressed individual characteristics to improve candidate selection when shortages affected applicant attraction or the candidate pool (Brymer et al., 2014, Wright et al., 2014). SHRM relied on professional standards, characteristics, and research to define the knowledge, skills, and experiences an effective secondary instructional principal should have possessed to be successful in a specific district or school context. Although the standards and research provided a fairly consistent and clear framework for educational leadership, the contextual variables and constraints made hiring an effective principal even more challenging (Clifford, 2010; Kwan & Walker, 2009); Stone-Johnson, 2014; Winter & Morgenthal, 2002). Hill (2009) and Marks (2013) asserted that factors associated with the administrative shortage were complex and contextual ranging from student performance on standardized testing

to ethnicity, school safety, or funding. These contextual factors included the conflict between traditional human resource management (THRM) and SHRM practices, the changing role of leadership and systems, and educational funding implications.

Conflict between THRM and SHRM practices. The conflict between traditional and strategic practices further amplified factors causing administrative shortages. Although some districts were leading reform efforts in strategic hiring practices, such as Instructional Leader Directors (Honig, 2012), Leading Student Achievement Project (Garofalo, 2015), and succession (Hargreaves, 2009), many continued to rely on traditional practices. Traditional recruitment and selection were largely based on “fit” and familiarity with candidates and frequently lacked a systematic process (Anderson, 1991; Barker, 1997; Brymer et al., 2014; Clifford, 2010; Hargreaves, 2009; Harper, 2009; Maurer & Cook, 2011). Traditional development practices typically lacked clear expectations and support (Anderson, 1991; Hassenpflug, 2013).

Changing role of leadership and systems. The policy and practices documented in research literature particular to the U.S. context contributed to the principal shortage as a worldwide phenomenon as a shortage of willing and qualified principal applicants was further exacerbated by an intensifying focus on the importance of principals’ influence on student achievement through instructional leadership in shaping the vision, mission, values, practices, and organizational culture and behavior (Clifford, 2010; Garofalo, 2015; Goldring, Huff, May, & Camburn, 2008; Hill, 2009; Mendels & Mitgang, 2013; Rammer, 2007). Barker (1997) discussed the emerging trend changing the role of the principal from manager to instructional leader and identified resulting increased job complexities. These complexities were traced through evolving national policies (Civic Impulse, 2016; Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, 1965; U.S. Department of Education, 2007) and the revision of administrative standards by the national and state organizations (CCSSO, 1996, 2008; NPBEA, 2009, 2015, ODE, n.d.).

Research showed the 1990s through early 2000s exhibited the categorization of principal as a selected transformational leader (Hsiao et al., 2013; Leithwood & Poplin, 1992) and/or appointed transactional leader (Hsiao et al., 2013; Jackson, 2011), until the categorization of principal as instructional leader (Gill & Hendee, 2010; Honig, 2012; Huff, Preston, & Goldring, 2013; Krasnoff, 2015; Mendels & Mitgang, 2013; Rammer, 2007). The result of the policy and standards development led to changes at the state level, adjusting law and policy influences local school board policy and district administrative HRM (Hassenpflug, 2013, ODE, n.d.). The responsibility for making changes to organizational behaviors and culture rested firmly on the shoulders of district leadership (Honig & Copland, 2008; Honig, 2012; Rammer, 2007; Waters & Marzano, 2006). Researchers encouraged systematically ensuring administrators grew into the new roles and responsibilities identified in the ODE (n.d.) and NPBEA (2015) standards, Every Student Succeeds Act of 2015 requirements (Civic Impulse, 2016), and district and school community expectations and needs (Copland, 2001; Garofalo, 2015; Fullan et al., 2004; Harper, 2009; Hill, 2009; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Marzano et al., 2005; Spanneut, 2007; Waters & Marzano, 2006).

Providing such systematic support for changing the principal role from manager to instructional leader had implications for districts to establish a framework for responding and adapting to contextual and personnel variables (Schmuck et al., 2012). Schmuck et al. (2012) recommended organizational design strategies and practices for small workgroups and larger organizations to improve systemic effectiveness and efficiency when responding to changes such as the manager to instructional leader shifts. Organizational design strategies provided district leaders with tools to respond to the increasingly complex contexts associated with principal recruitment, selection, and development (Schmuck et al., 2012).

Financial influence on principal shortage. Adequate funding of schools and resulting low-performance were barriers to attracting qualified applicants to a principalship (Stone-Johnson, 2014; Winter & Morgenthal, 2002). The national economic crisis massive budget reductions in Oregon educational resources, programs, and staffing left districts accountable to improve student achievement with less (Imazeki & Reschovsky, 2006; Meteau, 2012; Sanders, 2014; Scott, 2008). In addition to budget restrictions, Oregon's tax structure, bond, and levy laws presented additional challenges for stable funding of K–12 and higher education (Oregon School Board Association & Confederation of School Administrators, 2016).

In 2013, Portland Public Schools passed a record-breaking bond of \$482 million for facility and resource improvements, after the rejection of a \$542 million bond nearly two years' prior (Dungca, 2012). In 2014, the Beaverton School District School Board passed a \$680 million bond with 52% of the votes in approval, increasing options for facility improvement, new construction, and renewed resources (Owen, 2014). As apparent in these two districts, capital improvements and teaching and learning expenses challenged educational leadership with multiple responsibilities, requiring principals to possess skill sets beyond traditional educational management and leadership expectations without experience or training (Honig & Hatch, 2004; Imazeki & Reschovsky, 2006; Goertz, 2005; Gray, Fry, Bottoms, & O'Neill, 2007; Rammer, 2007; Scott, 2008; Task Force on School Capital Improvement Planning, 2014; Whitaker, 2003). Deferred maintenance caught up with districts, which had not been able to pursue or pass such bonds, and the State of Oregon offered \$125 million in matching fund grants for capital improvement projects in 2014, recognizing Oregon students deserved engaging, safe, and secure learning environments (Task Force on School Capital Improvement Planning, 2014). In 2016, nine districts passed bonds, four of which totaled \$1.3 billion, while eight others failed to pass (Oregon School Board Association, 2016).

A final complication influencing the decline in administrative applicants in Oregon was nearly a decade of freezing Cost of Living Allowance (COLA), salary advancements, and step advancements for educators and administrators (Jarvis, 2011; Moore, 2015; Moore, 2016). Pijanowski and Brady (2009) found veteran teachers did not see the difference between salary and benefit packages as a motivator to enter administration. The importance of the financial outlook was that the administrative compensation packages had begun to look less lucrative at 235–260 day contracts (compared to a 180 day licensed contract) with fewer benefits and an unpredictable retirement system (Jarvis, 2011). Shen et al. (1999) acknowledged applicants' perceptions and actual job expectations and compensation relative to expectancy theory should not be overlooked when reflecting on the motivations for entering educational leadership positions.

Shen et al. (1999) found salary and benefits were immediate considerations, but in Oregon, retirement benefits continued to be an issue of contention and litigation, further serving as a disincentive to pursue a principalship in the state. The Oregon Public Employee Retirement System (PERS) reforms created financial challenges beginning in the 2017–18 school year when public employer contributions were expected to increase approximately \$800 million per the next three biennia, with the statewide pension cost total rising \$2.6 billion in addition to the current \$2 billion employers were paying (Sickinger, 2015). The Oregon Educators' Benefits Board (OEBB, 2015) intended to reduce healthcare costs by consolidating a large pool of participants, providing services to over 150,000 Oregonians. Rising healthcare costs and the bidding for contracts on the options resulted in cost increases in benefits packages affecting district and employees, who choose higher deductible plans to alleviate upfront costs (Gray, 2014). Marks (2013) study inferred that these factors played into an individual's decision to forgo principalship, further creating a shortage of applicants who met the characteristics of an effective instructional leader as (Marks, 2013).

The financial context played an important role in recruiting qualified applicants (Pijanowski & Brady, 2009; Stone-Johnson, 2014; Winters & Morgenthal, 2002). Although the financial challenges discussed were particular to Oregon, similar economics affected national and international administrative shortage (Marks, 2013). The shortage necessitated changes in how principals were strategically recruited, selected, and developed (Ash et al., 2013; Gully, Phillips, & Kim, 2014; Hill, 2009; Marks, 2013; Palmer, 2014; Stone-Johnson, 2014). To ensure schools have quality instructional leaders and managers capable of responding to the changes in the increasingly complex educational context, expectancy theory relating to principal compensation and retirement must be considered in recruiting and selecting (Shen et al., 1999). Whitaker (2003) recommended re-examining compensation packages as one of five strategies to improve recruitment and selection of principals.

Significance. The expectations placed on principals to lead change and assume the role of instructional leader were factors in administrative shortage (Barker, 1997; Copland, 2001; Howley, Andrianaivo, & Perry, 2005; Pijanowski & Brady, 2009). Clifford (2010) found job complexity, increased stress, low student performance, and challenging demographics affected filling leadership vacancies as candidates selectively applied for positions with fewer or less significant challenges. Copland (2001) challenged the “superprincipal” paradigm recognizing searching for a mythical leader set the standard of perceived quality and quantity in educational leadership applicants. Pijanowski and Brady (2009) found differences in administrative recruitment between rural and urban schools, signifying the impact context had on applicant attraction. Cooley and Shen (2000) studied teachers’ rating of 31 factors influencing their decision to pursue or not pursue a principalship and found the top five factors were the relationship between the board and district staff, emotional aspects (stress, boredom, frustration, burnout, and lack of fulfillment), the perceived impact of the principalship on home life, the regards for personal safety, and equity

between responsibilities and the financial package. Whitaker (2003) recognized while the expectation of instructional leadership had increased, the expectation of management responsibilities had also increased, creating permeable boundaries where principals were even more engaged with and accountable to external agencies and stakeholders. These contextual factors influenced the administrative shortage and varied depending on the school and district characteristics. Considering contextual factors when seeking to fill a principal vacancy and districts can reduce the impact of the principal shortage on applicant pools through strategically recruiting, selecting, and developing the best candidates to improve student learning and growth (Hassenpflug, 2013).

Conceptual Framework

Phillips and Gully (2015) argued that recruiting reflects an organization's effectiveness, success, and sustainability. Gully et al. (2013) conceptualized strategic recruitment in a multilevel model where vertical alignment of micro (individual), meso (team/unit), and macro (organization) characterized the levels of analysis to consider and who to involve in recruitment. Horizontal alignment of SHRM practices included five categories affecting each vertical level: compensating and incentivizing, appraising and evaluating, developing and empowering, strategizing and planning, and recruiting and staffing. Gully et al. (2013) proposed an added dimension to their multilevel model: the external environment influenced recruitment, which included operational excellence, differentiation innovation, and specialization customer intimacy. Gully et al. (2013) recognized SHRM was effective if district personnel had the capacity to perform the strategy, which Hassenpflug (2013) highlighted in expecting hiring committees to be trained in interviewing and selection practices.

My conceptual framework attempts to encompass multiple elements and practices from the research literature as HRM practices and instructional leadership development bracket the

relationship between principal, school, and district. The foundation of the relationship was the leadership standards (ODE, n.d.) and the research-based leadership characteristics (Cotton, 2003; McEwan, 2003; Waters et al., 2003; Waters & Marzano, 2006). SHRM considered how the school, district, and individual each exert influence on the recruitment, selection, and development stages of a principal human resource management (Klotz et al., 2013).

Review of Research Literature

This section is divided into three sub-sections addressing applicant recruitment, candidate selection, and principal development in the conceptual framework and guiding the organization of the literature review. Research studies identified in the literature search considered the three HRM stages individually or in tandem (recruitment and selection), but never as a three stage strategically designed process with the common thread of leadership standards and characteristics. Applicant recruitment literature revealed school and district needs and contexts, which may not be available to applicants or organizations unless derived from an ONA and intentionally used by organizations to make HRM decisions or by applicants to evaluate a position (Carless, 2005, Clifford 2010). Candidate selection marked the narrowing of the sequenced process as applicants selected out of the process, the organization decided who would move into the interview process, and ended with a candidate accepting a job offer (Carless, 2005; Spanneut, 2007). Principal development research literature covered growth/development and supervision/evaluation of the selected applicant after the job offer and ranges from the probationary period (typically the first three years in Oregon districts) throughout a principal's tenure, regardless of whether a new principal or veteran (Garofalo, 2015; Huff et al., 2013).

Applicant recruitment. Applicant recruitment literature addressed how an organization attracted applicants and how applicants evaluated open positions in an organization. Maurer and Cook (2011) recognized the objective of recruiting was to attract and engage qualified applicants

in the process, finding 92% of recruiters must handle irrelevant responses and 71% of human resource managers believed most resumes were incongruent with job description expectations and qualifications. Winter and Morgenthal (2002) applied phenomenology with empiricism in a mixed-method study observing recruitment simulations and role-playing, determining participants' responses by observing reactions to high school job descriptions, finding school size, performance, and location influenced applicant attraction. Studying the recruitment of female administrators, Seawell (2015) found traditional job postings influenced applicant interest and changes in practice encouraged administrative workforce diversity. Applicant recruitment revealed a wide range of findings relating to leadership standards and characteristics, applicant attraction, organizational activities, and leadership development academies to develop applicants from within (Anderson, 1991; Barker, 1997; Chapman et al., 2005; Clifford, 2010; Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, 1965; Hsiao et al., 2013; Maurer & Cook, 2011; NAASP, 2001; Phillips & Gully, 2015; U.S. Department of Education, 2007; H. Res. 3441, 2007; H. Res. 1156, 2007; S. Res 837, 2007; H. Res. 2835, 2005).

Leadership standards and characteristics in applicant recruitment. Hassenpflug (2013) argued changing candidate selection began with the development of a job description based on instructional leadership responsibilities and characteristics, with development input from the entire staff. Kwan and Walker (2009) claimed the hiring was a two-way process between the applicant and the organization. The process begins in the recruitment stage, as the organization identified the desired leadership characteristics and behaviors to meet the school and district needs. Studying the difference between hiring agencies' and applicant's expectations of what was required of new principals, Kwan and Walker (2009) found the changing influence of the reform environment on the principal role and the importance of a strategic succession plan. Identifying school and district needs in the applicant recruitment process, Hill (2009) conducted a correlation research study the

re-culturing of schools to sustainable Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) in a mid-sized Texas district related principal leadership practices. Hill's (2009) study examined the district need of principals with PLC capacity to re-culture a school, one such framework to accomplish the task. In Hill's (2009) example, the PLC framework required specific principal characteristics to meet the district and school needs. A principal vacancy provided an organization with the opportunity to assess the context and needs in the school and district (Clifford, 2010; Schmuck et al, 2012).

Recruitment job postings were an organization's communication about the vacancy and the desired knowledge, skills, and experiences an applicant should possess (Carless, 2005, Clifford, 2010). Kropp found an employee's success in the first 18 months related to the fit in the organization and how he or she performed (as cited in Rouen, 2011). Carless (2005) analyzed longitudinal data through questionnaires of 193 Australian graduates of a national telecommunications company, quantifying person-job fit (PJ fit) versus person-organization fit (PO fit) as predictors of organizational attraction and job acceptance intention. Carless' (2005) concluded a single action, such as the job posting, influenced an applicant's decision to apply for a position and remain in or retreat from the applicant pool. Carless (2005) recommended job posting should provide applicants with enough information to self-assess their PJ fit. Carless' (2005) findings reveal how assessing the two types of fit improves how an organization communicates an RJP by defining specific leadership behaviors, characteristics, and skills applied to leadership standards.

According to Farr (2004), the job posting should develop from leadership standards and research-based characteristics. Farr (2004) relied on survey results to analyze principal recruitment and selection in Montana. Farr (2004) concluded the changing principal role and demands of the position led to shortages, but an increased effort and attention to recruitment might produce a strong applicant pool. Although unable to establish validity and reliability due to the

sample size, Farr (2004) found most districts lacked plans for hiring processes based on effective leadership characteristics and standards and needed different recruitment and selection strategies.

Ash et al. (2013) conducted qualitative study applying phenomenology as embedded researchers to gathering qualitative responses and reflections on critical practices in recruitment and selection. As embedded researchers, Ash et al. (2013) conducted interviews and observations of principals in action and then connected findings to studies and research literature. Ash et al. (2013) found recruitment and selection practices to hiring effective principals relied on a systematic process initiated by a superintendent using structured support and predictors of effectiveness to minimize hiring committees' obstacles, which are a result of the committees not knowing how to recruit and select administrators.

Applicant attraction in applicant recruitment. The literature search revealed Marzano et al.'s (2005) statistical meta-analysis resulted in 21 leadership characteristics of principals influenced the CCSSO (2008), and the NPBEA (2009, 2015) standards which use the 21 leadership characteristics as a foundation. Studies in applicant recruitment and attraction research literature were primarily qualitative or mixed-methods when exploring organization and applicant practices (Farr, 2004; Hill, 2009; Klotz et al., 2013; Waters & Marzano, 2006). Maurer and Cook (2011) found leadership characteristics and behaviors guided the development of a job posting and served as a filter for assessing desired applicant leadership characteristics.

Hill's (2009) correlation research study identified 10 specific leadership behaviors correlated to school learning community strength, which an organization could use to identify desirable principal characteristics for a PLC school vacancy. Leadership characteristics highlighted what Huffman and Jacobson (2003) acknowledged in the alignment between actual and expected leadership during the selection process. Farr (2004) cautioned against failure to identify the best candidates to move into the selection stage or beyond, as an incongruence

between applicants' actual leadership behaviors and characteristics and organizations' expectations can damage an organization's or an applicant's credibility and image.

Organizational activities in applicant recruitment. In response to declining applicant pools of qualified candidates, districts introduced leadership academies (Gill & Hendee, 2010; Harper, 2009; Honig, 2012; Whitaker, 2003). Grow your own programs (GYOP) build organizational capacity by nurturing specific principal leadership characteristics and skills relative to the community (Barker, 1997; Farr, 2004; Gray et al., 2007; Hargreaves, 2009; Seawell, 2015). Exhibiting the influence from private sector research, the concept of human capital pipelines emerged in study findings, which promoted the development of administrative talent within a district system, or in cooperation with higher education institutions (Brymer et al., 2014; Pounder & Crow, 2005; Shen et al., 1999; The Wallace Foundation, 2016; Wright et al., 2014). Brymer et al. (2014) applied complex-unitary Critical Systems Theory in studying the socio-technical aspect of maintaining human capital, which can be applied to administrative hiring practices. Encouraging the development of pipelines benefits Grow Your Own Programs policy advocates (NAASP, 2001). Brymer et al. (2014) cautioned about potential elitism, stratification, and groupthink, which can alienate employees, perpetuate inequalities, and reduce innovation and creativity fresh perspective could provide. Understanding the potential in human pipelines from universities and other districts can enhance the ability to effectively recruit, select, and retain administrators (Brymer et al., 2014; Pounder & Crow, 2005; Wright et al., 2014). Alternative approaches to applicant recruitment and improving applicant quality supported districts in principal HRM during the administrative shortage.

Leadership development in applicant recruitment. Winter and Morgenthal's (2002) perceived insufficient empirical knowledge regarding principal recruitment, resulting in their qualitative study to correlate survey respondents' biographical data and reported perceptions,

determining low-achieving schools struggled to attract applicants. Winter and Morgenthal's (2002) study of recruitment led to their declaration, "The job is now more challenging because school reform mandates place greater emphasis on principals being instructional leaders directing the effort to improve student achievement" (p. 333).

In Klotz et al. (2013) study, the researchers found that failure to identify the best candidate created a trust issue if selection tools and processes were ineffective in producing a principal capable of improving student achievement (Klotz et al., 2013). Klotz et al. (2013) found an applicant and organization formulate perceptions of trust early on in the recruitment phase, which led to recommendations for recruitment practices for organizations and applicants. Researchers discovered the job posting and marketing of the vacancy not only provided the first opportunity to establish trust, but provided organizations the opportunity to clearly identify the knowledge, skills, and characteristics desired in a principal, which Klotz et al. (2013) encouraged organizations use to create a realistic job perspective for applicants. Maurer and Cook (2011) found realistic job postings positively portrayed a confident organizational image and attracted quality candidates to move into the selection stage, which aligns with Clifford's (2010) HRM framework. By changing recruitment practices and clarifying definitions and expectations in job postings, candidates would adapt to these expectations and assume the organizational values and behaviors or withdraw from the process if not aligned with personal values, knowledge, skills, or experiences.

Candidate selection. Research literature frequently examined candidate selection and applicant recruitment as connected activities (Anderson, 1991; Ash et al., 2013; Carless, 2005; Chapman et al., 2005; Clifford, 2010; Elmore & Burney, 2000; Farr, 2004; Harper, 2009; Klotz et al., 2013; Kwan & Walker, 2009; Mendels & Mitgang, 2013; Spanneut, 2007; Schlueter & Walker, 2008; Slowik, 2001; Whaley, 2002). Kwan and Walker (2009) asserted candidate selection was the set of practices an organization used to assess candidates against predetermined

criteria and determine candidates' knowledge, skills, experiences, and characteristics to predict effectiveness and success in an open position. Kwan and Walker (2009) found selection—as a component of recruitment—could not be conducted with any scientific precision without a validated instrument to assess candidates. Without a validated selection instrument, selection committee members' beliefs and perceptions were biased by their backgrounds and contexts (Kwan & Walker, 2009). Hassenpflug (2013) claimed a revision of questions to remove bias and assess desired characteristics, experiences, skills, or knowledge might improve principal selection by interview, but the entire process should be changed to move away from traditional practices. Palmer and Mullooly (2015) identified four common points in principal selection literature, three of which identify prevalent problems resulting from biased or ineffective traditional practices:

1. the principal is an important determinant of student achievement
2. procedures used to select principals are highly subjective and not commensurate with the importance of the role of the principal
3. principal selection has not been widely interrogated by researchers
4. inequity is a prevalent occurrence within principal selection (p. 27)

Kwan and Walker (2009) referenced a seven-stage process developed by the National College for School Leadership (2006) for principal recruitment, selection, and appointment to help organizations minimize problems resulting from traditional practices:

1. preparation
2. definition
3. attraction
4. selection
5. appointment
6. induction

7. evaluation (p. 189)

In principal HRM, selection of an effective leader was crucial to school improvement, leading and inspiring staff, and managing change (Farr, 2004; Hill, 2009; Waters & Marzano, 2006). The same leadership characteristics and behaviors identified in the recruitment phase based on the school and district needs should guide the development of the selection stage (Maurer & Cook, 2011). Applying SHRM in the recruitment stage, applicants who had an RJP and interest in participating in the selection stage were attracted (Clifford, 2010; Klotz et al., 2013; Maurer & Cook, 2011). Candidate selection literature addressed leadership standards, characteristics particular to process, and developing candidate-organization relationship during selection activities.

Leadership standards and characteristics in candidate selection. Featherstone (1955) identified two criteria for principal selection, whereas Waters et al.'s (2003) meta-analysis identified 66 traits leading to their research-based 21 leadership characteristics, exhibiting the increase in research as well as an increased complexity in selecting a principal. Waters et al.'s (2003) characteristics influenced the CCSSO (2008) and NPBEA (2009) standards, as well as the current educational leadership NPBEA (2015) and ODE (n.d.) standards, which commonly were used as frameworks for administrative evaluation. Establishing the school and district needs based on leadership and characteristics had changed the HRM recruitment and selection practices (Clifford, 2010; Hsiao et al., 2013; Rammer, 2007; Spanneut, 2007). THRM practices continued to produce principals, but Anderson (1991) claimed these practices were haphazard and could overlook an outstanding candidate. The reform environment led researchers to conclude certain changes were necessary to produce qualified and skilled instructional leaders (Hsiao et al., 2013; Rammer, 2007; Spanneut, 2007).

Rammer (2007) called for changing HRM practices after discovering superintendents agreed on the necessary characteristics for success but lacked credible measures for assessing the characteristics in the principal hiring process. Rammer's (2007) descriptive survey studied a random sampling of 200 Wisconsin superintendents and found district hiring practices lag behind policy mandates and principal HRM best practices leading to a call for change to improve practices. Revision of hiring processes should focus on ways to identify candidates with characteristics that are linked with improved student achievement (Rammer, 2007).

Hsiao et al. (2013) studied how reforms in principal selection led to using transformational and transactional leadership as a framework for identifying desired high school principal leadership behaviors in contrast to traditional leadership behaviors promoted by the old selection system. In arguing the changes in selection system might help a principal become a transformational leader—which was the goal of the changed system—Hsiao et al., (2013) applied constructivism without quantitative evidence that the selection process alone would produce transformational candidates or be the nexus for systemic change in a principal's behavior and values to attain or maintain employment.

Organizational selection activities and processes in candidate selection. Recruitment and selection literature recognized the complex contexts affecting the field of education and the role of the principal in particular (Gill & Hendee, 2010; Leithwood & Poplin, 1992; Pijanowski & Brady, 2009). Winter and Morgenthal's (2002) recruitment simulations produced empirical evidence and found the qualified candidate shortage and attractiveness of position influenced the candidate selection. As the selection stage progresses, each organizational action influenced a candidate's decision to remain or withdraw from the process (Carless, 2005; Klotz et al., 2013). Carless (2005) perceived recruitment and selection as a connected or even combined process and recommended changes to recruitment based on PJ and PO fit led to recommending similar

considerations during selection. Through the selection process, candidates continued to form PJ and PO (Carless, 2005). Klotz et al.'s (2013) research into the role of trust in selection found, "selection tools may also influence applicants' perceptions of organizational trustworthiness" (p. 110). Klotz et al. (2013) expanded on this, asserting the interview was the first opportunity for the applicant and organization to meet and assess trustworthiness, which could increase retention. Klotz et al. (2013) recommended candidates be treated with warmth and respect, given realistic job previews, and organization members should avoid being overly helpful or informative during site visits, which could signal something was wrong with the position or organization.

Spanneut (2007) found the selection process influenced principal's formulation of their mission in a school. Specifically, Spanneut (2007) studied the selection process, and found common use of the following seven steps in principal HRM selection:

1. developing or reviewing/modifying job description and duties
2. advertising and/or recruiting
3. screening applications
4. checking references and backgrounds
5. identifying applicants for interviews
6. conducting initial and final in-person interviews
7. selecting finalists (p. 5)

Researchers have found traditional selection practices such as interviews to be biased and unreliable without a valid and reliable tool and process (Hassenflug, 2011; Kwan & Walker, 2009; Palmer and Mullooly, 2015). Spanneut (2007) claimed interviews that were not systematically connected to the job or school and district needs and were poor indicators for how a principal would perform on the job. Supporting this, Hunter and Hunter (1984) previously found committee member agreement on candidates was statistically near random even when provided training prior

to interviewing. Spanneut (2007) found planning, implementation, and evaluation of selection processes lacked empirical evidence. Spanneut (2007) recommended building tours should be part of the selection process. Spanneut (2007) asserted building tours provided critical evidence of a candidate's leadership characteristics, knowledge, skills, and experience *in situ*. Building tours provided observable evidence of leadership beyond what traditional interviews collected to evaluate candidates' leadership characteristics, knowledge, skills, and experiences.

Principal development. According to Harper (2009), the objective of developmental professional growth was to promote principal effectiveness as an instructional leader and manager as measured by predetermined criteria through mentoring, supervision, and evaluation. Principal development literature seldom connected to applicant recruitment and candidate selection as an SHRM process, exposing a gap in the research and HRM practice. Principal development was analyzed through either instructional leadership development or HRM supervision and evaluation. Instructional leadership principal development occurs in mentorship or leadership coaching (Anderson, 2006; Baehr, 1987; Barker, 1997; Bossi, 2008; Copland, 2001; Elmore & Burney, 2000; Fink & Resnick, 2001; Harper, 2009; Hargreaves, 2009; Honig, 2012; Huff et al., 2013; Gray et al., 2007; Mendels & Mitgang, 2013; Whitaker, 2003). Supervision and evaluation were HRM processes and differed from instructional leadership development as avenues to remove a principal not meeting district or NCLB (2002) policy requirements for student achievement, usually without clear communication or effective supervision (Anderson, 1991; Honig & Copland, 2008; Hsiao et al., 2013; Martineau, 2012; Rammer, 2007; The Wallace Foundation, 2016).

Perceiving a need to improve principal HRM, Elmore & Burney (2000) conducted a case study of six principals to explore their choice to become principals, their support in the new role, their self-perception in the role, the required knowledge, the time allocation in the role, their self-evaluation of their work, and how they learned what they needed to know. Elmore and Burney

(2000) found significance in the individual choice to pursue a principalship over a deliberate recruitment process. Recognizing the increasing demands and complex contexts, Elmore and Burney (2000) found education lacking in the cultivation of leadership, especially in the areas of principal learning and shortage of qualified candidates. THRM potentially exacerbated the chasm between what principals do, think they should do, and have the capacity to do necessitating improved professional learning through Aspiring Leaders Program (ALPS) according to Elmore and Burney's (2000) findings.

Honig and Copland (2008) found similar gaps in principal's capacity, encouraging commitment and investment into HRM to move beyond managerial support to partnerships between school and district administrators in school improvement efforts. The system change challenged traditional district office structures and promoted collaborative planning to recast district office staff as "resource brokers" as evidenced in Atlanta's connection of principal expectations to evaluations, Oakland's network leadership plans to improve instructional leadership capacity at all levels, and New York leadership academies (Honig & Copland, 2008). Such wholesale system reform reflected Fullan et al.'s (2004) call to establish growth at each level of an organization, promoting reform through PLCs, capacity building, and assessment for learning. Principal development findings addressed principal self-perception, the organizational expectancy of principal leadership practices and behaviors, systemic capacity building through mentorship/coaching of new principals, the supervision/evaluation of principals, and organizational activities to promote retention to combat attrition.

Self-perception in principal development. Lewis (2008) collected reflections, self-assessments, and end of course assessments to determine if self-perception was correlated to positive experiences in a leadership course on change agency. As instructional leaders, Lewis (2008) found principals acting as change agents required a vision of change but also ability to

garner resources and support for the desired change. Regardless of the prevailing terminology or conceptualization of leadership, the basic leadership standards and characteristics were constant as seen through the evolution of CCSSO (1996, 2008), NPBEA (2009, 2015), and ODE (n.d.) standards and meta-analysis producing Waters et al.'s (2003) and Waters and Marzano's (2006) 21 leadership characteristics. Lewis' (2008) findings were simple: separate leadership from change agent and focus on teaching skills to produce action from analysis.

Organizational expectancy of leadership practices and behaviors in principal development. Without congruent HRM practices and expectations, the misalignment between actual and expected leadership practices continued (Hill, 2009). As part of the PLC model, Hill (2009) advocated for principals to develop new skill sets, mindsets, and ways of being in contrast to traditional perceptions, none of which were possible without an understanding of expectations and actions as principal. According to Hill's (2009) findings, district leaders should support principal development, connecting individual needs to the collective mission. Hill (2009) found principals exercising instructional leadership transcended knowing and doing to lead others through "interacting with others in particular context around specific tasks" (p. 28). Learning to lead, according to Hill (2009), was a talent to be learned through co-learning, questioning, investigating, and solution seeking. The cognitive activities prompted a principal to have a realistic self-perception and an RJP connected to the mission for student achievement through the SHRM process (Carless, 2005; Clifford, 2010; Klotz et al., 2013; Maurer & Cook, 2011).

Systemic capacity building through mentorship/coaching in principal development. SHRM was based on systemic capacity building from leadership development, preparing applicants first for recruitment, then for candidate selection based on specific district and school needs and contexts, and finally for development as a new principal support (Brymer et al., 2014; Garofalo, 2015; Harper, 2009; Pounder & Crow, 2005; Whitaker, 2003). Palmer and Mullooly

(2015) claimed it was unclear how principal evaluation (traditional or emerging processes) influences a principal to improved instructional leadership, but new evaluation systems should emerge with new principal selection practices. Garofalo (2015) studied district leader's development of participants' capacity to lead, thus creating a system-wide culture change based on Fullan's (2010) concept of "the guiding coalition" to support the change. Garofalo (2015) found the Leading Student Achievement (LSA) had a positive impact on school leadership capacity building through district leaders supporting professional learning based on the needs and context of a school.

Researchers determined higher education and administrative licensure programs failed to prepare principals to lead in reform environments (Barnet, 2004; Huff et al., 2013; Seawell, 2015; The Wallace Foundation, 2016). Based on researching participants' reactions to traditional job postings, Seawell (2015) found teachers hesitant or resistant to pursue the new role as principal due to compensation and workload and found that a teacher's age and years of experience were the most significant factors in the choice. Seawell (2015) additionally advocated for a systemic change in the support of new roles as assistant principal or principal, encouraging mentorship and training to learn to lead.

Huff et al. (2013) investigated the relationship between building administrators and coaches to develop and apply a multi-phase coaching model to support administrative growth. Huff et al. (2013) found "principals still rarely receive systematic, specific, constructive feedback enables them to know whether their actions are consistent with their intentions or expectations" (p. 506). Huff et al. (2013) found organizational value and behavior influenced instructional leadership development through a coaching model and recommended changes to the power structure between a principal and their supervisor/evaluator through an impartial and growth-minded coach. A hallmark of Critical theory is efficacy, which informed the change in the

principal and supervisor/evaluator relationship, exhibiting the power of changing paradigms and systems to encourage dialogue, feedback, reflection, and growth. The researchers acknowledged some coaches applied the coaching strategies differently but did not provide the depth of research to determine the impact on instructional leadership.

Honig (2012) concluded similarly in studying urban areas, recognizing increasing management demands based on changing contexts and environmental variables should be relegated to support staff to ensure principals could assume instructional leadership roles. Significant changes manifest such as “all central office units, from curriculum and instruction to facilities and maintenance, have been shifting their focus from business and compliance to supporting district-wide teaching and learning improvement” (p. 734). Honig (2012) asserted, “such practices contrast with some traditional supervisory relationships in which central office staff mainly monitor principals’ work but do not engage in the work themselves” (p. 748).

Organizational activities to combat attrition through principal retention. Principal development literature encouraged promoting retention practices to reduce attrition, since attrition amplified administrative shortages (Brymer et al., 2014; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Marks, 2013, Phillips & Gully, 2015, Shen et al, 1999; Slowik, 2001; Whaley, 2002; Whitaker, 2003).

Leithwood and Jantzi (2008) studied administrative retention and attrition, providing opportunity to apply a Critical Theory lens to infer efficacy. Marks (2013) found many districts had retention policies and succession plans to reduce premature retirement, aligning with government policy to retain employees past expected retirement age and keep their expertise and experience in the organization. Marks (2013) discussed retention policy as containing three characteristics:

1. Genuinely values and recognizes the skills, expertise, corporate wisdom, and accumulated knowledge of late career principals.

2. Develops a systemic and transparent mechanism for capturing this capacity before it “walks out the door.”
3. Implements flexible work options to allow principals to stay-on or re-engage following retirement. (p. 6)

Shen et al. (1999) used expectancy theory and found compensation significant in motivating late-career administrators to remain in principal roles past retirement age. Whitaker (2003) also acknowledged the changing principal role affected retention, recommending: (a) a re-examination and redesign of the principal role, (b) increased support, (c) increased compensation, and (d) redesigning university partnerships and leadership development to reduce attrition. Brymer et al.’s (2014) advocacy of human capital pipelines aimed to reduce organizational risks and costs associated with attrition by ensuring a sustainable supply of qualified and effective human resources. Phillips and Gully (2015) claimed aligning recruitment with HRM processes influenced employee retention by supporting organizational needs and outcomes through individual and team-level outcomes.

Review of the Methodological Literature

Hooker (2000) noted literature on principal human resource management was quantitatively unsubstantiated, resulting in few published or peer-reviewed studies. Palmer and Mullooly (2015) found principal selection research literature lacked a validated instrument for researchers or hiring committees. Hassenpflug (2013) asserted continuing to use THRM practices would not meet a school’s or a district’s needs and would not produce an instructional leader. The literature search seldom found reference to a specific methodology and occasionally identified a theoretical framework or design. Qualitative methodological approaches were the dominant approach in the research literature. In the absence of a theoretical framework or established

methodology in principal HRM, review of literature related to administrative HRM revealed a variety of research designs.

Qualitative methods and related theories. Creswell (2013) stated the purpose of qualitative inquiry was to delve deeper into the connections and causes derived from quantitative studies. According to Creswell (2013), qualitative methods can provide the story behind quantitative data, ensuring an equitable and accurate perspective emerged of the studied phenomenon through longitudinal and embedded research. Creswell (2013) explained qualitative studies produce results portrayed in subjectively different formats than the expected objective and scientific quantitative guidelines for writing. Creswell (2013) acknowledged good qualitative inquiry relies on quantitative results and practices such as sorting and analyzing the frequency of occurrences, but attributes such as validation and verification provide additional and extended accuracy evidence through qualitative case study research designs. Principal human resource management literature search for this study yielded few examples of explicitly identified qualitative methodologies. As a result the researcher used Creswell's (2013) descriptions of narrative, grounded theory, phenomenology, ethnography, and case study as qualitative inquiry approaches to infer and categorize the research.

Applying Creswell's (2013) qualitative definitions, most of the principal HRM research was qualitative but lacked data, instead presenting a narrative perspective or grounded theory opinion to continue the dialogue based on experience, hermeneutical interpretation, or meta-analysis of literature (Barker, 1997; Brymer et al., 2014; Chapman et al., 2005; Clifford, 2010; Copland, 2001; Hargreaves, 2009; Klotz et al., 2013; Mendels & Mitgang, 2013; Philips & Gully, 2015; Stone-Johnson, 2014; Watson & Watson, 2011; Whitaker, 2003; Wright et al., 2014). Qualitative studies in the literature search demonstrated how a qualitative approach could provide deeper perspectives of specific contexts. For example, Elmore and Burney's (2000) case study of

six participants and reasons behind their choice to pursue a principalship. Hill's (2009) case study investigated shared leadership practices in PLCs. Bossi (2008), Harper (2009), Jackson (2011), Honig (2012), Gill and Hendee (2010) conducted case studies on specific leadership programs or frameworks relating to human resource development of applicants or principals. Honig's (2012) qualitative study included 283 interviews, approximately 265 observation hours, and analysis of 200 documents.

Researchers using qualitative ethnographies to generate longitudinal results, from which complex and rich understanding of principal recruitment, selection, and development emerged (Seawell, 2015; Hsiao et al., 2013; Garofalo, 2015). Similar to ethnography, qualitative phenomenology have provided an up-close opportunity to study specific events and participants actions and reactions to human resource management processes in the literature (Ash et al., 2013; Byrne-Jimenez & Orr, 2012; Carless, 2005; Farr, 2004; Huff et al., 2013; Palmer, 2014; Lewis, 2008; Schlueter & Walker, 2008; Slowik, 2001; Spanneut, 2007 Van de Water, 1987; Winter & Morgenthal, 2002).

Although Creswell (2013) did not explicitly address Critical Systems Theory, he recognized that Critical Theory and other qualitative approaches investigated systems perpetuating inequities and power structures in systems. Critical Systems Theory could be applied to any facet of the hiring process, changing recruitment, selection, or development practices and policies to reduce perpetuated inequities. The research literature exhibited an emergence in the methodology relating to needed changes in administrative hiring practices (Brymer et al. 2014; Chapman et al., 2005; Goldring et al., 2008; Honig, 2012; Hsiao et al., 2013; Huff et al., 2013; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Marks, 2013; Mendels & Mitgang, 2013; Rammer, 2007).

Mendels and Mitgang (2013) argued the traditional models of recruitment and selection needed to be changed, but a system of support should emerge through the hiring process to setup a

principal for success. Leithwood and Jantzi (2008) study may have informed Mendels and Mitgang's (2013) systems perspective relating to changing how district office administrators influenced the development of leadership practices in building administrators. Marks (2013) presented compelling evidence for changing retention policies in response to the administrative shortage in Australia; however, an adjustment to succession planning maintaining the status quo of demographic representation did little to address the equitable needs for under-represented groups in administration. Hsaio et al. (2013) study showed how principal selection and appointment changes affected communities, schools, and administrators. The changes in selection and appointment promoted community involvement in the hiring process focused on specific principal values and characteristics to meet organizational and needs and goals.

Critical System Theory provided the opportunity to draw on other fields of research and apply systems and processes to education, specifically to recruitment and selection of building administrators. Brymer et al. (2014) studied the socio-technical aspect of maintaining human capital in the field of management. Improving the pipeline of educators from university teacher and administrative preparation programs required a change from traditional systems. Although Brymer et al. (2014) recognized the possibility of groupthink, elitism, and stratification as a result of pipelines, creating a partnership with higher education could reduce these as a district would have little input or control over individual experiences in the pipeline program. Klotz et al. (2013) analyzed empirical results, concluding—in a narrative review—perceptions of trustworthiness occur at each stage and should be enhanced to make recruitment and selection more effective for the applicant and the organization.

Research by Chapman et al. (2005) was another example of applied Critical Theory in psychology with application in recruitment and selection in education. Chapman et al. (2005) provided meta-analysis that showed how the job-organization attractiveness and applicant intent

could influence qualified candidates to self-select out of a hiring process. Specifically, the findings by Chapman et al. (2005) exhibited how Critical Theory could aid in increasing a candidate pool and improve the quality of candidates, specifically traditionally non-represented populations, through consideration of applicants' perceptions and reactions. Chapman et al. (2005) acknowledged researchers applying Critical Theory to an applicant's actual job choice would be speculative, as the phenomenon could not be replicated in a laboratory context.

Rammer (2007) gathered data from superintendents regarding recruitment and selection and used the findings to challenge the traditional hiring practices not only in the context of the participants but also extended the call to action to all superintendents. Greene's (1954) study recommendations were the exception rather than the norm accurately portraying the power of status quo, which was unresponsive to the principal's changing role. Using empirical data gathered about current practices, Critical Systems theory provided opportunities to draw from multiple fields to address the ineffectiveness and influence change to hire instructional leaders as principals.

Review of Methodological Issues

Hooker (2000) acknowledged research relating to principal recruitment and selection was "anecdotal, unpublished, and atheoretical" (p. 183). My literature search adds support to Hooker's (2000) assertion as the researcher was unable to find an established methodology or scientific tool. Early studies of principal recruitment, selection, and development emerged in mid-20th century but the researcher could not identify a clear evolution of research and theory from that period to present (Greene, 1954). Palmer's (2014) study of California administrative recruitment and selection established a model for recruitment and selection and used a qualitative approach. In the absence of a theoretical framework, Palmer (2014) applied Leventhal's justice judgment model, believing the model provided contextual flexibility and allowed for respondents' experiences and

perspectives. HRM research literature exhibited qualitative methods and a variety of theoretical approaches; however, researchers of administrative recruitment and selection seldom explicitly identified a methodology or a theoretical framework.

Qualitative methodological issues. Many educational researchers were directly connected to their research participants or systems, embedding themselves in a complex context to better understand and analyze the phenomena (Ash et al., 2013; Byrne-Jiménez & Orr, 2012; Fink & Resnick, 2001; Garofalo, 2015; Harper, 2009; Honig (2012); Seawell, 2015; Winter & Morgenthal, 2002). The proximity could present challenges for applying phenomenology as the researcher grew too close to the study participants. The close-up view of a phenomenon could also present challenges to validity and reliability as biases and assumptions could leak in, and context could call the descriptive statistics significance into question. Much of the qualitative research literature did not provide challenges or discuss biases relating to the theories and methodologies applied, as was evidenced in Byrne-Jiménez and Orr's (2012) case study of a principal. The resulting conclusions Byrne-Jiménez and Orr's (2012) case study encouraged the use of appreciative inquiry approach for leadership development, but provided no alternative or recommendations for further study, limiting the scope and extent of the study. Although the research was informative, the focus did not provide a broader context and application beyond the scope of the study. Carless (2005) qualitative longitudinal field study provided broader scope with a larger sample size but did not contain the same level of personal detail Byrne-Jiménez and Orr (2012) case study generated with a smaller sample size.

Seawell's (2015) qualitative interviews led to the assertion that changes in practice would encourage a diverse administrative workforce. The study was limited to female applicants and assumed the job postings would be attractive to male applicants and perpetuate the inequality.

Because of the limitations, Seawell's (2015) study provided evidence of phenomenology's challenges.

Harper (2009) conducted an embedded qualitative case study to determine the effectiveness of an urban school district leadership academy in recruiting principals. The semi-structured interviews, document analysis, and non-participant observations provided Harper (2009) with the opportunity to examine participants carefully, but the small sample size, lack of longitudinal data, and lack of evidence for actual selection rates or effectiveness in the principal role limited the study. The study isolated the leadership academies to the urban district context and did not provide conclusive evidence of the participant's positive belief their administrative preparation was fulfilled in securing a position and performing to expectations. To improve HRM practices in selection, Ash et al. (2013) used a Critical Practices Recruitment and Selection Guide to analyze studies, literature, and interviews and observations of principals. Ash et al. (2013) found that superintendents acknowledged a process was necessary to hire effective principals and could improve the capacity of interview committees in selection.

Kwan and Walker (2009) applied qualitative interviews and questionnaires to investigate the difference between hiring agencies and principal applicants' expectations of what was required of a new principal and the differences between the expectations. Although these findings provided credible results to consider in the recruitment and selection of a principal, the data reflected a contextual environment of Hong Kong educators, increasing the complexity of the position with religious affiliation, cultural values, and political practices, which were different from the American education context. The limiting factors of applying phenomenology as a methodology related to sample size, context, and instruments for data collection, all of which were constrained by the philosophical assumptions and ability to find participants who had experienced the phenomenon, according to Creswell (2013).

Hill (2009) investigated distributed leadership practices using a qualitative methods. The researcher examined how PLCs relied on these practices as a means of re-culturing schools. As the study investigated the phenomenon within a year the delimitation affects inferring if PLCs and distributed leadership practices have a long-term effect on school culture.

Also limited by methodology, Lewis (2008) qualitatively studied the aspiring administrators' self-perception as change leaders after an administrative preparatory course, which was an example of how an organizational culture (i.e., the course) shaped values and behaviors of participants. Although the participants in Lewis' (2008) study positively responded to a changed perception, the study provided no evidence of statistical analysis and did not dig deeper to identify changes in actual practice or leadership behaviors to show the internalization of the change-leader course content.

Quantitative methodological issues. Creswell (2013) acknowledged the significance of empirical data in the research process, allowing generalizations to be made from a sample of a larger population. The nature of empirical research relies on quantifying observations through data collection and analysis. The literature search exhibited evidence for inferring that the hiring process must respond to and adjust to the district and school context (Fong et al., 2011; Goldring et al., 2008; Harper, 2009; Hill, 2009; Howley et al., 2005; Klotz et al., 2013; Pijanowski & Brady, 2009; Shen et al., 1999; Winter & Morgenthal, 2002). Although descriptive statistics provided empirical (quantitative or mixed-method) results from which researchers draw conclusions, such study limitations were due to small sample sizes or highly contextualized systems (Hsiao et al., 2013; Pijanowski & Brady, 2009) that would limit application of the conclusions in different contexts (Fong et al., 2011; Howley et al., 2005).

Synthesis of Research Findings

The following synthesis of research findings is organized by each phase of principal HRM. As explained in the reviews of the conceptual framework, literature review, and methodological literature and issues, these stages are not systematic, with only recruitment and selection occasionally addressed as a two-part of single process in principal HRM. Maintaining this organization throughout this study provides continuity in combining the discrete practices into a systematic process.

Applicant recruitment. Winter and Morgenthal (2002) established theoretical connections between educational applicant recruitment and Schwab's (1982) Employment Process Model, Schwab et al.'s (1987) General Model of Job Search and Evaluation, and Rynes and Barber's (1990) Model of the Attraction Process private-sector recruitment models. Chapman et al.'s (2005) psychology research into applicant recruitment introduced the concept of applicant attraction and identified six influential factors: job and organizational characteristics, recruiter characteristics, perceptions of the recruitment process, perceived fit, perceived alternatives, and hiring expectancies. Kwan and Walker's (2009) asserted hiring was a two-way process between the applicant and organization in their study. Klotz et al. (2013) identified applicant recruitment as the first stage of the hiring process in which applicants and the organization conduct specific actions (Klotz et al., 2013). These studies exhibit the evolution of applicant recruitment as a stage in the hiring process, in which both the organization and applicant conduct discrete as well as interdependent practices.

As apparent in the evolution of applicant recruitment as the first HRM stage, many influential factors increase complexity within the stage. Shortages in the applicant pool emerged in the literature search garnering substantial attention from researchers as an organizational challenge in applicant recruitment. Each of the following studies exhibited an aspect of a limitation

or practice relating to a shortage of applicants. Clifford (2010) asserted that recruiting practices could limit applicant interest and further reduce the candidate pool. Brymer et al. (2014) discussed the concept of pipelines and the two-sided match between an applicant and an organization. Seawell (2015) called attention to the administrative education programs and the difference between the preparation and skills. Phillips and Gully (2015) recognized the organization's applicant recruiting strategy was affected by external factors, specifically the number of qualified and interested applicants. Wright et al. (2014) found human resource pipelines provided organizations opportunities to combat labor market constraints "such as applicant scarcity, two-sided matching, the lemon problem, and poor hires" (p. 363). Viewed together, these studies uncover the complexity of applicant recruitment in the context of applicant shortage.

In complex contexts apparent in the literature reviewed for this study, it is evident school and district needs influenced applicant recruitment (Kwan & Walker, 2009; Hill, 2009). To explore organizational needs, Clifford (2010) recommended a systematic process to recruit qualified applicants when a position was, or was expected to, open. The need for a systematic process is apparent in Phillips and Gully (2015) and Schmuck et al. (2012) recommendations for a systematic applicant recruitment process, which could include an ONA to determine what knowledge, skills, and experiences a candidate should possess.

To develop a systematic process for applicant recruitment, Clifford (2010) recommended using leadership standards. In principal HRM, these standards would be the NPBEA (2015) standards and the ODE (n.d.) standards to provide a framework for contextualizing the findings into educational administration and assessing school and district need. Schmuck et al. (2012) also recommended a systematic process using ONA results to create the job posting. A variety of research existed to aid in selecting leadership characteristics for applicant recruitment or developing job posting. Marzano et al. (2005) and Waters and Marzano (2006) identified 21

leadership characteristics of effective principals. Cotton (2003) presented 26 leadership behaviors and traits of principals leading high-achieving schools. McEwan's (2003) research found 10 traits of highly effective principals. Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning's (McREL) Balanced Leadership Framework aided in creating locally designed characteristics or standards reflecting the culture and needs of the school community and district. The research literature exhibited that creating a systematic process for applicant recruitment in principal HRM is complex and should reflect professional standards, organizational context and needs, and research based leadership characteristics.

Shifting from THRM practices to systematic and strategic practices requires specific organizational processes to attract applicants in the recruitment stage. Literature identified such processes as establishing a timeline, the range of recruitment, and marketing mediums and strategies to attract applicants who fit the job description (Anderson, 1991; Carless, 2005, Clifford, 2010; Gully et al., 2014; Maurer & Cook, 2011; Phillips & Gully, 2015). Anderson (1991) anticipated the administrative shortage that continued to appear in literature with recommendations for practices to reduce the impact of the shortage. Anderson (1991) and Farr (2004) discussed the practice of contract with an external hiring firm or manage recruitment internally depended on how the principal shortage was anticipated to affect the applicant pool, portraying the longitudinal affect the shortage had on the applicant pool, recruitment practices, and research. Gully et al. (2014) and Phillips and Gully (2015) found hiring firms had expertise and marketing mediums and strategies to adjust and adapt to changing conditions, reaching target applicants, and attracting non-traditional candidates, which a school district may need during recruitment in a shortage. The systematic process of SHRM allows for responsiveness in applicant pool shortages, organizational contexts and needs, and changes in recruiting practices and resources.

Applicant recruitment processes began to change as increased Internet human resource pipelines emerged during the dot-com boom between 1995 and 2000, but these resources were slow to reach the field of education. Maurer and Cook (2011) identified the usefulness of e-recruiting as an emerging applicant attraction and recruitment tool as an alternative to hiring firms for organizations lacking financial resources to contract for services. E-recruiting was gaining popularity as evidenced in the consolidation between PeopleAdmin and Netchemia to provide talent management software serving K–12 and higher education, “supporting the needs of educators and accelerating growth strategies” (Maurer & Cook, 2011; PeopleAdmin, 2015, para. 1). TalentEd, Netchemia’s cloud-based suite for tracking, hiring, evaluating, and managing personnel processes and records, enabled K–12 districts to “improve operational efficiency, minimize risk, and organize the entire talent management lifecycle, so educational institutions can focus on what they do best—hiring and developing top talent to improve student outcomes” (PeopleAdmin, 2015, para. 2). As talent management serving education continues to evolve, principal HRM will need to respond and grow with the resources by adjusting practices and processes.

The literature search revealed THRM practices and processes persisted as applicant recruitment efforts included internal postings, word of mouth, or through higher education administrative programs (Farr, 2004; Shen et al., 1999). State level organizations, such as the Confederation of Oregon School Administrators (COSA) began to post jobs on the website in the early 2000s and regularly collected and distributed job postings via bi-monthly emails after 2014. National organizations, such as National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP), also provided opportunities for publicizing open administrative positions on the website in the early 2000s as well. Gully et al. (2014) recognized HRM practices were effective in applicant recruitment but encouraged SRHM practices appropriately select process and tools to decrease the

impact of administrative shortage on the pool of qualified applicants. The growing talent management software and professional organization communication increases access to job openings, and applicants have greater access to employment options and information as a result.

Carless (2005) found prospective applicants explored jobs in the early 2000s based on Person-Job (PJ) and Person-Organizational (PO) fit. Rouen (2011) stated cultural fit was significant and hiring managers should determine whether a candidate's values align with the organization's values. Palmer and Mullooly (2015) cited research literature exploring the deficiencies of fit when applied as a selection criteria based on intuition rather than predetermined criteria based on instructional leadership knowledge, skills, and experiences. In studying 193 graduates, Carless (2005) concluded applicants based their self-perception of knowledge, skills, and experience by comparing and contrasting the job description with perceived job fit. Maurer and Cook (2011) cautioned, "the ability to provided practitioners with well-informed, theory-based guidance for using websites to attract qualified applicants is severely impaired" (p. 116). E-recruiting has made applying for positions easier and has increased the number of unqualified applicants (Maurer & Cook, 2011). Maurer and Cook's (2011) assertion connected back to and supported the significance of a systematic process of creating the job description, resulting in an applicant's RJP. According to Maurer and Cook (2011), research of RJP effects on first impressions of the institution including sensible job information on a website could maintain the interests of highly qualified applicants, while encouraging applicants who may be under qualified to remove their name from the process. Applicant recruitment led to selecting candidates who meet minimum, desired, and necessary knowledge, skills and experiences, and characteristics to successfully assume an instructional leadership role in the school and district-contexts (Brymer et al., 2014; Clifford, 2010; Elmore & Burney, 2000; Harper, 2009; Honig, 2012; Mendels & Mitgang, 2013; Schlueter & Walker, 2008; Waters & Marzano, 2008;).

Candidate selection. Anderson (1991) and Carless (2005) identified selection as the second stage of the hiring process, in which applicants and organizations evaluated PJ and PO fit. Responding to the emerging administrative shortage, Anderson (1991) claimed, “The selection process is central in hiring the most capable principals” (p. 33). Gully et al. (2014) and Phillips and Gully (2015) recommended an organization should establish a systematic process for pre-screening, initial interviews, second round interviews, and selection of a finalist. Baehr (1987) suggested objectives for selection: (a) initial screening; (b) evaluation of the candidate, with or without knowledge of results of other steps in the selection process; and (c) an opportunity for the potential supervisor to talk with the candidate.

Baehr’s (1987) recommendations evolved as evidenced in Rammer’s (2007) encouragement to superintendents, “to change the way they hire principals” (p. 10). Hargreaves (2009) harkened back to the National Association of Secondary School Principals (2001) Grow Your Own Program (GYOP) and recognized succession planning could be embedded in the selection process as part of the development of leaders in a district to ensure future applicants were nurtured and screened to improve PJ and PO fit. Recommendations took into account the CCSSO (1996, 2008) and NPBEA (2009, 2015) standards, as well as the complexity and context affecting hiring a principal (Ash et al., 2013; Clifford, 2010; Gill & Hendee, 2010; Goldring et al., 2008; Hill, 2009; Marks, 2013; Palmer, 2014; Pijanowski & Brady, 2009; Pounder & Crow, 2005; Stone-Johnson, 2014). Clifford’s (2010) recommendations for hiring principals related to the CCSSO (2008) standards, developing the selection committee and addressing the impact of the complexity and context. Specifically, Clifford (2010) recommended SHRM practices of establishing pre-screening systems, committee roles and guidelines, systematic interviewing processes, vetting practices, and the job offer process before beginning the selection process.

Literature recommended systematic practices to selecting an effective principal. A SHRM framework for evaluating a candidate's knowledge, skills, and experience includes the job description, standards, and characteristics established in the recruitment (Anderson, 1991; Ash et al., 2013; Baehr, 1987; Barker, 1997; Clifford, 2010; Elmore & Burney, 2000; Harper, 2009; Hsiao et al., 2013; Martineau, 2012; Palmer, 2014; Spanneut, 2007; Whaley, 2002). Clifford's (2010) SHRM practice of pre-screening applicants was the first step in the selection process, resulting in a hierarchical ranking of applicants who fit the organization's perceived job. Although Kwan and Walker (2009) stated selection was a two-way process, the candidate was a passive participant, awaiting the outcome of the pre-screening to determine if he or she was advancing to the next SHRM stage of selection, the systematic interview process (Clifford, 2010).

Clifford (2010) recommended convening and orienting the interview committee as the second step in the SHRM selection process (Clifford, 2010). The interview committee conducted the selection process and should include stakeholders, preferably representing groups contributing to the ONA in the recruitment stage, according to Clifford (2010), who provided SHRM recommendations for the development of the committee by identifying roles and guidelines. Relying on the job description, standards, and characteristics, recommended the interview committee should develop, review, and revise interview questions and establish additional tasks as part of the SHRM interview process (Ash et al., 2013; Clifford, 2010; Palmer, 2014; Rammer, 2007).

Ash et al. (2013) asserted the specific development of the interview questions based on standards and characteristics affecting student learning in an earlier step is critical. Kwan and Walker (2009) identified additional SHRM interview tasks including (a) presentations, (b) written performance tasks or constructed responses, (c) an observation of a lesson with feedback to a teacher, and (d) providing a complete understanding of a candidate's knowledge, skills, and

experience where “interviews on their own cannot collect all the information is seen as important” (p. 61). During the interview, the committee formed opinions of the candidate, but the candidate was also assessing the committee and forming perceptions of the organization. Kwan and Walker (2009) recognized hiring as a two-way process between candidate and organization. Candidates who rose to the top in the SHRM interview process represented the best applicants to advance in the process based on the initial ONA, job description, standards, and characteristics, countering the generic and insubstantial THRM interview process results do not predict successful job performance (Ash et al., 2013).

Clifford (2010) identified vetting and the job offer as the final two steps of the SHRM selection process. SHRM vetting can include several actions, for example, site visits, second round interviews, and reference checks (Clifford, 2010; Elmore & Burney, 2000; Klotz et al., 2013; Palmer, 2014; Spanneut, 2007). Klotz et al. (2013) and Spanneut (2007) found site visits provided the selection committee representatives opportunities to assess the candidate further in context and explore characteristics through follow-up questions, and interviews of staff, students, parents, and community members. As site visits are one practice to assess a candidate in context, SHRM second round interviews provided selection committee representatives opportunity to delve deeper into a candidate's knowledge, skills, and experiences, evaluating the candidate's responses to the established standards and characteristics (Baehr, 1987; Bartling et al., 2012; Chapman et al., 2005; Van de Water, 1987). Following the second round candidate selection process, SHRM final candidate vetting regarding specific knowledge, skills, experiences, and characteristics occurred to winnow the candidate list to a finalist (Clifford, 2010; Martineau, 2012).

Recommendations in literature for SHRM emerged in the early 2000s for final stages of candidate selection. SHRM practices took into account that while organizations vetted candidates, candidates could consider organizations and job attractiveness and research on organizations

(Brymer et al., 2014; Chapman et al., 2005; Pounder & Merrill, 2001). SHRM reference checks could be formal or informal, systematically assessing responses according to standards or characteristics, or anecdotally exploring perceptions of a candidate informally (Anderson, 1991; Rammer, 2007). Palmer and Mullooly (2015) emphasized embedding systematic and intentional practices in reference checks to avoid subjective and biased THRM practices. Concluding the vetting, the SHRM job offer was the last opportunity for the organization and the finalist to ensure PJ and PO fit (Chapman et al., 2005). Although the organization initiated the job offer, it became a passive participant as the candidate considered the organizational attractiveness, trustworthiness, PJ, and PO (Carless, 2005; Klotz et al., 2013; Kwan & Walker, 2009). The candidate ultimately determined whether to accept the offer or not, which again reflected the complex context SHRM helped organizations navigate in the candidate selection (Clifford, 2010).

Principal development. Principal development (PD) was the final stage of SHRM as identified in this study's conceptual framework, in which the principal and organization collaborated to respond to changing school and district-contexts and needs. Early principal HRM literature found applicant recruitment and candidate selection ended with the job offer, but the process of developing an effective instructional leader should continue (Anderson, 1991). My literature search did not find studies connecting principal HRM recruitment, selection, and development. Substantial literature from the 20th and early 21st century studied a variety of support models and resources available to administrators, regardless of their longevity, at local, state, and national levels (Anderson, 1991; Baehr, 1987; Barker, 1997; Chatzimouratidi et al., 2012; Elmore & Burney, 2000; Fink & Resnick, 2001; Harper, 2009; Honig & Copland, 2008; Honig, 2012; Huff et al., 2013; Lewis, 2008; Whitaker, 2003). Harper (2009) recommended the development of learning academies to provide principals with specific training in goal development matched to the school and district. Learning academies have the potential to shift organizational behavior, change

organizational culture, and promote organizational knowledge (Harper, 2009; Hill 2009).

Hargreaves (2009) and Huff et al. (2013) found impartial mentors or coaches provided principals with a safe opportunity to reflect openly on leadership growth and performance without fear of reprisal. If the principal did not value or respect the suggestions and guidance from the mentor or coach, relationships could be damaged and affect PO fit (Carless, 2005; Klotz et al., 2013; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008). Many districts embedded growth plans within the supervision and evaluation cycle for administrators and staff to address negative relationships or culture (Chatzimouratidi et al., 2012; Copland 2001).

Instructional leadership growth plans could range from a one-year cycle as part of a probationary period, or represent a multi-year scaffold to gain knowledge, skills, and experience to be a more effective principal. As part of Clifford's (2010) HRM framework, the principal and a mentor or supervisor should return to the ratings, standards, characteristics, and the school and district-contexts and needs, whether or not selection results were included as part of the job offer. Studies encouraged new principals to use the wants, needs, concerns, and vision for the school, especially if gathered from an ONA, gathered during recruitment and selection to understand district and school context and needs (Clifford, 2010; Hargreaves, 2009; Hill, 2009; Spanneut, 2007). Leadership standards were more commonly used for administrative evaluation and would continue to increase in use as states respond to leadership evaluation language in the Every Student Succeeds Act of 2015 (Civic Impulse, 2016).

Critique of Previous Research

The purpose of this section is to critique research from the literature search through the lens of this study's conceptual framework and stages of principal HRM to maintain consistency with the review and synthesis of the research. Traditional human resource management (THRM) did not holistically connect district, school, and principal and SHRM stages. Gully et al. (2013)

claimed traditional HRM practices were isolated, whereas SHRM perceived all HRM practices as integrated, aligned, and bundled to attract, develop, and retain quality candidates. Although the literature search found qualitative analysis and theoretical application of applicant recruitment, candidate selection, and principal development, results did not find SHRM practices were used in any study to guide an instructional leadership growth plan, addressing school and district-contexts and needs.

Applicant recruitment. Although some may argue traditional job postings for principal positions maintained consistency and equity for all district principals, each school culture, climate, and needs might be different depending on the context. Traditional recruitment did not reflect strategic process or integrate perspectives critical to attracting quality candidates. Recruitment could be influenced by factors and associated systems, practices, and activities across various levels, such as individual, business, and organizational. Goals, strategies, and characteristics of the specific institution must be aligned with connecting practices across the levels, and incorporate strategic human resource management perspectives (SHRM) (Gully et al., 2013).

In studies of HRM, Clifford (2010) and Gully et al. (2014) found the complexity and contexts of recruiting during an administrative shortage necessitate changing recruitment practices from traditional models, which do not account for school and district needs and contexts. Earlier, Mitgang (2003) found districts struggled attracting a large applicant pool of qualified and effective applicants for high-needs schools, making recruiting even more challenging in high-needs contexts. Maurer and Cook (2011) encouraged contracting with a hiring firm in such challenging contexts where organizations may not have capacity. Hiring firms increased access to networking and marketing resources districts might not have access to or knowledge of in recruiting a qualified applicant via e-recruiting opportunities and practices (Maurer & Cook, 2011). Hiring firms and talent management contracts could be cost prohibitive, lack knowledge of educational systems and

factors, or be too disconnected from the district to manage the process effectively. Hsiao et al. (2013) found conducting marketing internally provided local control and input into the process. Depending on the organization's capacity and available fiscal and human resources, marketing could tax the system, ultimately detracting from teaching and learning or proving to be ineffective depending on the capacity of the committee (Hsiao et al., 2013). Schmuck et al. (2012) included services cost analysis as part of an ONA, which allows districts to determine capacity, longitudinal personnel tracking, and development of human resources accompanying talent management packages associated with search firms and talent management software packages.

Regardless of the marketing strategies employed in seeking principal applicants, organizations should understand applicant attraction in the HRM recruitment stage (Carless, 2005; Chapman et al, 2005; Howley et al., 2005; Klotz et al., 2013; Kwan & Walker, 2009; Phillips & Gully, 2014; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Winter & Morgenthal, 2002). If accurately and effectively created, the job description should help reduce the number of “one-click” applicants (Maurer & Cook, 2011). In Maurer and Cook’s (2011) study, the importance of the applicant’s perception of the organization was critical. Other studies provided data for understanding that to attract qualified and effective principals, organizations must understand how applicants’ perception of an organization’s attractiveness influenced attraction and decision to apply for a position (Carless, 2005; Chapman et al., 2005; Klotz et al., 2013; Winter & Morgenthal, 2002).

Candidate selection. Often, the traditional selection of candidates relies on the interview process, which over 20 years of research continued to find ineffective but commonly practiced (Anderson, 1991; Ash et al., 2013; Hsiao et al., 2013; Martineau, 2012). Kwan and Walker (2009) countered when recommending to “choose the most suitable applicant to fill existing vacancies” through viewing selection as a process (p. 52). Traditionalists might balk at a systematic process, which may not account for applicant familiarity and might be perceived as too impartial or not

relational. Anderson (1991) challenged the paradigm in the 1990s, stating: “Patronage, favoritism, or familiarity should not edge out merit” (p. 29). Almost 20 years later, Clifford (2010) recommended pre-screening should be performed impartially, assessing applicants on the content of their application in relation to the job description, standards, and characteristics established in the recruitment stage.

Initial panel interviews were another traditional practice, and while having some shortcoming, provided an opportunity for some stakeholders to consider PJ and PO fit (Anderson, 1991; Ash et al., 2013; Hsiao et al., 2013; Martineau, 2012). Traditional panel interviews had many pitfalls, as acknowledged by U.S. Office of Personnel Management: “Traditional resume-driven interviews are less able to predict successful job performance” (as cited in Ash et al., 2013, pp. 4–5).

Sharing results of the pre-screening, strategic interview, and vetting process in the framework of standards and characteristics allowed for clarification and determination of the candidate's RJP (Klotz et al., 2013; Maurer & Cook, 2011; Phillips & Gully, 2015). Organizations also could discuss professional development to clarify the perceived gaps between finalists and organizations' RJP. After initiating the job offer, organizations become a passive participant as candidates considered organizational attractiveness, trustworthiness, PJ, and PO (Klotz et al., 2013). Candidates ultimately determined whether to accept or reject the offer, which again reflected the complex context of the hiring process. Changing the hiring practices based on the leadership standards, and identifying knowledge, skills, and experiences, provide districts with a clear understanding of a finalist's areas of strength and growth, which could be used to inform growth plans and support (Gully et al., 2014; Phillips & Gully, 2015).

Principal development. Since Greene (1954) recommendations for principal hiring, the role of the principal has changed significantly and has become highly contextual and mercurial

(Ash et al., 2013; Byrne-Jiménez & Orr, 2012; Huff et al., 2013; Mendels & Mitgang, 2013; Stone-Johnson, 2014; The Wallace Foundation, 2016; Warren, 2013). Barker (1997) recognized the shift in the principal's role from management to instructional leadership, which became increasingly evident in leadership standards evolution over the next 20 years (CCSSO, 1996; CCSSO, 2008; NPBEA, 2015, ODE, n.d.). Erlandson (1994) identified the shortcomings of traditional principal development, concluding development should be a continuous process, encompassing an entire career. Once hired, a principal must balance the expectation to continue managing schools and fulfill instructional leadership expectations, and researchers asserted the dichotomy further reduced applicant's interest in aspiring to the principalship (Marks, 2013; Mendels & Mitgang, 2013). Hill (2009) posited, "Management may be necessary to provide the stability necessary for instructional leadership" (p. 29). While districts should adjust systems of support, such as building teacher-leaders to handle some management tasks, principals must have the support and guidance to grow into the new role (Byrne-Jiménez, & Orr, 2012; Chatzimouratidi et al., 2012; Honig & Copeland, 2008; Huff et al., 2013; Mendels & Mitgang, 2013; Waters & Marzano, 2008).

Researchers recommended district leadership should have a clear vision of the perfect candidate by conducting the recommended recruitment and selection practices, while realizing a new principal would likely need development in some area regardless of experience, knowledge, and skill (Anderson, 1991; Clifford, 2010; Elmore & Burney, 2000; Harper, 2009; Krasnoff, 2015; Mendels & Mitgang, 2013). If the leadership standards (NPBEA, 2015, ODE, n.d.) are used as the framework for recruitment and selection, then the district would be able to identify the differences between organizational need and a finalist's ability and capacity (Clifford, 2010; Harper, 2009; Spanneut, 2007). Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) found 21 leadership characteristics, which influenced the CCSSO (2008) and NPBEA (2015) standards and referenced in the literature

in developing principals' knowledge and skills. Regardless of the approach, district leadership had the responsibility to identify precisely targeted areas for growth and support for a principal to be successful and support these points through a professional growth plan including mentorship, supervision, and evaluation (Honig, 2012; Pounder & Crow, 2005; Rammer, 2007). Such an approach would increase the likelihood of retention, which was another strategy to reduce the effect of the shortage (Brymer et al., 2014; Harper, 2009; Marks, 2013; Shen et al., 1999; Slowik, 2001; Whaley, 2002; Whitaker, 2003). Anderson (1991) recognized the importance of professional development: "Principals who have been in their positions for one, five, or even twenty years can still benefit from professional development activities that build or reinforce essential leadership skills" (p. 21). Researchers found professional growth, regardless of which model, was significant in ensuring principals developed according to school and district needs and contexts (Anderson, 1991; Baehr, 1987; Barker, 1997; Chatzimouratidi et al., 2012; Elmore & Burney, 2000; Fink & Resnick, 2001; Harper, 2009; Honig & Copland, 2008; Honig, 2012; Huff et al., 2013; Lewis, 2008; Whitaker, 2003).

Over 20 years ago, Anderson (1991) found newly hired administrators were susceptible to a variety of challenges: isolation, issues with time management, technical problems, socialization to the school system, and a lack of feedback. Harper (2009), Shen et al. (1999), Hancock, Black, & Bird (2006), and Whitaker (2003) identified causes of principal burnout affecting retention: increased risk, personal needs, personal gain/benefit, limited mobility, inequitable salaries, escalated responsibilities, and little or no job security. Although mentorship and coaching opportunities were more common for first-time principals, the models of support were less common for experienced principals who were new to an organization or for established principals whose context changed. Harper (2009) studied principals who were expected to make changes in

schools and found principals “are not always provided effective mentors to guide them through the changes” (p. 43).

Chapter 2 Summary

This summary of chapter 2 discusses the rationale for this study’s conceptual framework and organizational structure based on the three principal HRM stages. Summarization of influential HRM research explains SHRM practices and processes to be investigated during research in this study. The literature search conducted in this study found research on principal HRM spanning 61 years (Garofalo, 2015; Greene, 1954; Phillips & Gully, 2015; Seawell, 2015). A review of the literature and the associated methodologies and designs revealed substantial qualitative research in highly contextualized studies.

Research literature reviewed in this study supported challenging THRM practices as complex contexts have changed educational leadership. Greene (1954) initiated the study of principal recruitment and selection. Since then, little has changed in practice, despite research literature advocating change (Hooker, 2000; Palmer, 2014; Rammer, 2007; Schlueter & Walker, 2008). Baltzell and Dentler (1983) claimed district limited recruitment to local areas, posted unspecific or vague jobs, and do not form large candidate pools. Relating to selection, Palmer (2014) found “Throughout principal selection literature, researchers have found districts lack the following regarding principal selection: specific criteria, formal assessment procedures, and uniformity” (p. 20).

The research literature related to administrative hiring practices clearly identified the continued reliance on traditional recruiting and selecting activities and lacked needed systematic considerations (Anderson, 1991; Ash et al., 2013; Palmer, 2014; Phillips & Gully, 2015; Pounder & Crow, 2005; Weller, 1998). In each area, researchers provided analysis of traditional practices and recommend changes to increase the likelihood of hiring an effective instructional leader

(Anderson, 1991; Harper, 2009; Palmer, 2014). Qualitative methodology and phenomenology, social constructivism, and Critical Theory resulted in researchers challenging paradigms and power structures perpetuate inequalities in administrative HRM (Hooker, 2000; Palmer, 2014; Rammer, 2007). Although Clifford (2010) provided processes and resources for recruitment and selection, the lack of a theoretical framework inhibits change. The limited number of studies and lack of established methodology and research designs in the literature search reflect the persistence of THRM in principal hiring processes and practices.

Clifford's (2010) research recognized the complexity of leadership in the educational context, and many other researched found complex contexts influential on educational leadership and HRM practices (Ash et al., 2013; Elmore & Burney, 2000; Goldring et al., 2008; Leithwood & Poplin, 1992; Marks, 2013; Palmer, 2014; Pounder & Crow, 2005). The complex context influenced whether there was a shortage or not; differences in the degree of this problem was based on district size and school type according to Pijanowski and Brady (2009). Establishing a systematic process for applicant recruitment was a shift from tradition but ensured the complex context was evaluated and considered using school and district feedback and ONA results based on leadership characteristics. Carless (2005) found increasing applicant attraction through the portrayal of an RJP increased the likelihood of PJ and PO fit.

Clifford (2010) did not dissect recruitment and selection into separate hiring practices, as recruitment practices systematically informed the selection process including screening, initial interview, follow-up interview, vetting, and the job offer. Ash et al. (2013) provided 10 Steps for Effective Recruitment and Hiring: pre-screening, screening, interview process, and follow-up and selection process. Ash et al. (2013) encouraged an organization to invest 12 months into implementing the 10 step hiring process. Ash et al.'s (2013) steps were similar to Clifford's (2010) selection practices recommendations and Schmuck et al.'s (2014) organizational design

framework to establish a process. Within selection process steps, a committee must know what to look for in a candidate, and Hooker (2000) proposed seven major themes in screening and selection criteria: admin experience, expected personal characteristics, organizational skills, human relations skills, ability to fit in and work with existing teams, ability to gain support from parents/community, which Schlueter and Walker (2008) and Palmer (2014) referenced. Traditional familiarity and fit (Anderson, 1991; Baehr, 1987; Palmer, 2014) differed from systematic or strategic fit (Hargreaves, 2009), applicant attraction (Chapman et al., 2005), or Person-Job Fit Theory (Carless, 2005; Stone-Johnson, 2014) during the selection process. Through establishing systematic practices for developing interview questions and establishing the format of the interview, the probability of finding an effective principal increased. In the job offer stage of selection, the significance of applicant attraction and RJP provided perspective for consideration to the manner in which a district chose the top applicant and entered into the contractual relationship. Chapman et al. (2005) highlighted the significance of the interactions through the previous stages to the point as critical in an applicant's decision to accept a job offer based on trust (Klotz et al., 2013), observed stakeholder relationships (Pijanowski & Brady, 2009), and attitude towards the job and organization (Carless, 2005), all of which should be considered by district seeking to hire high-quality candidates.

In the literature search, the variety of theoretical frameworks and research recommendations did not advanced the need for change in principal HRM. Critical Systems Theory might provide the nexus for change as researchers provided poignant challenges as Palmer (2014) did regarding the traditional use of "fit" in the selection process. By invoking the use of fit under the facade of appropriate aspects for selection, districts could continue unintentional discriminatory practices based on race, ethnicity, and gender. According to Palmer (2014), participants did not seek protection against retaliation through the courts, as provided under the

Civil Rights Act (1964), but chose instead to leave the district. Looking to the private sector for guidance in SHRM and Critical Systems Theory allowed adaptability and response to the complex educational contexts, which confounded efforts to recruit and hire effective instructional principals (Gully et al., 2014).

Researchers from 1987 to 2014 found problems with HRM practices, which failed to communicate selection results back to candidates for the purpose of professional development and growth. Baehr (1987) recommended the STEP program to “identify the strengths and weaknesses of individuals, for the purposes of training and development and career counseling” (p. 189). Whitaker (2003) encouraged mentoring and leadership academies to support newly hired and current administrators. Palmer (2014) claimed, “Candidates are rarely notified of the reason(s) for their non-selection” (p. 113). The reality was not too different from research-literature assertions for principals who were unclear regarding performance expectations (Anderson, 1991; Barker, 1997), especially when principal selection was not based on clear criteria or expectations (Clifford, 2010; Schlueter & Walker, 2008). Honig and Copland (2008) recognized the importance of central office administrators investing in personnel development to support improvement efforts. Hsiao et al. (2013) claimed the average length of principalship was 4 years, which left little time for acculturation to district and school contexts and needs, let alone instructional leadership development to respond to the contexts and needs. Huff et al. (2013) asserted, “principals still rarely receive systematic, specific, constructive feedback that enables them to know whether their actions are consistent with their intentions or expectations” (p. 506). The gap between the traditional HRM hiring practices and strategic principal development persisted, further intensifying administrative shortage and practicing principals’ instructional leadership capacity. This study’s conceptual framework aims to re-envision principal HRM as a systematic process to meet contextual needs and promote principal growth and development. Such a re-envisioning supports

purposeful and intentional SHRM practices to improve principal effectiveness in improving student achievement through instructional leadership and management.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction to Chapter 3

CCSSO's (1996) *Standards for School Leaders and Educational Leadership Policy Standards* (2008) evolved into NPBEA (2015) *Professional Standards for Educational Leaders* and serve to define the knowledge and skills of an effective instructional leader. Each set of standards reflected the then current roles, responsibilities, and experiences of principals, which changed over the two decade of educational reform. During reform efforts, the standards exhibited a significant trend in expectations for principals to respond to school and district cultural, social, economic, and other context and needs, manage systems, and provide instructional leadership. The standards influenced the development and adoption of the Oregon Educational Leadership/Administrator Standards (ODE, n.d.). As a result, recruiting, selecting, and developing an effective principal in the reform environment was critical to school success and student achievement (Ash et al., 2013; Clifford, 2010; Farr, 2004; Krasnoff, 2015; Rammer, 2007; Schlueter & Walker, 2008; Waters & Marzano, 2006; Whaley, 2002). Principal Human Resource Management (HRM) has slowly evolved from Traditional Human Resource Management (THRM) process and practices to Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) (Bartling et al., 2012; Brymer et al., 2014; Clifford, 2010; Wright et al., 2014).

SHRM processes and practices were designed strategic and systematically and applied to recruit, select, and develop employees. The extent to which the HRM processes were strategic and systematic varied depending on district and school context and needs. Organizations developed Human Resource Management (HRM) practices aligned with ethical and legal requirements while reflecting organizational culture. THRM met minimum requirements of HRM. Although recruitment and selection exhibited SHRM characteristics, the HRM stages seldom informed a strategically designed professional development plan involving supervision and evaluation or

mentoring and coaching. Because of the division between HRM phases, it was not known how contextual variables influence HRM practices district used to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional principals.

Hooker (2000) claimed administrative hiring literature lacked theoretical foundations and research-based evidence. Research literature revealed a variety of methodologies and designs in studying principal HRM in the reform environment, with qualitative case studies as the most common method and design (Anderson, 1991; Brymer et al., 2014; Clifford, 2010; Garofalo, 2015; Hargreaves, 2009; Hill, 2009; Honig, 2012; Marks, 2013; Wright et al, 2014). The study used qualitative methods and case study design to explore the research question.

For the present study, the researcher selected a case study research design to examine the context of the research question in from multiple vantages than what data from any single data source would provide, according to Yin (2014). Yin (2014) and Roulston (2010) discussed triangulation as a strength of qualitative case studies. The study employed descriptive surveys, archival analysis, and interviews to investigate the phenomenon of HRM management practices in real-world context that presented many variables. Yin (2014) explained the purpose of case studies is to provide advancement to knowledge and to persons engaged in the phenomenon, which is applied to investigating the HRM development and implementation when hiring principal in this study.

the researcher selected Critical Systems Theory (CST) as a theoretical approach to address the complex problems in education through a systems-thinking lens to promote emancipatory action and social justice (Watson & Watson, 2011). By applying CST to the study of HRM practices in case study research design of Oregon public school districts HRM practices, the researcher was able to correlate HRM practices with contextual variables. Bridging the fields of educational leadership, administrative human resource management, and organizational design,

CST offered a theory the researcher used to challenge the existing HRM structures and paradigms to promote change discovered through methodology. The case study objectives were to:

1. Determine what HRM practices Oregon public school districts used to recruit, select, and develop principals
2. Determine if contextual variables gathered from archival data (i.e., district demographics) associate/relate with specific HRM practices used to recruit, select, and develop instructional principals.

The following premises provided the focus and perspective of the study:

1. Leadership standards and research-based characteristics should guide districts' SHRM applicant recruitment and candidate selection of an instructional principal in complex educational contexts.
2. SHRM recruitment and selection should systematically assess principal knowledge, skills, and experiences to inform instructional leadership development plans responsive to the educational context.

In changing and complex educational contexts, many factors influenced applicants and organizations in the HRM process of administrative hiring and development. Although traditional human resource management (THRM) consistently reflected the use and reliance of the interview and applicant "fit" in recruitment and selection, it was unknown to what extent strategic human resource management (SHRM) was employed in administrative hiring and development. A variety of variables and factors influenced the process as well, including school needs, district needs, school context, and district-context. It was unclear how districts assessed school and district needs in the recruitment process. It was also unclear how the school context affected the HRM processes used, as local and district size influenced applicant attraction.

Chapter 3 explains the application of the research and CST as a theory-base through the presentation of the research questions, discussion of the purposes and design of the study, explanation of the research population and sampling methods, identification of the instrumentation, explanation of data collection, identification of variables, explanation of data analysis procedures, identification of limitations and delimitations of the research design, assurance of validity regarding credibility and dependability, preview of expected findings, and discussion of ethical considerations.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1. What practices do districts use to recruit, select and develop effective instructional principals?
2. How do district-contextual variables affect practices to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional principals?

As evidenced in the research literature, districts employed a wide range of THRM and SHRM practices in the recruitment, selection, and development of building administrators (Barker, 1997; Brymer et al., 2014; Chapman et al., 2005; Chatzimouratidi et al., 2012; Clifford, 2010; Copland, 2001; Farr, 2004; Gill & Hendee, 2010; Gully et al., 2013; Klotz et al., 2013; Marks, 2013; Phillips & Gully, 2015; Pijanowski & Brady, 2009; Spanneut, 2007; Seawell, 2015; Whaley, 2002; Whitaker, 2003). Research questions reflected a perceived conflict between traditional and SHRM practices and guided the discussion pertaining to how the use of standards, characteristics, and research to use systematic recruiting, selection, and development defined and improved the quality of principals as instructional leaders. The study sought to determine whether districts used THRM and SHRM in principal hiring and development and if contextual variables association/relate to HRM. The research questions reflected the conceptual framework, based on

CST, guiding the discussion regarding the extent of SHRM to define and improve the quality of principals as instructional leaders in Oregon public school districts.

Purpose and Design of the Study

The purpose of the study were to determine what HRM practices Oregon public school districts used to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional principals; and if the HRM practices associate/relate with district-contextual demographics, as identified in the research questions. To explore the two research questions, the researcher used qualitative case study design (Roulston, 2010, Yin, 2014). The researcher gathered data from self-report surveys, semi-structured hermeneutical interviews, and document analysis. Self-report surveys and individual interviews of Oregon public school district human resource personnel provided data to evidence use of HRM practices, which were categorized as THRM or SHRM (Gully, Phillips, and Kim, 2014). These two HRM categories aided in exploring the first research question, determining if the first and second premises were accepted and practiced.

Analyzing associations/relationships between the self-report and interview data with archival district-contextual data answered the second research question while determining if the premises were influenced by district-context. The researcher used vetted interview questions relating to HRM practices with permission from prior researchers as field-testing was beyond the study's scope (Roulston, 2010). Schreier's (2014) document analysis framework established the approach for collecting and analyzing job postings and district-contextual data in this study. Qualitative case study research improves validity through triangulating results from the three data sources.

Procedures

NCES (2016) and ODE (2016) data and 2016–17 principal job postings in Oregon were the two sources of archival data the researcher analyzed in this study. Oregon Department of

Education (ODE) collected school and district data and reported to NCES (2016), which categorized districts by contextual demographics. These categorizations might influence districts' use of THRM or SHRM practices in principal recruitment, selection, and development. The researcher conducted document analysis on 2016–17 Oregon public school principal job postings produced evidence of district HRM recruitment practices. Job posting analysis identified evidence of professional standards, job-applicant fit, applicant-attraction, and organization-applicant fit. The findings in the job posting analysis provided evidence of HRM practices qualifying as either THRM or SHRM. Cross-referencing archival data analysis results with the survey results determined if an association/relationship existed between a district's HRM processes, practices, and the district-context in principal recruitment, selection, and development.

Self-report surveys. As part of a case study, conducting descriptive research through self-report surveys to collect data on HRM practices produced data to determine what HRM practices Oregon public school districts used to recruit, select, and develop effective principals (Adams & Lawrence, 2015). Self-report surveys will reveal HRM practices through analysis of participant data (Adams & Lawrence, 2015). The researcher sent a self-report surveys to collect data on existing HRM practices in recruiting, selecting, and developing effective instructional leaders to 182 public school districts administrators in Oregon. As Fowler (2014a) discussed different survey options: electronic self-report surveys provided the most efficient use of resources to reach the largest number of participants in Oregon school districts while reducing interview bias and providing the opportunity to collect and tabulate data without additional entry, further enhancing reliability. Participants identified their district to avoid duplicate responses and to allow for cross-referencing of district demographics and job posting archival data analysis. Fowler's (2014b) total survey design (TSD) guided the survey development from Farr (2004) and Van de Water's (1987) instruments. Survey questions targeted each of the three phases of principal HRM to determine

which practices were used. Fowler's (2014b) TSD framework was used to increase the accuracy of the data collected in the study to describe the effect of district size, location, and demographics on the use of designed HRM practices. TSD recognized three characteristics interlace directly related to the quality of data collected in a survey: sampling, question design, and data collection mode. The survey data quality was limited by weakest of these three characteristics, which was sampling in this study; Fowler (2014a) asserted best practices in survey research relied on an evaluation of all of the characteristics.

As the first characteristic of Fowler's (2014b) TSD, the process of sampling aimed to select a representative subset of a population. Sampling quality was addressed by targeting nearly the population districts. The researcher recruited all possible participants who met the sample criteria. The researcher monitored the rate of response from district size or locale to ensure representation from each category in the sample (Fowler, 2014a).

Fowler (2014a) recommended developing survey items using relevant research literature and then using a panel of experts to provide preliminary content validity assessments. The researcher used questions from Farr (2004) and Van de Water's (1987) research. Farr (2004) and Van de Water (1987) assessed question design through pilot studies and expert feedback to improve quality and reliability. Fowler (2014a) TSD evaluation of question design was depends on considering how respondents may base answers on influential factors, which might have taken precedence over facts. A variety of errors could have emerged because of question design ranging from participants not understanding the question, lacking enough information or knowledge to answer the question, or answer distortion/social desirability bias. Fowler's (2014a) sought to address issues of validity by making the error term as small as possible. In this study, the researcher sought to overcome validity challenges by evaluating each question in the compiled survey to determine whether questions were surveying objective facts or subjective states.

The third characteristic Fowler (2014a) identified in TSD was data collection mode. Time, funding, resources, and other factors influenced a researcher's decision about the mode, but Fowler (2014a) acknowledged the significance of data quality relating to collection mode. The study's use of Qualtrics for an electronic survey distribution and collection ensured quality in Fowler's (2014a) third potential characteristic limitation of data collection mode. Using Qualtrics reduced social desirability bias by ensuring that the anonymity of the response (Adams & Lawrence, 2015).

Document content and archival data analysis. To conduct archival data analysis, Schreier (2014) defined qualitative content analysis as a systematic method to describe data by establishing a coding frame, characterized by data reduction, systematic approach, and flexibility. Aligned with the conceptual framework described in chapter 2, the school and district-context influenced each HRM stage and provided a frame for categorizing data. In each HRM stage, research literature provided subcategories (See Appendix B). Recruitment stage relied on evidence of leadership standards and characteristics (CCSSO, 2008, NPBEA, 2015, Waters et al. 2004). Recommended steps and practices for recruitment and selection subcategories were drawn from Ash et al. (2013), Carless (2005), Clifford (2010), Schmuck et al. (2014), and Spanneut (2007). Development stage subcategories were based on Garofalo (2015), Harper (2009), Hill (2009), Huff et al. (2013), Marks (2013), Mendels and Mitgang (2013), and Rammer (2007).

Each district had determined the format and content of job postings, creating a wide range of archival data gathered from districts. Through segmentation of the job postings to relevant aspects of principal recruitment, selection, and development, reduction of the variance aided in developing categories in document analysis (Schreier, 2014). Schreier's (2014) description of content analysis explains how the analysis adapts during the process. As categories and subcategories emerge, the archival data can be systematically reduced by coding similarities and differences in HRM practices from research literature (Brymer et al., 2014; Carless, 2005; CCSSO,

2008; Farr, 2004; Gill & Hendee, 2010; Honig, 2012; Klotz et al., 2013; Marks, 2013; Marzano et al., 2005; Maurer & Cook, 2011; NPBEA, 2015; Shen et al., 1999; Spanneut, 2007; Winter & Morgenthal, 2002). Reduction of the job posting data, as Schreier (2014) recommended, allowed for the comparison and contrast of results to principal HRM practices established in the research literature. Schreier (2014) identified the flexibility to apply qualitative content analysis to concept and data driven categories as a strength of the method, which was essential to triangulation in the study. The emerging content analysis frame based on research literature in the study provided a consistent coding frame for the communication data collected from closed self-surveys, archival data, and semi-structured interviews in the study.

As a reiterative process, the categories and subcategories might be adjusted, but Schreier (2014) clarified the eight steps of qualitative content analysis should remain consistent:

1. Deciding on a research question
2. Selecting material
3. Building a coding frame
4. Segmentation
5. Trial coding
6. Evaluating and modifying the coding frame
7. Performing the main analysis
8. Presenting and interpreting the findings (p. 174)

Schreier (2014) presented systematic sub-steps for some of the steps. Step three, building a coding framework consisted of selecting materials (using a sample set to build a frame), structuring and generating categories (content or data-driven categories), defining categories (concisely naming, describing definitions and indicators (specific words or descriptions from the data), providing examples (reducing abstraction), setting decision rules (optional and needed only when

subcategories overlap), and revising and expanding the framework (collapse or elevating like subcategories). Trial coding, according to Schreier (2014), was the foundation of the pilot phase of qualitative content analysis. Schreier (2014) stated trial coding could have been done by two researchers, or by one researcher coding and recoding within 10–14 days, leading into examining the two results for consistency and validity through calculating a coefficient of agreement and expert analysis of the results and the frame. Schreier (2014) clarified the frame was either revised and the trial coding was repeated, or the frame was ready for the main analysis phase.

Schreier (2014) stated in document analysis, all material should be coded in the main analysis phase and did not need to be double-coded as validity and reliability testing occurred in the pilot phase unless the pilot phase resulted in significant frame changes. Schreier (2014) recommended double coding a third of the material during the main analysis. The results of coding in the analysis phase should be prepared in regards to the research question in either text or quantitative fields based on the frame, Schreier (2014) cautioned.

Interviews. District administrator interviews provided an opportunity to delve deeper into the rationale behind HRM and administrative professional development practices a district employed in hiring effective instructional leaders. Contextual factors were explored to identify specific HRM practices associated with THRM and SHRM processes in applicant recruitment, candidate selection, and principal development. Interview requests to human resource directors were made by email with the intent that interviews would provide a deeper understanding of perceptions of district HRM as well as specific professional development practices. Roulston's (2010) interview framework, Hensley, Kracht, and Strange's (2013) four questions, and consideration of Carless' (2005) applicant attraction, applicant fit, person-organization fit, and realistic job perspective (RJP) in interview probes created a basis for construction of the interviews

and process in the study. The interviews aimed to collect data on whether HRM practices were strategic and systematically used according to research literature recommended practices.

Roulston (2010) identified the basic unit of interaction in an interview as the question-answer sequence, assuming respondent answers would relate to the question. Roulston (2010) presented the structured, semi-structured, and unstructured interview as three designs to conduct the question-answer sequence. Structured interviews were too confining and technically challenging to perform for the purpose of the study (Roulston, 2010). Unstructured interviews could have created unusable data relating to the research focus. Unstructured interviews conducted through repeated interviews and extended fieldwork were beyond the resources and confines of the study. Using Roulston's (2010) semi-structured interview format provided interview participants in this study with a prepared interview questionnaire and the opportunity for an interviewer to follow-up with probing questions. The interview questionnaire in this study included both closed and open questions. Closed questions were used to determine an interviewee's perception of specific principal HRM practices a district uses in recruitment, selection, and development. Roulston (2010) cautioned to use closed questions judiciously to clarify perspectives on details interviewees provide. Open questions were used to delve deeper into closed question responses, or intentionally designed to elicit a reflective response about HRM practices in the district. Roulston (2010) recognized open questions provided interviewees the opportunity to develop responses in their own words relating probes to HRM practices. As part of both closed and open questions, Roulston (2010) defined probes as an interview tactic to glean further development on a topic using a participant's responses.

As the study sought to generate data from human resource directors or district office administrators with regard to their perceptions of HRM practices, hermeneutical interviewing, as Roulston (2010) defined, best fit the study's objectives. As participants answered open-ended

questions and provided explanations, interpretations, and generalizations, generated data was analyzed to follow-up or adjust other interviews to explore emerging trends. Human resource directors were responsible for HRM practices and should have the greatest understanding and experience with principal recruitment, selection, and development. In small or even medium size districts, other district administrators might have the responsibility for HRM and thus identification of the lead administrator in small districts allowed targeting of personnel most likely to be involved with hiring practices. Using Roulston's (2010) qualitative inquiry, the study sought to understand, deconstruct, and promote change in Oregon public school districts' HRM practices.

Self-report surveys and individual interviews of Oregon public school district human resource personnel provided data to evidence use of HRM practices, which was categorized as THRM or SHRM to answer the first research question and determine if the first and second premises were accepted and practiced. Analyzing associations/relationships between the self-report and interview data with archival district-contextual data answered the second research question while determining if the premises were influenced by district-context. Determining district HRM practices—either traditional or strategic—to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional principals connected the premises to the problem statement and research question, allowing determination of association/relationship between HRM and archival data.

To achieve the objectives, case study research design triangulated descriptive survey, archival data analysis, and interviews to collect data for the study. Yin (2014) explained five components critical to case study research design: define the study's questions, propositions, and units of analysis to identify the data to be collected, and then identify logic connecting the data to the propositions, and finally establish the criteria for interpreting the findings.

Research Population and Sampling Method

The study's research population was district office personnel (human resource directors, deputy superintendents, assistant superintendents, and superintendents) who were responsible for the processes used and designed to recruit, select, and develop principals in Oregon. First, the researcher provided participants with an informed consent form at the beginning of the survey. The informed consent form provided an explanation of the purposes and objectives of the study, as well as confidentiality and ethical considerations. As the first section of the survey, participants voluntarily agreed to participate, completing the informed consent process, before beginning the self-report survey. Participation was tracked by district in order to allow for triangulation with other data sources, but remained individually anonymous. Non-responding participants were identifiable if a district was missing results. Non-responding district-participants received a follow-up email one week after receiving the survey. As needed, non-participants received a personal phone call one week after the follow-up email to answer questions or concerns and encourage survey completion.

During the 2016–17 school year, Oregon had 197 public school districts. NCES (2016) reports on population locale (see Table 1 in Appendix H1) and district size (see Table 2 in Appendix H2) assumed one principal was responsible for each reported school. Comparing these variables aided targeted follow-up to ensure representation in both self-report surveys and interviews. Comparing submitted responses with non-responses by district size and locale reduced nonresponse bias as well as an opportunity to correlate nonresponse data with district-context variables (Adams & Lawrence, 2015).

Relating to qualitative inquiry, Roulston (2010) discussed participant selection as decisions based on characterizations of the potential population participants were drawn from for the study. In the study, a minimum of 11 respondents meeting this study's participant criteria represented the

district's contextual demographics as well as identified characteristics collected from the archival analysis of principal recruitment postings. Roulston (2010) claimed qualitative researchers seldom chose probabilistic sampling methods as the quality of research findings was dependent on congruent and consistent characteristics in criterion-based sampling. Roulston's (2010) descriptions for interviewing criterion-based sampling best matched the small population of Oregon public school districts and provided a data point to triangulate results with self-report surveys and archival analysis.

Instrumentation

As Kwan and Walker (2009) and Palmer and Mullooly (2015) asserted, a validated instrument to assess principal selection did not exist, nor was one discovered in the literature review for this study. Yin (2014) provided the research design for the case study, which relied on three data sources (self-report surveys, document analysis, and interviews) to explore the research questions. Roulston (2010) identified four approaches to triangulation: data, investigator, theoretical, and methodological. The study relied on triangulation, collecting and analyzing multiple forms of data to determine interpretative convergence for generalizing conclusions (Roulston, 2010; Yin, 2014). Each of the research questions in the study sought data from multiple sources. With the first research question, the researcher investigated practices a district used to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional principals. With the second research question, the researcher sought to identify if there was an association/relationships between the findings of the first three questions and the district-contextual variables.

Self-report survey. Review of research literature did not find a survey addressing the three HRM stages as a systematic process. The case study's self-report surveys were crafted with permission from Farr (2014) and Van de Water (1987) for recruitment and selection. Farr (2004) and Van de Water (1987) used surveys to explore principal recruitment and selection, and items

from each researcher's surveys were used in the survey for this study (see Appendix A). Farr (2004) developed a three-section survey to understand the recruitment and selection practices used in Montana schools by collecting demographic data about the superintendents surveyed, gathering specific recruitment and selection practices district used, and rating of then present practices used of CCSSO (1996) ISLLC standards in candidate selection. Farr (2004) addressed validity through field-testing of the questionnaire and expert review, feedback, and endorsement. Farr (2004) used test-retest of equivalent-forms approaches for the questionnaire but was did not establish reliability because of the sample size (123 Montana superintendents). Farr's (2014) 10-paged mailed survey used several types of items: checkboxes, with write-in options, rank order selections, ratings (e.g. yes, somewhat, no), and scale scores from 4 (fully) to 1 (none). Farr (2014) used univariate analysis-of-variance (ANOVA) to determine significant differences between principal selection methods.

Van de Water (1987) mailed a 134-item questionnaire to a random sample to gather superintendent perspective on principal competencies and qualities in New York State public school districts and practices in principal hiring. Items 66–113 of Van de Water's (1987) survey addressed the characteristics of the initial employment interview as part of candidate selection. Respondents ranked the practices, which Van de Water (1987) gathered from research literature, on the same seven-point scale to determine perceived importance. Items 114–134 of the survey aimed to gather specific information about management of the interview process, involvement of stakeholders, respondent experience in hiring principals, and extent of recent principal hiring in the respondent's district.

To assess significance of selection criteria, Van de Water (1987) used research literature criteria to establish a 63-item pool which respondents rated on a seven-point scale from not important to very important and completed two open-ended questions to capture any additional

leadership competencies or qualities not covered in the survey. Dillman's "total design method" was used for item development, organization, and implementation (cited in Van de Water, 1987, p. 54). Van de Water's (1987) final ten-page mail survey contained 134 items developed from research literature and feedback from the pretest and pilot study. Van de Water (1987) addressed survey validity through a pilot study pretest with a consultant group of 40 superintendents and assistant superintendents, using feedback to establish the structure and arrangement of the survey questions. Van de Water (1987) used a post-card to follow-up a week later and a mailed letter three week after the original mailing more aggressively to encourage completion of the survey. To achieve minimum sample size, Krejcie and Morgan's (cited in Van de Water, 1987) recommendation led to 288 respondents for a population of 731. Using a sample size of 576 guarded against poor return rates and met Gorsuch's (cited in Van de Water, 1987) requirements for a large sample size (approximately 315) when using factor analysis.

Questions from Farr (2004) and Van de Water's (1987) survey research and Whaley's (2002) resources informed the development HRM stage of the study, and questions from each were used in the self-report surveys to collect data on practices districts apply in marketing, attracting, and collecting applicants in recruitment. The researcher received permission from Farr (2004) and Van de Water (1987) to use and modify their instruments in this study. The surveys collected data on specific selection and development practices districts used in principal HRM.

The decision to use self-report surveys to collect data was based on Fowler's (2014b) TSD and assertion that survey research accesses data was not available elsewhere, through probability sampling, standardized measurement, or special-purpose surveys. TSD inventory aided in identifying considerations and consequences while selecting the best method for survey data collection. Self-report surveys systematically captured individuals' perspectives of practices using a standardized instrument with a sample to represent the target population with validity and

significance statistically (Adams & Lawrence, 2015). The survey included nominal, ordinal, and ratio scales. Nominal scales assessed the types of HRM practices in each of the stages. Ordinal scales assessed the perceived value placed on HRM practices. Ratio scales assessed the recent frequency of principal hiring in a district. The researcher reduced the number of questions for respondents to limit burden; however, fewer questions may have had an effect on the in-depth data gathered through the instrument.

Document content and archival data analysis. Schreier's (2014) qualitative content analysis was used to analyze the results from each data source to arrive at triangulation. Schreier's (2014) framework guided the development of the coding frame for the content analysis of 2016–17 Oregon principal job description/postings analysis (see Appendix B). As selection was mainly an internal process, job postings were only analyzed for explicit recruitment or development evidence, which signified a SHRM model. The results from the analysis aided in determining what practices districts applied in recruiting and selecting effective instructional principals.

The second research question was how do district-contextual variables affect practices to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional principals? Archival data content analysis of district and school contextual variables (e.g. locale, size, demographic, etc.) provided data from State and Federal reports (ODE, 2016; NCES, 2015). After gathering the available demographic data from ODE (2016) and NCES (2016) by district code, the researcher used Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software to test the triangulated data, determining whether an association/relationship exists between the district-contextual data and the HRM practices.

Interviews. Roulston (2010) presented steps for conducting interview research: gaining consent, recruitment, scheduling, background research, recording and transcription, and data translation. Review board requirements and processes to ensure ethical and consideration to public relations, power issues, and accountability, which all relate to confidentiality, guided gaining

consent. Interviews collected data on district personnel's perception of the recruitment, selection, and development practices. Recruitment of participants relied on contact information for human resource directors available on public-domain district websites (email, phone number, physical address). Scheduling of interviews was at the convenience of the interviewee and the interviewer. To prepare for each interview, review of the available archival analysis of district local, size, demographics, and principal recruitment postings provided contextual background knowledge of the district and some HRM practices.

Hensley et al. (2013) researched the use of leadership standards in hiring effective principals, conducting semi-structured interviews. These four interview questions were drawn from research literature and validated by an expert panel in Hensley et al.'s (2013) study. Hensley et al. (2013) collected and analyzed rural Missouri hiring process documents for alignment with the six CCSSO (2008) ISLLC standards to determine whether superintendents used leadership standards to hire principals. Hensley et al. (2013) interviewed nine superintendents, asking the same four questions, following an established interview protocol. Using expert panel feedback to review and revise interview questions, Hensley et al. (2013) adjusted the questions to improve quality and relevance. Hensley et al.'s (2013) interview questions framed the semi-structured interviews human resource directors (see Appendix C). Hensley et al. (2013) granted permission to use the four vetted interview questions.

Data Collection

The first research question sought to identify recruitment practices. Job postings were critical to attracting applicants and were easily collected for archival analysis as public domain documents. As the actual practices, each district used to recruit, select, and develop principals were unknown, the first research question aimed to collect data through self-report surveys, job description analysis, and interviews. The second research question addressing district-contextual

variables relied on data collected from State and Federal reports on district size, locale, and demographics (ODE, 2015, 2016; NCES, 2016).

Self-report surveys. The self-report surveys used were created, distributed, collected response data, and provided data used in generating reports. To accomplish this, Qualtrics Survey Platform was the tool to achieve each of the facets associated with surveys. As Qualtrics is a controlled-access web-based application, collection and storage of consent forms, responses, and any identifiable information secured confidentiality. The collected data from the surveys were then be uploaded into NVivo for coding. The researcher then loaded the NVivo categorized frequency results into SPSS for data analysis to determine associations and relationships between HRM practices and district-contexts.

Content analysis. NCES (2016) contained demographic data: the county, the number of students, the number of teachers, the number of schools, the district locale, and the student-teacher ratio. The demographic data provided further opportunity to identify correlations with archival results and district-context data: Free and Reduced Meals, ethnicity, English Language Learners and Special Education populations, academic performance, etc. Each of these contextual variables appeared in the research literature as influencing an applicant's perception of an organization (PJ and PO Fit) during the hiring process and had a correlation to the frequency of district designed processes used to hiring principals. Results collected using Schreier's (2014) qualitative content analysis coding frame of job postings provide a coding of HRM practices. NVivo served as a tool to code, categories, and measure frequency of HRM practices. The researcher used SPSS to conduct data analysis.

Interviews. Using a digital recording device during the interview aided in the transcription, allowing further analysis as Roulston (2010) recommended. Additionally, taking notes during the interview aided in asking probing questions. Translating interviews was not

necessary, as the language was English. The purpose of the interview was to determine perspectives on HRM practices employed by the district for principal recruitment, selection, and development. Responses were entered into NVivo for categorizing and measuring frequency. the researcher then uploaded the results to SPSS to identify correlations, associations, and relationships in the triangulated data sources.

Identification of Variables

The districts contextual data influenced the use of THRM or SHRM practices in principal recruitment, selection, and development. Depending on the size of the district, one person or a team was responsible for principal human resource management. The locale of the district was a variable based on proximity to administrative education programs, access to local human resource management firms, and funding to support the front-end costs associated with Clifford's (2010) principal human resource management and Schmuck et al.'s (2012) organizational design and management processes. Rural or remote districts may also maintain HRM status quo, as a local applicant pool may not create the impetus or urgency to change practices to attract external applicants. Similarly, demographics characterizing a district as challenging (e.g. discipline, attendance, dropout, subgroup populations, per-pupil spending, etc.) may also influence the decision to use designed HRM processes.

Data Analysis Procedures

To determine the extent to which districts use designed HRM processes and how district-characteristics and context affected the choices and practices to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional leaders, the researcher used the following statistical tests.

- Pearson's Partial Correlation explored the association between continuous variables while controlling for the effect of dichotomous and continuous covariates for district-context and designed processes (Laerd Statistics, 2017).

- Spearman's rank-order correlation assessed the strength and direction of the association/relationship of continuous variables, assuming the use of designed process was the dependent variable and demographic and district-context variables were independent (Laerd Statistics, 2015a).

The researcher uploaded results from the Qualtrics self-report surveys, frequency of practices from job descriptions, district-contextual data, and frequency of practices from interviews into an SPSS to determine principal HRM practices and whether the district-context associated/related.

Limitations and Delimitations of the Research Design

Conducting a research study of HRM practices required considerations of the limitations and delimitations of methodologies and designs. Analysis of the limitations and delimitations of each method and design led to the selection of qualitative case study through triangulation of self-report surveys, archival analysis, and interviews. Consideration of the limits and delimits helped in planning for data collection and analysis to ensure results supported valid and reliable conclusions.

The population size (182 districts) and response rates for a quantitative survey design were low and affected credible conclusions, which was a limitation. The researcher conducted data analysis to delimit case study conclusions concerning validity and reliability through Pearson's Partial Correlation and Spearman's rank-order correlation. Experimental research design would have been limiting for several reasons. First, by requiring cooperation to implement an SHRM process for hiring while using THRM for hiring another administrator, the design would have violated ethical and legal requirements in the hiring process for equitable practices. The design would have to have been longitudinal to address all three phases of SHRM as a congruent and design process and was not selected for this study.

HRM was typically an internal process directed by a district office administrator such as a human resource director or assistant superintendent. HRM policy varied between districts and was seldom in public-accessible documents such as board policy or administrative rules, which limited archival analysis. Although national policy addressed elements of administrative HRM, the focus was on the supervision, evaluation, and professional development plans instead of recruiting and selection, which would have been limiting to the study's conceptual framework (Civic Impulse, 2016; NPBEA, 2015). Without specific policy related to the phases of HRM and the suspected diversity of HRM practices, the design would have been limiting by not yielding quantifiable results.

Qualitative studies lend alternatives to quantitative challenges with sample size, which delimited validity, reliability, and confidence challenges and concerns. A case study narrowed the focus to districts willing to participate. Yin (2014) addressed five traditional limiting concerns with case study research: level of rigor, peoples' confusion of the design with teaching cases, derived generalizations, managing the needed level of effort to conduct a case study, and an unclear comparative advantage to other methods. Although Yin (2014) provided detailed explanations to contest these concerns, he recognized the limiting challenge of doing case study research, as the design lacked formally defined skills or standardized design. Another limitation Yin (2014) identified was statistical generalizations cannot be drawn as cases were not sampling units.

Given Yin's (2014) concerns, the researcher considered and abandoned the following qualitative research designs due to limitations: phenomenology, ethnography, program evaluation, narrative, action, and Correlational and Causal-Comparative (Ex Post Facto) research. Phenomenology and ethnography qualitative approaches were not aligned theoretically with suggested SHRM practices, as they were not necessarily common, every day, and lived

experiences—as Yin (2014) characterized qualitative attributes—for applicants, candidates, and principals. As each district and school exhibited its own organizational culture, ethnography research in multiple cases and contexts would have required longitudinal immersion, which would have been beyond the study's time constraints.

Similar to these designs, program evaluation research and its common experimental design involving groups of stakeholders would have been limiting, as the design did not address the study's problem statement beyond a specific district. Although such research would have provided an intensive understanding of the administrative HRM process in a participating district, the time to interview and observe groups at each stage was limited by the study's scope. In order to conduct program evaluation, a district would have needed to willingly participate and seek to change HRM practices. Identifying such a district and becoming immersed in the district culture would have been limiting in time and resources. The conclusions may have been limiting by being contextual and might have negatively affected the organization depending on findings and organizational perspective.

Narrative and action research was limiting because each would have required significant time observing personnel through each HRM phase in each of the cases. Correlational and Causal-Comparative (Ex Post Facto) research may have provided delimiting options for data analysis relating to HRM processes and the district-context. Raw data collected from surveys, content and archival data analysis, and interviews could have been easily stored in spreadsheets and then analyzed for linear correlations of responses and contextual variables. Development of hypotheses had to account for non-binary use of THRM and SHRM as some districts may have used certain processes but not with designed intent, which would have been limiting. Similar to the concerns with survey research, the sample size was limiting if only using interview design.

Self-report surveys using Fowler's (2014b) TSD allowed for fewer limitations relating to purposes and research questions of the study. Fowler (2014a) described two survey process premises to consider in survey design: the sample population participants were descriptive of the total population, and the participants' answers accurately described their characteristics. Potential issues and limitations in survey precision emerge from each of these premises. When answers were not accurately measured in describing the participants' characteristics, the second fundamental premise was invalid and created error, as did failure to describe the characteristics of the total population accurately through the sample according to Fowler (2014a). Considering and evaluating Fowler's (2014b) limitations and issues were necessary in each characteristic: sampling, question design, and collection mode. Fowler (2014b) presented the common phenomenon where participants did not provide a codable response to all questions, leaving researchers with the choice to leave them out of the analysis or provide estimates of an answer. Fowler (2014b) stated the threshold for item nonresponse as being minimal when less than 5%.

Reducing random differences between the sample and the population was dependent on the sample's design and selection, and Fowler (2014a) identified the possible random variation between the sample and population as a limiting cause of sampling error in the self-report surveys in this study. A second limitation Fowler (2014a) identified was participant bias, resulting from a sample's systematic response being different from a population's response. Social Desirability Bias could have changed a participant's self-report from his or her actual behaviors and thoughts to how he or she wants to be perceived as acting or thinking (Adams & Lawrence, 2015, p. 106). Contexts and external perceptions relating to the study's independent variables could have introduced bias.

In Fowler's (2014b) TSD, question design introduced limitations relating to validity and bias. Questions deriving subjective answers or answers influenced by factors and not facts created

limitations because subjectivity and bias could not be directly observed, only inferred, which led Fowler (2014a) to recognize validity was an estimate of the true value of a subjective response, which could not be determined. Thus, inference would have created random sampling error and invalidity from participant biases (Fowler, 2014a). Considering whether the inference was based on the sampling or differences between answers and true values for respondents required Fowler's (2014b) TSD to evaluate each process.

Survey research did not provide personal connection as interviews did. Interviews produced a connection to participants eliciting deeper information through probes rather than a closed response survey question according to Fowler (2014b). Confining the target population to Oregon limited the sample size based on the number and variance in district size and locale. In larger districts, questionnaires may have included information beyond the scope of the participant as many different personnel and offices managed the HRM workflow. In smaller districts, the amount of work and shared roles/responsibility may have reduced the response rate as surveys could have been viewed as an unnecessary distraction or lacking relevance.

The amount of in-depth information gleaned using survey limits their usefulness, according to Adams and Lawrence (2015). Although the researcher tried to correlate survey responses with district demographic contextual data, district context influenced the self-report as to the extent districts used designed HRM processes. Fowler (2014b) established surveys revealed what participants knew and did not know, and similar to Adams and Lawrence's (2015) assertion of limited depth, participants who did not know or understand designed HRM processes may have incorrectly answered questions. Failure to produce surveys with high-quality procedures would have occurred when researchers did not maintain a total survey design perspective in each design step—sampling, designing questions, and data collection—characteristics of accurate survey research (Fowler, 2014a). Fowler (2014a) identified known sources of errors in survey research

such as biased and undefined sample frames, low response rates, and oversampling as a way to increase response, rather than an approach to strengthening the reliability of estimates for small subgroups in a population (p. 202).

Validation

Credibility. Qualitative case study triangulation between descriptive surveys, document analysis, and interviews addressed the credibility issues. The case study was limited to the number of participants contributing and responding to the descriptive survey and interviews so results might be transferable to other contexts or research by following the data collection and data analysis procedures. Recruiting participants from 182 Oregon public school districts in the descriptive research aimed to increase the trustworthiness and credibility of the data. Attempting to draw from the majority of the state increased the probability of more returned responses, which in turn increased the trustworthiness of the results when triangulated with the other data collection designs. Targeting interview participants based on the descriptive research returns and archival analysis increased credibility either through establishing correlation or through gaining responses from under-represented districts by size, locale, or demographics.

Dependability. Case study triangulation enhanced this study's dependability of results by exhibiting consistent and stable results from the different instruments. High return rates from Oregon public school districts were not expected to meet necessary quantitative research sample sizes (130) to provide dependable results. Archival analysis of 2016–17 Oregon principal job postings and district data also would not alone have provided dependable results. Although interviews provided rich and thick descriptions based on perspectives of districts' HRM processes, the geographic area, time, and access limited the breadth of the design to provide dependable results. Associations and relationships between these three data collection designs aided in establishing dependable results.

Expected Findings

The expected findings relied on the data collected from the self-report surveys, document analysis, and interviews. The problem statement for the study was it was not known to what extent district-contextual variables affect recruitment, selection, and development of effective instructional principals.

As one purpose of the study was to determine what HRM practices Oregon public school districts used to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional principals, the researcher expected to find a wide range of practices. Although the researcher expected to find an association/relationship between the district-contextual variables and HRM practices, the researcher also expected the practices would not be strategically and systematically selected and employed in similar or different contexts.

The first research question sought to identify what practices were used to recruit effective instructional principals. The researcher expected to find traditional recruitment practices were prevalent, but emerging strategic best practices were evident but not always systematic. The researcher expected data collected from analyzing the job postings would have revealed a wide range of practices. The researcher expected to find few districts used district or school contextual variables to revise job postings to increase the likelihood of PJ and PO Fit (Carless, 2005).

In the first research question, the researcher sought to identify what practices were used to select effective instructional principals. The researcher expected to find evidence of recruitment and selection as scaffolded or combined processes. Traditional practices were expected be the norm, relying significantly on the interview as the prevalent selection evaluation tool. The researcher expected to find a reliance on “known” candidates and use of traditional HRM pipelines, especially when districts were hiring a principal in the summer before the start of the school year.

The researcher sought identify what practices were used to develop effective instructional principals in the final research question. The researcher expected to find development was an isolated stage of principal HRM as the results of recruitment and selection would not have informed the development. The researcher expected to find recent adjustments to the supervision and evaluation practices would have exhibited strategic and systematic principal development data because of the State alignment of the CCSSO (2008) standards for administrative evaluation (ODE, n.d.). Although evidence of new evaluative standards and processes may have emerged, the researcher did not believe a prevalence of mentorship or coaching models would guide the implementation and principal development.

The second research question sought to identify if a relationship existed between how do district-contextual variables and practices to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional principals. The researcher expected to find the context of the district and school influence principal HRM recruitment, selection, and development practices. District size and local were expected to affect available resources, specifically human resources, which the researcher expected to influence the use of SHRM processes or practices requiring expertise as well as personnel and management to support complex systems. Larger districts located in urban areas may have had less demand to employ SHRM, and the researcher expected to find the organizational capacity may have existed for complex principal HRM, but the need for strategic and systematic recruitment and selection may not have been prevalent or connected to principal development. The researcher expected larger districts would have relied on traditional recruitment and selection strategies but would have exhibited strategic development processes. The researcher expected smaller rural and remote districts would have strategic recruitment and selection practices to attract applicants, but the practices would have been more limited due to available resources.

Ethical Issues in the Study

Conflict of interest assessment. As a practicing principal in Oregon who has and will continue to participate in principal HRM, bias related to certain practices could have emerged. The researcher have family members currently and previously working in Oregon public school districts, which could have created conflicts of interests based on perceived as a personal connection to the research. As no financial gains were anticipated, and all expenditures and services were the researcher's, there was no financial conflict of interest. To reduce and eliminate potential biases, the researcher did not include district in which family or the researcher have worked as or applied to be a principal in this study. The researcher used Concordia University electronic communication to ensure the invitation to participate in the study was associated with the researcher's scholarship at a doctoral student at Concordia University and not as a representative of the researcher's current or previous employing districts.

Researcher's position. The researcher conducted the survey solicitation, collection, archival and data results analysis, and interviewing as the sole researcher in the case study. Using a semi-structured format in the interview process provided the advantages of exploring certain responses, but may have been a disadvantage in capturing the same responses without prompting or a bias a structured interview may have provided.

Ethical issues in the study. All ethical issues in the study were considered and approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB). The case study did not use any deception or collect personal information to be published, further reducing any potential or perceived participant risk. To eliminate the possibility of researcher bias in the study as a participant in applying for administrative positions, the researcher did not included districts the researcher have applied to be a principal or worked as a principal. Triangulation and a semi-structured interview aided in reducing the negative impact of bias in the study.

Fowler (2014a) identified survey research in which participants could not be identified and disclosure of responses did not place subjects in any reasonable criminal or civil liability, financial, employment, or reputation damage were exempt from IRB for human subject's other than a review of the procedures to ensure the design meets these standards. Fowler's (2014b) TSD encouraged transparency in recruiting survey participants through informed consent identifying protocols: who would be conducting the research, the purpose of the research, a statement of confidentiality, statement of voluntary participation, and select response participation. The survey did not collect any individually identifiable information, and results were only reported by the categories of district, size, locale, or demographics. To further protect confidentiality, the researcher removed the district names, analyzing and reporting results by size, locale, or demographic.

Document analysis was based on public domain data as reported by ODE (2015, 2016) to NCES (2015, 2016) and by job postings districts published to recruit principal applicants. Although these postings were associated with specific districts and district personnel may be named on the document, personally identifiable information was not analyzed or used to invite participation as part of the study. All student demographic data associated with the size of the district and student-composition was suppressed by ODE to ensure individuals or small student groups could not have been identified when 5% or less of the student population. As the archival analysis was public-available data and documents, confidentiality concerns did not exist.

Interview recruitment used the same informed consent provided in the self-report electronic survey recommended in Fowler's (2014b) TSD. Potential interviewees received written information detailing who was conducting the research, the purpose of the research, a statement of confidentiality, statement of voluntary participation, and select response participation. Before conducting the interview, each participant received an explanation of the informed consent form, voluntarily consenting to participate. Upon submission, the informed consent was logged. The

researcher contacted the participant to arrange the interview time and follow Roulston's (2010) recommendations for arranging and conducting interviews. Roulston (2010) did not include debriefing as part of the interview design, and the study did not use debriefing as a practice after the interview as any information collected would not have related to the study purpose.

Chapter 3 Summary

The purposes of the study were to determine what human resource management (HRM) practices Oregon public school districts used to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional principals; and if the HRM practices associate/relate with district-contextual demographics. Three data sources provided results to be triangulated in the qualitative case study of Oregon public school districts. Self-report surveys were based on Fowler's (2014b) TSD. Document analysis was conducted on 2016–17 Oregon principal job postings and district descriptive data from ODE (2015, 2016) and NCES (2015, 2016). Interviews of district administrators followed Roulston's (2010) steps for conducting interview research. The triangulated results determine whether an association/relationship existed between district-context and HRM practices. Results and conclusion from the study guided recommendations for influencing critical change in HRM practices to improve instructional leadership quality and professional growth in the third stage of development.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Results

Introduction

Recruiting, selecting, and developing an effective principal is critical to school success and student achievement (Ash, Hodge, & Connell, 2013; Clifford, 2010; Farr, 2004; Krasnoff, 2015; Rammer, 2007; Schlueter & Walker, 2008; Waters & Marzano, 2006). A principal's role encompasses school and district cultural, social, economic, and other context and needs, managing systems, and expected instructional leadership as evidenced in the evolving principal leadership standards (CCSSO, 1996, 2008; NPBEA, 2009, 2015; ODE, n.d.).

Because of the division between HRM phases in research literature, it was not known to what extent district-contextual variables affected principal recruitment, selection, and development practices. Purposes of the study were to determine what HRM practices Oregon public school districts used to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional principals; and determine if the HRM practices associate/relate with district-contextual demographics. Qualitative case study research provided the methodology and design to examine the context of research questions from multiple vantages than what data from any single data source would provide, according to Yin (2014).

To explore the research questions, a qualitative case study of Oregon public school districts using triangulation of self-report surveys, archival data and document analysis, and interviews aimed to determine HRM practices, and to determine whether an association/relationship existed between district-context and the practices by exploring the following research questions:

1. What practices do districts use to recruit, select and develop effective instructional principals?
2. How do district-contextual variables affect practices to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional principals?

The researcher collected descriptive data using Qualtrics for the self-report survey, frequency of HRM practices from document analysis of 2016–17 job postings, and frequency of HRM practices from interviews of district office administrators. Using NVivo, the researcher established categories based on the study’s conceptual framework and emerging attributes to collect frequency data. The researcher then analyzed the HRM practices frequency data and district contextual data in SPSS to determine if relationships/associations existed.

Description of the Sample

The researcher sent a self-report descriptive survey to 182 target participants representing Oregon public school districts. Of the five surveys started in the first invitation, one district completed the survey. The second invitation and active recruiting gained four more participants, resulting in an overall 2.7% participation rate. During the 2016–17 school year, 43 principal job postings and five related attachments (job descriptions and marketing documents) were collected and analyzed, representing 24% of the 182 target participants. Four semi-structured interviews with district office administrators gathered descriptive data on candidate selection and principal development, representing 2.2% of the target population. Using these three data points, 35 of the 182 target population districts contributed to one or all three of the data collection sources, a 19% participation rate.

ODE annually reports district demographic data on its website and to NCES. Using NCES (2016) categories, the researcher compiled demographic data for districts’ context and needs included in one or more of the data collections. Table 3 provides a description of respondents in relation to the distribution of districts in Oregon as well as in the study by locale (see Appendix H3). Although the participation rate was low in both the self-report survey and interviews, the representation of the responding districts in the locale categories was 18% of Oregon public districts (197) and 19% of the target population districts (182). Participation in the study was

voluntary and limited by districts posting open principal positions during the 2016–17 school year. Over-representation of districts with principal postings occurred in city, suburb, and town, with rural emerging as under-representation. No participating districts represented the suburb: small category. Table 4 provides a description of respondents in relation to the distribution of districts in Oregon as well as the study by size (see Appendix H4). The final sample of participating districts had the following composition. The 54% of participants representing medium sized districts (36% of OR districts) led to an overrepresentation. The 23% of participants representing large districts (8.6% of OR districts). The 23% of participants underrepresented small districts (55.3% of OR districts).

My conceptual framework accounted for district and school context and needs in each stage of SHRM and by investigating associations/relationships based on contextual data. Tables 3-8 present demographic averages for participating districts sorted by the NCES (2016) categories locale and size (Appendices H5-H8). Per-pupil-spending was highest in rural and city districts and lowest in suburb: midsize and town districts. Comparing per-pupil-spending averages, size exhibited a higher amount—by average \$277 per pupil—than the locale average. The NCES (2016) category size had higher values than the category locale in all contextual demographics except for student-teacher ratio. The differences in the averages were a result of comparing two different sets of data, compiled with different categories (size and locale). Per-pupil-spending was highest in city districts, but city: large skews this significantly with more than \$2,000 more per pupil than city: midsize and city: small, each of which were more comparable with spending in other locales. Perhaps the expenses associated with larger organizations (staffing, services, resources, etc.) caused the difference in sub-groups within the city locale designation. The number of schools in each locale captures the number of building principals who would have been recruited, selected, and developed in each category and subcategory. Student-teacher ratio was

higher in city and suburb with a greater number of students, teachers, and schools represented. When sorted by size, student-teacher ratio increases in larger districts.

Tables 7 and 8 exhibit district demographics reported by districts to ODE and NCES (2016) by designation (see Appendix H7 and H8). Suburb represented as the highest locale for English Language Arts (ELA) and Math performance percentage of students meeting and exceeding on Smarter Balanced Assessment (SBA), whereas rural and town performed much lower. SBA performance appears to relate more to the distance from cities and the size of the district as rural and town had the least percentage of students passing. Discipline was the total number of expulsions and suspensions reported by ODE (2016). In Table 7, the discipline incidents column identifies incidents creating an unsafe and disrupted learning environment resulting in the student being removed from instruction; the discipline percentage column accurately reflects the district discipline for the percentage of the enrolled students (see Appendix H7). Rural and town students were suspended less proportionally than city and suburb counterpart districts. In Table 8, when comparing discipline percentage by size, small and medium match at 5.6%, slightly higher than large at 5.1%, which was the state average. Locale appears to have a greater relationship to the percentage of students receiving suspensions and expulsions than does size (Appendix H8).

Tables 9-12 capture the student subgroup and ethnicity population percentages by locale and size as districts reported to ODE and NCES (2016) by descriptor (Appendices H9–H12). The economically disadvantaged student percentage (EconDis) was highest in rural areas, with rural: fringe with more than 70% of students meeting poverty qualifications to receive meal assistance at school. Large and midsize cities EconDis student percentages were high, but low in city: small. The percentage of students qualifying for English Language Learners (ELL) services was highest in city and town, whereas special education (SpEd) percentages were higher in town than city.

The exception here was in city: midsize, which exhibited the largest special education percentage of any category. The number of languages spoken in a district visually appears to relate to ELL percentages. The closer a district was to a large city, the greater the number of languages spoken. Ethnic diversity was greater in large and city districts. Ethnic diversity exhibited a marked difference between city: large (51.5% non-White), city: midsize (39.2% non-White), and city: small (44.6% non-White). The further a district was from a large city, the greater the population of white students represented in the findings. Rural: distant reported over 86% White students compared to 48.5% White in city: large.

Research Methodology and Analysis

The purpose of the study was to determine what HRM practices Oregon public school districts used to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional principals; and if the HRM practices associated/related with district-contextual demographics. Qualitative inquiry, according to Creswell (2013), explored the connections and causes, and revealed an equitable and accurate perspective, telling the story behind the data. Creswell (2013) claimed good qualitative inquiry relied on quantitative results and practices such as sorting and analyzing the frequency of occurrences, but attributes such as validation and verification provided additional and extended accuracy evidenced through qualitative case study research designs. Qualitative phenomenology provided an up-close opportunity to study specific events and participants' actions and reactions to human resource management processes (Ash et al., 2013; Byrne-Jimenez & Orr, 2012; Carless, 2005; Farr, 2004; Huff et al., 2013; Palmer, 2014; Lewis, 2008; Schlueter & Walker, 2008; Slowik, 2001; Spanneut, 2007 Van de Water, 1987; Winter & Morgenthal, 2002). The qualitative study results provided a foundation to apply Critical Systems Theory in identifying ineffective HRM practices and influencing practice changes in hiring instructional leaders as principals.

Yin (2014) and Roulston (2010) identified triangulation as a strength of qualitative case studies by providing an accuracy check. The study relied on descriptive surveys, document analysis, and interviews in studying the phenomenon of HRM management practices in real-world context presenting many variables. Yin (2014) explained case studies provided advancement of knowledge to persons engaged in the phenomenon, specifically the HRM development and implementation when hiring principal, which aligned well with qualitative methodology and Critical Systems Theory.

Applying Schreier's (2014) eight steps of qualitative content analysis method established a coding frame, reduced data through a systematic approach, and provided flexibility in responding

to emerging attributes. After establishing the research questions and collecting 2016–17 Oregon principal job postings, the researcher selected several postings to use as a sample set to build a frame in NVivo. The initial frame was based on the three stages of HRM: recruiting, selecting, and developing. In each of these stages, the researcher structured categories according to theories from the literature review. In Applicant Recruitment, the researcher applied Carless' (2005) applicant attraction, Person-Job Fit (PJ Fit), and Person-Organization Fit (PO Fit). In candidate selection, the researcher used Hooker's (2000) seven selection steps. From the resulting structure, generative categories emerged from the content analysis and data results. As subcategories and attributes emerged, the researcher defined categories and indicators, established decision rules for overlapping subcategories, and revised the expanding framework. The researcher used the initial frame to code each of the postings and related attachments, continuing to define, establish, and revise. After the first step of analysis, the researcher recoded the documents using the final coding framework.

The researcher conducted archival data analysis on the ODE (2016) and NCES (2016) demographic and contextual data. Compiling the data into two Excel spreadsheets focused on two main categories: district locale, and district size. These categories were established by NCES (2016). Within each category, the researcher used attributes and values from the reports to create corresponding columns for each participating district row. The researcher sorted the locale tab (City, Town, Suburb, and Rural) and the size tab (Small, Medium, and Large) by the NCES (2016) subcategory, then calculated the averages for each subcategory, category, and the total for participants. The researcher used these values to create Appendices H2–H12 to provide generalized demographic information for participating districts to maintain individual confidentiality. The researcher also uploaded the NCES (2016) archival data into SPSS to

determine associations/relationships with HRM practices frequency results from the document analysis, interviews, and self-report surveys.

Self-report surveys were the second qualitative case study data source to determine what HRM practices, trends, and attitudes existed in Oregon public school districts to recruit, select, and develop effective principals. Fowler's (2014b) TSD guided the self-report survey development from Farr (2004) and Van de Water's (1987) instruments, targeting each of the HRM stages. Fowler's (2014b) TSD established sampling, question design, and data collection mode related to data quality. The researcher reduced target population from 197 to 182 by removing charter school districts (charters were not bound by HRM policies and practices), districts without principals, and districts in which family or the researcher have applied to or worked as an administrator to reduce bias. A confidence level of 95% would have required a sample size of 124. Using Qualtrics, the researcher sent the survey to 182 districts. The first two-week window gathered one completed survey. The researcher sent out a second recruitment notice and extended the window by another two weeks. The researcher also sent the recruitment letter to the Oregon School Personnel Association regional directors. As a result, the researcher collected five self-report surveys. The researcher analyzed the results of the surveys using the coding framework established in document analysis. The researcher coded the surveys by adding a value of one if a respondent affirmed use of an HRM practice present and zero if not. Using Microsoft Excel, the researcher tallied the values in the final data summary tables. The researcher uploaded the values into SPSS to determine associations/relationships with the interview and archival data.

For the interviews, the researcher used Hensley et al.'s (2013) four questions to structure the data collection. Relying on Roulston's (2010) interview framework, the researcher considered additional prompts based on Carless' (2005) PJ Fit, PO Fit, RJP, Hooker's (2000) selection steps, and survey responses. As the participants volunteered in the survey, the researcher recruited each

to participate in the interview. Of the five survey participants, four agreed to participate in the interview. The researcher followed Roulston's (2010) hermeneutical interview to facilitate qualitative inquiries with participants to understand and deconstruct existing HRM practices. The interviews were conducted over a 2-week period via WebEx and Facetime, both of which allowed audio recording. As a precaution, the researcher collected a second audio recording via another device. The interviews lasted between 30 and 40 minutes. Following Hensley et al.'s (2013) questions and Roulston's (2010) hermeneutical interview protocol, the researcher engaged the participants in inquiry based on their experiences, perspectives, and skills relating to the HRM stages. The researcher uploaded the audio recordings to NVivo and used TranscribeMe! for secure transcription of the interviews. Using the coding frame from the document analysis and self-report surveys, the researcher coded the interviews twice. The first time, the researcher coded the interviews in their own framework matrix. In the second coding, the researcher used the framework including the survey and document analysis coding. The researcher completed all the coding in NVivo, allowing for comparisons between interview and job posting data. The researcher tallied the attribute frequencies in Excel, attributing the value of a one for each HRM practice occurrence. The researcher uploaded these values into SPSS for analysis to determine associations/relationships archival data.

Summary of the Findings

The conceptual framework established the research questions for the study, which bracketed the coding frame. Findings were presented by each research question and HRM stage. The data summaries identified the practices, trends, and comparisons as gathered from the descriptive qualitative case study research. In NVivo, the terms sources and codes are used to describe descriptive statistics categories. Sources identify the number of job postings, interviews, or survey responses. Codes are occurrence (frequency) of a specific attribute appearing in sources.

The following summary of the descriptive statistics discusses the findings in relation to sources and codes in relation to HRM stages and practices.

Applicant Recruitment

With the first research question in this study, the researcher sought to investigate practices districts used to recruit principals. Frequency data collected from job postings, job descriptions, brochures and other attachments, self-report surveys, and interviews were categorized and coded using Carless' (2005) applicant attraction, PJ Fit, and PO Fit. Carless' (2005) categories were two-way, meaning an applicant must have formed a RJP, but the organization also must have seen the person as a good fit for the job and organization. Applicant recruitment (AR) garnered substantial evidence, associating with 55 sources and 6,500 codes (see Table 13 in Appendix H13). Practices in the AR stage range from procedural expectations (e.g., possessing an administrative license) to creative marketing to attract younger applicants wanting to be a part of the community personally and professionally.

Applicant attraction practices. Applicant attraction practices describe specific actions and sources organizations may use to publicize a job posting. Potential applicants seek positions from the sources and as a result of the organizational actions. Through coding the 55 sources and 266 occurrences of HRM practices in the study, 12 attributes emerged. Table 14 identifies the 12 applicant attraction practices found in the study (see Appendix H14). All participants recognized the importance of using a variety of communication channels to get job postings out to potential applicants, relying heavily on local organizations and Internet postings.

Person-Job Fit (PJ Fit). PJ Fit associated with 53 sources and 6,092 occurrences as seen in Table 14 (see Appendix H14). Through the coding, seven subcategories emerged allowing an applicant to form an RJP based on the job posting: contract information (Table 15 in Appendix H15) desired descriptors/traits (Table 20 in Appendix H20), duties (Table 19 in Appendix H19),

qualifications/requirements (Table 17 in Appendix H17), and responsibilities (Table 18 in Appendix H18). Significant variation between the sources emerged in the coding analysis, which could complicate an applicant's ability to form an RJP and determine to pursue applying to the organization. Compensation and incentivizing revealed differences between districts' offered packages as well as limited communication from the organization to the candidates. Salary information was included in 56% of the postings: 20% generally identified insurance coverage and 2% mentioned professional development funds. From the postings, 125 descriptors/traits, 164 duties, 78 responsibilities, and 48 qualifications/requirements aimed to present an RJP, attracting an applicant who would be an effective principal at the school, in the district, and in the community. Generally, inconsistent presentation of information for attracting a qualified applicant would complicate forming an RJP based on PJ Fit.

Person-Organization Fit (PO Fit). PO Fit associated with 51 sources and 379 occurrences (see Table 21 in Appendix H21). Following the study's conceptual framework, the subcategories were district-context (47 sources and 116 occurrences) and school context (50 sources and 257 occurrences). Less than 20% of the participating districts addressed student, parent, or staff descriptions. The presentation of information helping an applicant form an RJP and ensuring organizations attracted desired candidates was inconsistent in presenting an accurate PO Fit for what a district and school needed or what context existed in either place.

Applicant recruitment summary of findings. Substantial evidence for applicant recruitment emerged from the job postings. Districts exhibited a wide range of formats, content, supplementary resources, and practices in this stage. While some districts presented specific information allowing potential applicants to establish a RJP, many postings and practices lacked specificity. As a result, applicants may perceive a fit with the job and organization (PJ and PO Fit) that is incongruent with the actual contexts and needs. In such situations, an applicant could move

forward in the HRM process to candidacy but lack the desired characteristics, knowledge, skills, and experiences to be successful in the school, district, and community.

Candidate Selection

The first research question in this study sought to investigate practices districts used to recruit principals. The researcher categorized the occurrence of HRM practices by frequency as collected from document analysis, self-report surveys, and interviews. The following categories describe candidate selection from the initial and emerging coding: screening (subcategories: strategic, traditional, and candidate characteristics), selection practices (subcategories: strategic and traditional), and selection assessment practices (subcategories: strategic and traditional). Candidate selection associated with 34 sources and 551 occurrences of an HRM selection practice (see Table 22 in Appendix H22).

Traditional applicant screening. Traditional applicant screening relied on established practices such as application completeness and reviewing resumes and letters. Traditional applicant screening associated with 33 sources and 101 occurrences (Table 24 in Appendix H24). Generally, the subcategory focused on reviewing paperwork the applicant submits but did not specify processes or systematic practices for evaluating the submissions to rank order applicants. Traditional screening could have resulted in qualified applicants being overlooked or caught on a technicality in application completion, which may have had more to do with a technical error than reflecting an applicant's inability, skill deficiency, or inattention to detail.

Strategic applicant screening. Strategic applicant screening exhibited how districts have adjusted or introduced practices to screen applicants systematically and responded to district or school contextual needs such as principal shortage, stakeholder interests or needs, changing community or student demographics. The researcher identified strategic applicant screening in 20 sources and 75 occurrences (see Table 23 in Appendix H23).

Candidate characteristics. Candidate characteristics derived from descriptors interview participants identified as desirable traits, knowledge, skills, and experiences in an ideal effective principal. Four interview sources and 90 occurrences associated with the 35 candidate characteristics (see Table 25 in Appendix H25). Two or more participating districts, with leadership and relationships rating as the highest desirable characteristics, identified 23% of the characteristics. These characteristics differed from the frequency rank order of applicant characteristics collected in coding the job descriptions. Combining the interview characteristics with the list from the Oregon Leadership Standards and the job description characteristics provided a broader perspective resulting in 48 sources and 727 occurrences with leadership and management with the highest frequency (see Table 25 in Appendix H25).

Candidate selection practices. Districts used selection practices after applicant screening to evaluate PJ and PO Fit, narrowing the field of candidates down to a finalist. Thirty-three sources and 133 occurrences associated with selection practices (see Tables 26 and 27 in Appendices H26 and H27). In all, 16 practices were categorized as either strategic (29 sources and 61 occurrences) or traditional (28 sources and 72 occurrences). District practices relied heavily on the interview as the primary selection practice but differed greatly in who participates, how the committee was prepared, what additional tasks a candidate was asked to perform, and what practices following selections may have been used by a candidate to assess PJ and PO Fit.

Candidate selection interview practices. The interview continued as the dominant selection practice behind background/reference checks and writing samples. As a result, the researcher coded the 20 sources identifying evidence of districts using an interview 160 times (see Table 28 in Appendix H28). As a traditional practice, the interview appeared to be an established process with specific tasks dependent on the context of the district. Evidence suggested the

interview process relied heavily on district administrators to guide decision-making throughout, with some districts exhibiting greater stakeholder input than others.

Candidate selection assessment practices. During selection, districts reported using a variety of assessment practices to evaluate a candidate's PJ and PO Fit. The researcher found evidence of assessment practices in eight sources and 60 occurrences (see Tables 29 and 30 in Appendices H29 and H30). The researcher used 15 assessment practices: 10 strategic (six sources and 38 occurrences) and five traditional (nice sources and 22 occurrences). The responses between interviews and self-report surveys exhibited differences in what respondents claimed was a practice on the survey and what they talked about practicing in the interviews. The specificity of some of the strategic practices in the survey would have required significant training and preparation of committee members to avoid bias (e.g., analysis of a candidate's personality traits).

Candidate selection summary of findings. Evidence showed districts continued to rely on THRM practices in candidate selection. Some districts identified specific SHRM practices to enhance the selection process. The scaffolding of these practices was seldom strategically designed to bridge applicant recruitment. Evidence of the district and school context emerged in this stage, as participants discussed specific practices intended to assess a candidate's fit in the school, district, and community. The practices identified by participants in interviews, job postings, and surveys never connected to OEL/AS to transition a selected candidate to principal development.

Principal Development

The first research question in this study sought to investigate practices districts used to develop principals. Data collected from document analysis and interviews were categorized and coded for occurrence of HRM practices using the study's conceptual framework at the principal

development (PD) stage for professional growth and development and supervision and evaluation. Principal development associated with 34 sources and 140 occurrences (see Table 31 in Appendix H31). As identified in the research literature discussion, the PD stage of HRM was the least referenced and seldom in concert with the previous stages. The primary source of data for the PD stage came from interviews, but document analysis and survey information also yielded some results. Each interview participant emphasized the importance of working collaboratively with principals, especially if new to the district. Each participant identified research-based frameworks guiding their thinking and practices. The significance of district office administrators' capacity to provide mentorship and develop building level administrators appeared as the most important consideration when supporting principal development.

Professional growth and development. Principal professional growth and development as a SHRM practice focused on systematically supporting improvement to respond to a gap in knowledge or skill the principal needed to be successful at a school or in a district. Sixteen sources and 42 occurrences associated with professional growth and development (see Table 31 in Appendix H31). Professional growth and development had three subcategories: developmental practices (10 sources and 18 occurrences), organizational approach (22 sources and 24 occurrences), staffing continuity/sustainability planning (five sources and 10 occurrences), and principal planning (two sources and six occurrences). Participating districts provided evidence of district wide development based on district-context or interests. PLCs were the common framework to engage in collaborative conversations with principals and staff. Some variance between the data sources appeared. The results evidenced a lack of staffing retention or succession planning and little evidence of involving a principal in guiding the development plan if one existed.

Supervision and evaluation. Principal supervision and evaluation was generally a THRM practice as required by local, state, and national policies and regulations for accountability and compliance. My initial coding framework identified administrative evaluation, contract status, and discipline as possible subcategories. Only administrative evaluation was relevant to the study with nine sources and 19 occurrences emerging (see Table 31 in Appendix H31). Overall, nine sources and 28 occurrences associated with supervision and evaluation, resulting in it being the least relevant category. The changes in the Oregon evaluation system for educators were three years old at the time of the study, and the limited data relating to evaluation or standards may have reflected districts' attention and effort were directed elsewhere (ODE, n.d.).

Principal development summary of findings. Districts differed in the professional growth and development and the supervision and evaluation practices employed with acting and newly hired administrators. No districts identified an intentional and strategic plan to connect applicant recruitment and candidate selection practices and results to principal development. Although evidence of administrative support and mentoring emerged, and some were based on participants' experiences with research-based frameworks, the consensus was that this area of principal HRM was emerging and not formalized. The OEL/AS were seldom referenced unless addressed through interview prompts and then in acknowledgement that continued implementation and development of administrative supervision and evaluation was continuing (see Table 31 in Appendix H31).

District-contextual variables. The second research question explored if district-contextual variables associated/related to HRM practices to recruit, select, and develop principals. As evidenced in Tables 3-12, the researcher gathered substantial contextual data for participating districts and visually analyzed the data tables before importing the information into SPSS (see Appendices H3–H12). The following generalizations relating HRM practices and district-contextual variables emerged.

Participating districts closer to large cities have greater ethnic diversity, higher special education, substantially larger ELL populations, higher standardized assessment performance, and a greater number of disciplinary incidents, but a lower percentage of discipline to student ratio (see Table 32 in Appendix H32). The impact of these contextual variables were apparent in the job postings seeking cultural and bilingual applicants, emphasizing leaders must be able to connect with diverse communities and manage federal programs such as special education and ELL. The differences between locale and size created discrepancies when comparing the data: locale student-teacher ratios for the State were 21.2:1 but were 20.5:1 when sorted by size. The Math SBA performance was 3.9% higher when sorted by locale compared to sorting by size. The researcher drew general conclusions that the size of a district represented certain demographics at a higher frequency than locale did. Ethnicity appeared not to relate to size or locale with statistical variances existing only in Asian (0.4%), Hispanic/Latino (0.3%), and Multiple Race (0.5%) while other groups were 0.1% or less. Ethnicity appeared to relate more to locale than to size of the district as higher ethnic diversity was recorded in city, town, and suburb.

The researcher tested the assumptions for Pearson's partial correlation to assess the relationship between traditional and strategic assessment practices after adjusting for percentage of students qualifying for Free and Reduced Meals (FARMS). Using just FARMS as the demographic variable, the Mean traditional assessment practices was 3.250 ($SD = .9574$), mean strategic assessment practices was 7.500 ($SD = 3.1091$) and mean percentage FARMS was 44.423% ($SD = 11.3572$). There were linear relationships between traditional assessment practices, strategic assessment practices, and the percentage of students qualifying for FARMS (and all the other variables tested). For each of the demographics, two or more variables were not normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p < .05$). A bivariate Pearson's correlation could not be established because of the univariate and multivariate outliers (Laerd

Statistics, 2017). The researcher tested the assumptions for mobility rate, SBA ELA performance, SBA math performance, discipline incidents, per-pupil-spending, ethnicity percentage, special education percentage, and numbers of schools in a district and determined the variable distribution, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p < .05$), were not normally distributed for two or more variables in every case. As a result, the researcher did not run Pearson's correlation as anticipated and moved to the second statistical test to determine association/relationship.

The researcher ran Spearman's rank-order correlation to assess the relationship applicant attraction and district demographic data. There was a strong positive correlation between district and school-contextual variables and HRM practices. The researcher assessed each variable by running Spearman's correlation.

Presentation of the Data and Results

Data and results were presented by each stage of HRM with associated subcategories. The data tables contained the highest frequency practices or attributes gathered from document analysis, interviews, and the self-report surveys. Relevant connections to district demographics relating to Appendices H3–H12 were discussed in each stage and category and assessed to determine statistically significant association/relationship as presented in Appendices H32–H34.

Applicant Recruitment

The researcher gathered substantial applicant recruitment frequency data from the document analysis, interviews, surveys, and standards identifying what practices districts used to recruit principals (see Table 13 in Appendix H13). Even with the standardized posting structure on the internet sources, districts copied and pasted portions of job postings, resulting in a range of structure and content similarities and difference. Evidence suggested districts continued to spend time and effort on marketing positions, providing additional information, brochures, linking

postings to community resources and organizations, and updating job postings to attract quality applicants with desired knowledge, skills, and experiences (see Table 14 in Appendix H14).

Despite the obvious efforts, the content of job postings lacked specific information an applicant would have sought to form an RJP. Only 27% of the job postings clearly identified timelines, 25% included a header for a section of requirements and qualifications (see Table 16 in Appendix H16). Table 16 exhibits that job descriptions were provided in 20% of the postings, and 4% provided a description of the community or school (see Appendix H16). The table also shows an Equal Opportunity or Non-discrimination statement was included in 15% of the postings and each statement differed based on the contextual variables of the district as well as the locale (higher diversity and closer to cities).

Although web-posting sites provided a template for districts to follow to ensure desired information was included, evidence of copy and paste content from internal posting documents created a variety of headings and terminology (e.g. responsibilities versus duties). Most job postings contained a lengthy list of job description statements, which differed significantly from district to district, but only occasionally from posting to posting within a district. Districts with multiple postings containing different descriptions and desired skills had clearly been revised with input from stakeholders and consideration of organizational (district and school) needs and contexts aligned with emerging best practices in SHRM. Table 13 provides a summary of results for the categories that emerged during coding for applicant recruitment (see Appendix H13). Tables 14-21 provide the coding results subcategories for each attribute in Table H13 (see Appendix H13–21).

Three categories comprised applicant recruitment in the study: applicant attraction practices, PJ Fit, and PO Fit (see Table 13 in Appendix H13). In each of these, attributes evidenced the frequency of use in job postings, interviews, and surveys. In PJ Fit, contract

information encompassed specific details about the number of work days, benefits, salary, and so on. Posting Content and Structure collected specific headings, format, and additional attachments or resources an organization included. Qualifications and Requirements identified specific licensure, experience, knowledge, or skills an applicant should have possessed to apply for a position. Responsibilities, Duties, and Characteristics categorized the tasks, programs, and adjectives used to describe the desired principal.

Applicant attraction practices. Applicant attraction practices categorized what marketing channels or sources districts used to publicize a principal position (see Table 14 in Appendix H14). All the job postings were collected from COSA (state administrative organization) and Schoolspring (web posting site). Several practices were clearly less impactful or not used by districts to attract applicants: state employment agencies and newspapers were included from Van de Water's (1987) and Farr's (2004) instruments and in Table 30 (see Appendix H30). The growth of web-based job searches and services made these traditional practices anachronistic. Eight percent of participating districts exhibited strategic emerging practices with videos, links to chamber of commerce or local organizations, and quality announcements with professional marketing literature (see Appendix H14). Interview participants noted each web posting service had differences and were not necessarily user-friendly or did not allow districts to exercise choice in creating a quality and attractive postings (see Appendix H14). The OEL/AS did not occur in any job postings, were not used to develop recruitment practices, and are omitted as a descriptive column if none of the attributes in the table were coded to a standard.

A consistent theme was the importance of an applicant understanding the district, school, and community; internal applicants were uniquely positioned to be a successful candidate. Although participants discussed the significance of applicants being connected to the organization and community through GYOP/internal candidate development, only one district described a

formalized system to support assistant principal growth to become a principal. Table 14 shows participants identifying internal pools in both the surveys and interviews, but interviews revealed the perception participation was based more on interest than on a formalized recruitment or succession plan (see Appendix H14). Participants described word-of-mouth conversations where a candidate was unsuccessful in one district but was recruited to apply in a neighboring district after superintendents shared candidate qualities. Given time, resources, and ability, developing future administrators from within the organization would have many benefits and was highly desirable as evidenced in the interview and survey results (see Table 14 in Appendix H14).

Participants identified the significance of attracting an applicant who understood and wanted to be a part of the community, understood the values, and was looking for a mutual fit. As seen in Table 4, the majority of Oregon districts were small in 2016 (see Appendix H4). Attracting an applicant to a small rural area hinges on a quality of life, and a RJP (Carless, 2005). One participant recognized the competition challenges in attracting applicants:

Even though we're a small district, the researcher think if you act big, you're going to attract more quality . . . if your district doesn't have a story to tell, or you don't have a video, or you don't have those other things, why do people want to come and be interested in you?

These smaller districts were responding to changes and adjusting based on marketing practices in larger districts and industry. A participant described the process as taking significant time, but the reward was in attracting applicants who had a better understanding of the community and district and wanted to be the principal because of the quality announcements.

Person-Job Fit (PJ Fit). Attracting an applicant was the first step in the process. Carless (2005) described PJ Fit as a two-way process where the organization communicates about the position and the desired applicant, and a potential applicant considered if he or she possessed the

knowledge, skills, experiences, and characteristics aligned with the posting. A significant difference between city and rural districts was compensation and incentivizing, as lucrative packages were more readily available in city and large districts as identified in Tables 3 and 4 (see Appendix H3 and H4). Table 15 presents the results from the data analysis where 65% of the job postings provided information about salary ranges, but 25% of job postings provided general statements such as “Salary based on 2016–17 scale” or “Salary to be determined” (see Appendix H15). As Oregon districts established administrative contracts locally as at-will employees, a wide variation of contract days, retirement, insurance packages, allowances for job related travel and communication, and other incentives appeared in the 2016-17 job postings (see Table 15 in Appendix H15). Some districts did not publicize annuity or other incentives in the job posting. Few districts publicized or addressed tuition reimbursement or professional development funds in either job postings or in the interviews. Teacher Standards and Practices Commission (TSPC) requires Oregon administrators to pursue additional coursework to attain and maintain licenses, and doctoral programs were becoming more accessible to working administrators through online and distant education. Although participating districts identified the importance of continuing education in principal development, professional learning was not valued in PJ Fit. Retirement incentives varied from district to district as well, with some districts paying the organization and the employee’s contribution, while others did not pay the employee’s 6%. Clarity and specificity of contract information was limited or lacking in some job postings, which would not aid in creating an RJP for a prospective applicant.

For an applicant to form an RJP and determine fit, he or she must be able to get the necessary content but also be able to make comparisons between job postings. As evidenced in Table 16, the job postings differed significantly from each other, even for similar positions within a single district (see Appendix H16). Further differences were evident in content and

organizational expectations or desired skills and characteristics as evidenced in responses in interviews, surveys, and job postings. One interview participant identified the inclusion of organization literature and information as critical, but interpretation of what the information and literature entails differed between the surveys, the job postings, and the interview responses. Because districts determined recruitment practices, it was unclear what the basis for a quality job posting was, how organizational literature and information was selected and included, or how it was created with the ideal candidate in mind. The limitations of a common language and shared practices caused emerging categories and attributes during coding of the job postings because some districts altered the content, pasting information about duties from an internal document into a web service template under requirements, responsibilities, or the job description headings. Critical information for an applicant would have been the timeline for the posting and selection process; however, only 27% of postings included the information (see Table 16 in Appendix H16). Interview participants responded to probes about posting process and content of the critical information, identifying time and resources as inhibitors to updating documents and processes to contain the timelines for recruitment and selection.

Similar to the job posting and description content and structure challenges identified in Table 16, districts varied on expectations of applicants as displayed in Table 17 (see Appendix H16 and H17). The primary requirement for a qualified applicant was experience. In Table 20, districts identified experience as the second most desired characteristic in an applicant (see Appendix H20). Because experience is the primary requirement and the second most desired characteristic, a strong emphasis on recruiting veteran administrators who meet local contextual needs influences district HRM practices. In defining experience, districts exhibited different interpretations on administrative experience (67%) or teaching experience (55%). Regardless, districts were looking for educators who had progressed through and professional grew in the

school system. The application packet requirements were some of the clearest and most consistent areas of the job postings (see Table 17 in Appendix H17). Even districts not using Schoolspring/TalentEd required applicants to submit an electronic application packet. Only one job posting requested that applicants mail a paper packet. This posting was also the only one requiring a photo as part of the application packet. Writing samples and resumes were common requirements as part of the application process, as were letters of recommendation. Interestingly, the job descriptions and an interview participant exhibited a diverse practice with 10% of the postings requesting five letters of recommendation, 33% requesting three, 3% requesting two, and 54% did not request letters in the posting. The results clearly identified that a qualified applicant should have experience, an administrative license, and be able to submit an online application. Since districts used additional job description information or atypical application processes, some applicants may have been unclear about requirements or other qualifications. Applicants without a clear understanding of the qualifications and requirements may have applied for a position they were not qualified for or failed to meet or include a requirement. These interactions would be detrimental to both the applicant and the district, as judgments could have been made and perspectives formed which may have been avoidable. Providing clear and specific qualifications and requirements may aid a district in reducing the number of unqualified applicants, but also would have improved organizational image based on communication and organization: either of these related directly to Carless' (2005) RJP.

Seventy-five responsibilities emerged from coding the job postings, interviews, and Oregon Educational Leadership/Administrator Standards. As evident in the frequency data in Table 18, a principal was primarily responsible for learning, leadership, and management (see Appendix H18). Grouping job posting responsibilities revealed principal job responsibilities relating to learning, instruction, and teaching (32 sources and 235 occurrences). As a leader,

principals were to be responsible for the culture and relationships in the school (33 sources and 185 occurrences). District seek a principal who is an instructional leader. However, job postings exhibit an emphasis on management roles as critical responsibilities in job postings were to fulfill numerous responsibilities, manage time, resources, and data (26 sources and 110 occurrences). The tension between instructional leadership and effective management persisted and challenged expectations, practicality, and productivity when considered through Carless' (2005) RJP and PJ/PO Fit frameworks. When job postings identify whether a position is managerial, instructional leadership, or relational, districts clarify the principal's purpose and expectations, allowing applicants to form an RJP.

Similar to responsibilities, 163 duties emerged from coding the job postings, interviews, and ODE (n.d.) OEL/AS (see Table 19 in Appendix H19). As expressed in Table 19, frequency data exhibits a principal's primary duty was to manage a school. This result was in stark contrast to desired instructional leadership in principal responsibilities and characteristics. Grouping the top 10 duties by frequency, a principal *managed* by knowing, maintaining, supervising, and providing (350 occurrences) and *led* by developing, implementing, demonstrating, supporting, and promoting (281 occurrences). The evidence of traditional principal management duties persisted in job postings as well as in the OEL/AS despite the expectation and responsibility to serve as an instructional leader (ODE, n.d.). Applicants reading job description statements for duties may have incorrectly perceived a principal position as managerial when in fact a district expected instructional or relational leadership.

The principal characteristics in Table 20 emerged from coding job postings, interviews, and the ODE (n.d.) OEL/AS, resulting in 124 principal attributes (see Appendix H20). The researcher organized Table 20 by frequency, and on average in 56% of the documents the word *effective* appeared 2.4 times. Although the *experience* appeared in more postings (71%) and in the

interviews, *experience* only averaged 1.7 times per source. Three of the attributes related to leadership: *instructional*, *educational*, and *collaborative* accounting for 10% of the codes. *Effective*, *experienced*, *successful*, *strong*, *excellent*, and *relational* were attributes occurring 266 times in more than 40 sources. Without further clarification and specificity of what an effective, successful, strong, or excellent principal, the attributes would have been challenging to quantify or objectively assess when ranking applicants for selection. *Communicator* and *decision-maker* (48 occurrences) were more specific and provided opportunity for objective assessment more than the less specific but more frequent characteristics (see Table 20 in Appendix H20). Educational leader was the characteristic the OEL/AS used to describe administrators, appearing in each standard (ODE, n.d.). Only 15% of the job postings used *educational leader* (9 occurrences in 6 sources). Whether or not the job postings were created to align with the OEL/AS term could not be determined from the data gathered in this study. Table 20 reflects a diversity of terminology, desired characteristics, and ambiguity associated with administrative job postings (see Appendix H20).

PJ Fit was complex as apparent in the analysis of 6,092 occurrences in 53 sources (see Table 13 in Appendix H13). During the applicant recruitment stage, little communication would have occurred between a prospective applicant and a district. Any ambiguity, unspecific language, or misrepresentation in a district's published documents could have influenced an applicant positively or negatively. The lack of a common language and specifics would have been a challenge for external candidates, especially out of state. Internal candidates may have perceived these as beneficial and not seen vague or unspecific attributes. As the job posting and any communication with district staff were the first impressions between an applicant and a candidate, PJ Fit was a significant stage of applicant recruitment and closely connected with PO Fit.

Person-Organization Fit (PO Fit). Organizational values, community resources, contextual data, programs, and many other factors influence an applicant's perception of PO Fit (see Table 21 in Appendix H21). Similar to PJ Fit, PO Fit was a two-way assessment where the organization portrayed its ideal candidate and how he or she would become a part of the organization, while the applicant considered perceptions and feelings about trust and connectedness to the organization (Klotz et al., 2013). Carless (2005) clarified PJ and PO Fit were ongoing phenomenon throughout recruitment and selection as the applicant and organization continued to interact. Table 21 captures the significant attributes in PO Fit and the attributes closely related to contextual data in Tables 3-12 (see Appendices H3–H12 and H21). Some districts included contextual data or links to additional resources in job postings to aid an applicant in determining PO Fit.

The culture and climate in a building influenced satisfaction in PO Fit—a negative or unsupportive environment would not attract applicants, nor would a negative or unsupportive principal attract interest or support in the hiring process (Carless, 2005). Interview participants discussed culture and climate as a collaborative effort between administration and staff, but a principal's responsibility to sustain (see Table 21 in Appendix H21). A tension between wanting a change agent to spur growth and not wanting to endure massive second order change manifested in the search for a new principal. In Table 21, culture and climate related attributes were the highest frequency in job postings, but also were referenced consistently in interviews as being critical, as a quality applicant should understand the organizational culture, community, and want to be a part of each (see Appendix H21).

Sixty percent of the job postings provided a description of the district, ranging from community and geographic descriptions to a mission statement and discussion of philosophy or values (see Table 21 in Appendix H21). Diversity and Cultural Responsiveness in job postings

appeared in city, suburb, and towns with high ethnic diversity or seasonal works (resulting in a higher mobility rate). Understanding the cultural demographics of the community a school and district supports was critical to PO Fit.

School context reflected higher clarity specifically identifying the school site, grade level, culture and climate, and specific programs at approximately 62% (see Table 21 in Appendix H21). Four percent of the postings were for a principal vacancy, but in a school to be determined, allowing the district to place finalists based on organizational assessment of abilities and needs. The practice was peculiar to city: large districts where multiple open positions or the ability to move personnel were not limiting factors, as they would be in a rural: remote and small district with one principal position.

Professional Learning Teams or Communities (PLTs or PLCs) were common frameworks for professional development for teachers and for principals (see Table 21 in Appendix H21). An interview participant discussed the importance of PLCs for building principals to collaborate on problems of practices, learning to seek support and problem-solve together, providing district administrators opportunity to facilitate organizational growth and inquiry and less time managing personnel. Information regarding an applicant's position as part of the district administrative team or within the community context is seen in Table 21 as 19% of participating districts' postings and 16% referenced district administrative team roles relate to the position (see Appendix H21). Job postings and an interview participating discussed Performance and Evaluation as an attribute the researcher coded to PO Fit. In job postings, some identified whom the principal would report to, who would evaluate the principal, or both.

The final two attributes in PO Fit related to specific programs and levels: special education and high school (see Table 21 in Appendix H21). High schools accounted for 27% of the job, with the remaining postings in elementary, middle school/junior high, K–6, K–12, or 6–12. Job

postings in city, suburb, and town identified special education knowledge and experience as an important attribute, which associated with Appendices H7 and H8 as special education populations were higher in larger schools close to metropolitan areas.

Candidate Selection

Applicant recruitment practices established the foundation for gathering applications to determine qualified candidates. If a district established a foundation systematically based on candidate selection practices, the process would have to be efficient and productive for both the applicant and district. In the first research question the researcher explored what practices districts used to recruit principals. The researcher categorized candidate selection into four attributes: applicant screening, selection practices, assessment practices, and interview practices. Each of these attributes contained subcategories: strategic and traditional. Results in candidate selection derived primarily from interviews, self-report surveys, and job postings containing evidence of selection practices. Overall, candidate selection generated 551 occurrences in 34 sources (see Table 22 in Appendix H22). The researcher derived the majority of the frequency data from the interviews, but self-report surveys included questions focused on specific selection practices as well. Selection data reflected a reliance on traditional practices (57% of sources and 195 occurrences), whereas strategic practices were less frequent (174 occurrences) but appeared in the 57% of the sources as well. Table 22 presents a summary of results for the main attributes coded to candidate selection, and Tables 23–30 provide the subcategories coded to each of the main attributes (see Appendices H22–30).

Applicant screening. Once the recruitment stage ended at the established closing date, most districts began the selection process. Using a screening form would have been a systematic and strategic practice to ensure consistency in evaluating applicants against established criteria for an ideal principal. Two percent of participating districts identified using the screening form

practice in interviews or the self-report survey (see Table 23 in Appendix H23). The screening form was generated based on the feedback from stakeholders in the building, district, and community, all of which informed the posting documents and search for the ideal principal.

Interview participants discussed the significance of knowing internal candidates in the screening stage, as these applicants would have had knowledge of the culture, programs, and systems in the district. Seventy-five percent of the participants provided specific examples of how internal candidates moved from classroom teacher or teacher on special assignment (TOSA) positions into administrative roles and would likely move into principal positions in the future (see Table 23 in Appendix H23). A quarter of the participants provided detailed explanations of how the internal applicants were screened blindly to ensure the application measured up against the criteria and other applicants before moving forward in the process.

Each interview participant contributed an interesting practice or perspective on screening. A participant discussed looking specifically for volunteer work an applicant performed as a measure of commitment and community involvement (see Table 23 in Appendix H23). . Another participant claimed recommendation letters were one of the most important assessments, spending substantial time reviewing the letters and framing questions based on the perspectives shared. Another participant shared a specific practice to engage staff, students, families, and community members in developing criteria for the principal search. One participant discussed the importance of considering an applicant's experience in relation to the needs of the position, cautioning an applicant may have had many other experiences or skills, which may not match the needs of the posted position.

Ten percent of job postings expressed desire for applicants from minority or historically underrepresented populations (see Table 23 in Appendix H23). The postings were from large districts in cities or towns, associating with the district's demographics. Interview participants

explained that intentional recruitment and selection were not a focus as represented communities in rural locales and small size districts ranged from the high 80% to the mid–90% White and had less than 5% of students in ELL programs (on average 1.9%. See Table 9 in Appendix H9). The context and needs of the school and district influenced the HRM processes. Each participant described improvements in broadening HRM practices through equity lens and recognized minority hires and community members may have felt uncomfortable in White majority districts and communities. Each participant focused on how disparity in socio-economic areas affected students and communities, recognizing a need to continue to explore ways to reach out to poverty students and families. Participants from town and suburb districts recognized continued improvement over several years of equity work, but each acknowledged feeling challenged to improve practices and attract a workforce in contrast to the community demographics.

Traditional practices in applicant screening related to the application packet and review for completeness and quality (see Table 24 in Appendix H24). As identified in Appendix H17, all but one of the job postings were online or electronic submissions. Interview participants acknowledge in probes regarding electronic personnel management that technology could have presented a variety of challenges as well as unintended or unknown errors: districts could have excluded a quality candidate if relying too heavily on application completeness, especially if not using a job posting service such as SchoolSpring or Applitrack, which prohibit applicants from submitting incomplete packets. Interview participants talked about the importance of the reference letters as well as pre-checks to determine if an applicant met the quality criteria. Reviewing resumes, transcripts, or other documents were all best practices referenced by participants, and participants acknowledge that without a screening system, bias or error could influence a decision to move an applicant forward or not. Categorizing these as strategic or traditional was dependent on the context and district use, which was not always discernable.

Candidate characteristics. Table 25 identifies the characteristics interview participants described when discussing quality principal candidate attributes (see Appendix H25). For comparison, the researcher included the Job Posting and OEL/AS coding results as well (ODE, n.d.). Similar to Table 20, leadership and management were most frequent (see Appendices H20 and H25). A common thread through applicant recruitment and candidate selection was the need for a principal to establish and maintain positive and effective relationships. One interview participant stated, “you could be the most awesome principal, have super skills of organization, know what great instruction looks like, but if you can’t get people to work for you...what I can’t teach you is how to make people like you.” Another participant discussed the importance of engaging in the community: “You have to buy into the community if you want the community to buy into you.” Interview participants connected relationships with trust (75%), which eventually led to mobilizing staff, students, or the community to achieve needed goals.

Despite a consistent principal turnover in districts—all of the participating interviewing districts have hired one or more principals in the last one to two years—experience continued to be a desired characteristic. One participant stated,

we’ve really been pushing hard on finding experienced administrators and we haven’t had as many kind of first-year folks lately. It just seems the way it’s. It’s not that we’re running away from them. It just seems like we’ve had lots of good candidates who have experience.

Another participant explained, “We’re not desperate. We do not feel like we can’t go back out if we don’t find the right person.” Knowing the specific characteristics, knowledge, experiences, and skill in a desired principal aided a district in recruitment and selection. The emergence of collaboration, instructional leadership, and continuous improvement in the interview results aligned with the characteristics, duties, and responsibilities identified in applicant recruitment (Appendix H18–H20). With the exception of *experience*, *improve*, and *instructional*

leader, each of the characteristics appeared in the OEL/AS as well (ODE, n. d.). An instructional leader could be argued to be the same as an educational leader, as improvement was also addressed in the OEL/AS, only in terms of growth or gains (ODE, n.d.).

Candidate selection practices. Candidate selection practices varied greatly from district to district. Although traditional practices had a higher frequency of occurrences (72) than strategic (61) did, many districts were using recommended practices to supplement the traditional interview (see Tables 26 and 27 in Appendices H26 and H27). Interview participants in this study identified the importance of site visits to see if candidates “walked the walk” and wanted to see the candidate in a natural environment to assess relationships, interactions, and hear what others perceived as strengths and areas for growth. Thirteen practices emerged in the surveys (five strategic, eight traditional) in either the job descriptions or the interview as well. The exception was *use of assessment center results*. Possibly, the selection of this attribute was an outlier because of clarity or understanding than an actually used selection practice. The use of writing samples, writing activities, presentations, or on-demand tasks created opportunities for evaluators to assess how principals think, decide, and respond. One interview participant cited examples of past candidates who could interview extremely well but were not able to put together an organized presentation or written statement in response to an emergency.

Although the researcher categorized the interviews as traditional, several interview participants shared examples of how second or third round interviews qualified as strategic and systematic (see Table 27 in Appendix H27). In one instance, a participant shared a specific question designed to see how a candidate thought and handled a potentially awkward emotional or social situation. The same participant was involved at each stage of the hiring process, specifically interviewing all district staff in the second round, ensuring quality candidates continued forward but also setting expectations for philosophies and practices to reduce possible future issues.

Similar to the practice of multiple conversations and interactions, two participants described community evaluations where parents and community members were invited to meet candidates, ask questions, and hear the candidate described experiences, skills, values, and beliefs. Each participant believed these opportunities for stakeholders to engage with candidates beyond the interview established foundations for trusting relationships.

Candidate selection: Interview practices. The traditional interview dominated selection practices as evident in Table 28 (see Appendix H28). Each district approached interviews differently, including performance tasks, having several stations candidates rotated through, or focusing on specific areas of interest or need through targeted questions. Job postings contained evidence of the interview as an established practice, and interview participants described specific steps in the process from gathering stakeholder input to the final interview with district administrative leadership.

Some discrepancies between the survey responses and interview narrative results appeared and are identified in Table 28 (see Appendix H28); these discrepancies could be a result of participants thinking and talking about an attribute, which resulted in coming to the conclusion a specific practice was used. Table 28 shows 60% of survey respondents stated they did not use predetermined questions. Survey respondents participated in the interviews, and 75% explained how predetermined questions were developed during probing questions about selection practices. Through the interviews, the care and consideration of including stakeholders in the process early on connected to the importance of relationships the participants expected finalists to sustain. Although the interview process was developed and guided by district administrators, and district leadership made final selection decision, the researcher did not perceive a rigged process or suspect participants had predetermined outcomes. One participant explained following the process with fidelity from the start built stakeholders' trust, shaped thinking about leadership through

collaboratively scoring and comparing results, and trained committee members to be successful while feeling a part of the decision-making process.

Candidate selection assessment practices. Assessing candidates during the interview and related performance tasks requires a level of expertise in asking questions, active listening, technical knowledge relating to process and confidentiality, and decision-making. Tables 29 and 30 provide the most frequent strategic and traditional assessment practices gathered from job postings, interviews, and surveys (see Appendices H29 and H30). Evidence of strategic practices was limited to fewer sources, whereas traditional practices appeared in job description coding. Overall, assessment practices assessed in the study tended towards strategic with 38 occurrences compared to 22 traditional occurrences. Some conflict between survey and interview responses persisted. In Table 29, 60% of survey respondents claimed *using point systems to rate candidates*, whereas in the interviews, only 50% of the survey respondents claimed this, and only one participant explained a *screening form* in applicant screening (see Table 23 in Appendix H23 and H29). Certain assessments could have been considered strategic or traditional depending on the context and how the assessment was connected to a desired knowledge, skill, or characteristics in the process. *Analysis of body language or overt behavioral traits* connected to a need for a relational leader could focus on assessing approachability, sincerity, and strength of character/persona. If properly described to an interview committee, the attribute could have been highly effective and meaningful in data collection to guide decision-making. If instead not properly described, an interview committee would arbitrarily or subjectively assess a candidate and the attribute would have been classified as a traditional practice relating to fit or feel. The researcher categorized each of these as a SHRM practice, as an interview participant explained preparing a committee to evaluate candidates and described the practice in a similar context.

Although the interview was a primary assessment, all participants acknowledged the practice was not the sole measure for candidate selection (see Table 30 in Appendix H30). Each interview participant explained a lengthy and resource-consuming process preparing an interview committee to select and recommend a finalist. Through dialogue, participants clarified the hierarchical process of hiring has significantly changed, with school boards playing less of a role in vetting and approving finalists. Size and locale affected the selection and assessment process. Participants identified challenges in resources, time, impact on the larger system in pulling staff members to be on a committee and not in classroom, and capacity to perform roles associated with selection. One participant explained the lack of formalized processes for hiring (e.g., a hiring manual) or standardized assessment because of minimal administrative mobility. The participant described working with an administrator who had two decades of experience in a building and just retired another two-decade veteran in another building. The new principal was placed based on prior work in the building with stakeholders, which established credibility as an instructional leader, maintained trust and relationships, and knew the culture. In the context, the participant explained establishing a hiring policy and procedure or generating a manual was low on the priority list. The results show that districts were putting practices into place to ensure consistency, effectiveness, and thoroughness guide the assessment practices to select the best candidate who would move into the final stage of HRM: principal development as a new hire in a school.

Principal Development

The first research question aimed to identify what practices districts used to develop principals. Interviews exhibited more growth and development practices (26 occurrences), than surveys (0 occurrences) or job postings (1 occurrence) exhibited (see Table 31 in Appendix H31). Evidence of supervision and evaluation appeared in both interviews and job postings for a larger percentage of participants. Principal development, according to interview participants, was

primarily dependent on district administrative capacity to support principals through either coaching/mentorship or supervision/evaluation. Evidence of formalized mentorship appeared in one rural: remote district, which signified an effort to create support structures for geographically isolated administrators who may serve in several administrative roles in a small district. All interview participants cited specific research-based frameworks for mentorship, coaching, or supporting principals. Relationships continued to be a common focal point for collaborative inquiry through PLCs and coaching. The PLC model was a common practice to facilitate development as a school, as a leader of the school, and member of the district administrative team (see Table 31 in Appendix H31). Participants discussed the administrative standards indirectly, or on occasion identifying a lack of congruency with the standards and growth practices. Two survey respondents claimed to have a promotion plan and another respondent reported having somewhat of a plan. The researcher did not find any evidence of a formalized promotion or succession process the job postings or explanations of such a process in the interviews for the same respondents. Overall, principal development practices appeared in 60% of study data sources (see Table 31 in Appendix H31).

District-context and Demographic Variables

The second research question explored how district-contextual variables affect practices to recruit, select, and develop principals. Using Laerd Statistics (2015b), the researcher identified two statistical tests to determine if there was an association/relationship between HRM practices and district demographics: Pearson's partial correlation and Spearman's rank order correlation.

The researcher ran Pearson's partial correlation to assess the relationship between traditional assessment practices and strategic assessment practices after adjusting for percentage of students qualifying for Free and Reduced Meals (FARMS), mobility rate, SBA ELA performance, SBA math performance, discipline, per-pupil-spending, ethnicity percentage, special education

percentage, and numbers of schools in a district. Using FARMS as an example, the mean traditional assessment practices was 3.250 ($SD = .9574$), mean strategic assessment practices was 7.500 ($SD = 3.1091$) and mean percentage FARMS was 44.423% ($SD = 11.3572$). There were linear relationships between traditional assessment practices, strategic assessment practices, and the percentage of students qualifying for FARMS and each of the other variables. For each of the demographics, two or more variables were not normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p < .05$). The researcher could not establish a bivariate Pearson's correlation because of the univariate and multivariate outliers with each of the variables identified above (Laerd Statistics, 2017).

The researcher ran Spearman's rank-order correlation to assess the relationship between THRM and SHRM practices and district-contextual data. There was a strong positive correlation between contextual variables ($N = 16$), traditional and strategic HRM practices ($N = 8$), applicant recruitment practices ($N = 33$), and OEL/AS ($N = 8$), totaling 64 variables. Tables 32-34 identify statistically significant relationships measured at 0.01 or 0.05 (two-tailed) with Spearman's test (see Appendices H32–H34). Job postings recruiting minority representative administrators and crafting a job description and duties to fit the specific needs were the most statistically significant practices in relation to the district-contextual variables listed (see Table 32 in Appendix 32). Ethnicity, discipline, languages spoken, students enrolled in ELL, the number of enrolled students, number of teachers, number of schools in a district, and the student to teacher ratio create a complex context (see Table 32 in Appendix H32). With high significance for ethnicity, languages, and ELL, a strong correlation to the attraction of bilingual, bicultural, and minority representative applicants was a logical assumption. As each of the stated demographics were also reflective of very different schools, the practice of crafting a job description and duties would improve the RJP

a district broadcasts to potential applicants. Effective principals with administrative experience associate with higher needs and contexts districts (see Table 32 in Appendix H32).

District demographics used in this study were drawn from the NCES (2016) and ODE (2016) reports, categorizing students, staff, programs, and performance. District demographics presented in Table 32 had a statistically significant relationship/association with an attribute from applicant attraction (see Appendix H32). Ethnicity described the percentage of non-White students. The discipline demographic was the number of suspensions in the district. The languages demographic was the number of languages spoken in the school, including English. The ELL demographic was the percentage of the student population receiving ELL active or monitored services. The enrollment demographic was the total number of students. The SBA math demographic was the percentage of students meeting or exceeding (Level 3 or 4). The teachers demographic was the number of licensed teachers. Schools was the number of schools (K–12) in the district. The student-teacher ratio demographic was the number of students divided by the number of teachers, providing an estimated class size. Statistically significant values suggest relationships between a district variable, such as an ethnicity (high non-White student population) and the evidence of intentionally crafting a job description to seek candidates with specific knowledge, skills, experiences, or characteristics, such as cultural responsiveness, or bi-cultural/linguicism. The higher the ethnicity rate in the district, the greater evidence of strategic applicant attraction in recruitment emerged in the results (see Table 32 in Appendix H32).

Table 33 presents applicant recruitment practices and desired leadership styles in relation to district demographics and school job postings (see Appendix H33). EconDis was the percentage of economically disadvantaged students, determined by applying and receiving free or reduced meals. SBA ELA was the percentage of students meeting or exceeding (Level 3 or 4) in English language arts. Mobility is the percentage of students enrolling and withdrawing during an

academic school year. Collaborative leader and instructional leader associated/related to three different contextual variables. The larger districts (based on the number of students, teachers, and schools) associated/related with instructional leaders who improve teaching and learning, whereas higher performing schools (measured by SBA Math and ELA) associated/related very significantly with collaborative leaders, who bring teachers, students, and parents together to achieve goals. Educational leader strongly associated/related with mobility but without clear connections. The percent of students economically disadvantaged in a district and a collaborative leader was the only negative association/relationship in the statistical test and has unclear implications, other than districts with high percentages do not exhibit practices associated with this leadership style. How a district advertises and recruits as an applicant recruitment practice positively associated/related with SBA math and student-teacher ratio. The district variables in Table 33 were also drawn from NCES (2016) and ODE (2016) reports (see Appendix H33).

Table 34 provides statistically significant results for skills and applicant interests in comparison with district-contextual demographics (see Appendix H34). Special education (SpEd) was the percentage of students receiving special education services. SpEd negatively associations with people skills, ability to build support from stakeholders, and organizational skills, which economically disadvantaged also highly associations negatively with when testing with Spearman's correlation. Performance on SBA ELA and Math associate with districts' desire for applicants with people skills. Compensation and incentives associate with ethnicity as a district variable. In Table 34, district variables were drawn from NCES (2016) and ODE (2016) reports (see Appendix H34).

Chapter 4 Summary

Using qualitative methodology and case study design, the researcher triangulated data from three sources: document analysis, self-report surveys, and interviews. Using Schreier's (2014)

eight steps of qualitative content analysis method, the researcher conducted document analysis of 49 principal job postings and related attachments and archival analysis of archival data analysis on the ODE (2016) and NCES (2016) district-contextual data. Following Fowler's (2014b) TSD, the researcher developed a self-report survey using select questions from Farr's (2004) and Van de Water's (1987), with their permission. Using Hensley et al.'s (2013) four questions to structure the data collection, with permission, the researcher relied on Roulston's (2010) interview framework, establishing probes based on Carless' (2005) PJ Fit, PO Fit, RJP, Hooker's (2000) selection steps, and survey responses.

As the response rates were low on the surveys—2.8% of the target population—and unanticipated challenges could not be overcome using Pearson's correlation, triangulation provided the opportunity to analyze data and respond to the two research questions in this study. The results provide evidence districts relied on THRM practices, showed some strategic practices, and did not have intentional and systematic SHRM leading to the development of principals to meet needs and contexts in a school and district. The results provide descriptive data relating to the HRM practices Oregon public schools use to recruit, select, and develop principals. Some contextual variables showed statistical significance with certain HRM practices, identifying relationships between context and HRM practices. Triangulation is a strength of qualitative case studies, according to Yin (2014) and Roulston (2010), which proved true as the results of the document analysis, interviews, and surveys produced triangulated evidence for the most frequent recruitment, selection, and development practice, leading to associations with district-contexts and needs which were explored in the discussion and recommendations for practices and future study in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Data Discussion and Conclusion

Introduction

A summary and discussion of the results of the document analysis, interviews, and self-report surveys, connecting the discussion to the research literature presented in Chapter 2, were included in Chapter 5. After presenting limitations in the study, the researcher identified implications for practices, suggested recommendations for future resources, and concluded the chapter.

Summary of the Results

The first research question queried what practices districts use to recruit principals. As an attribute of HRM, applicant recruitment produced substantial data during the study, providing insight into what practices districts use to recruit principals. Districts used a wide range of formats and content, with some districts employing marketing strategies, providing an RJP through brochures and additional web-based resources to attract applicants. Using Carless' (2005) PJ and PO Fit as a coding framework for document analysis of job postings, the variance between district practices was apparent.

Chapman et al. (2005) identified six factors influencing applicant attraction, which also guided coding and document analysis. The job descriptions inconsistently provided job and organizational characteristics. With the majority of the data in this study deriving from job postings and applicant recruitment, the results indicate a wide range of practices and a reliance on traditional approaches. This reliance caused job postings to lack information, contain elements, terms, descriptors, and requirements less relevant to the current educational climate. Strategic districts exhibited a congruency between the job posting, the context of the district and school, the OEL/AS, organizational management practices recommended by Clifford (2010) and Schmuck et al. (2012), and provided additional organizational information to attract applicants. Consistent

practices in applicant recruitment based on job descriptions were challenging to identify with approximately 25% or less of the participating districts exhibiting the factors needed for an applicant to form an RJP, depending on the factor. Some evidence of revision or updating was apparent in districts with postings for multiple schools, exhibiting evidence of at least an informal ONA as Clifford (2010) and Schmuck et al. (2012) recommended. An RJP could not have been formed if an applicant perceived mixed messages between responsibilities and duties, and a district may have been disappointed with the quality or capability of applicants. A conscientious and discerning applicant may have formed an incorrect RJP in comparing characteristics between job postings or may have passed on an application because of misinterpreting what a district was looking for in a cultural leader versus an educational leader.

The first research question also explored the practices districts use during candidate selection. The researcher derived data primarily from interviews but found evidence in job postings and the survey results as well. As such, candidate selection did not exhibit the same volume of data from sources. Case study design triangulation between document analysis, interviews, and surveys increased the data collected and allowed for observations on consistency and frequency in self-report, inquiry dialogue in the interviews, and job posting documents. Candidate selection associated with 34 sources and 551 codes as a result of triangulation, with emerging categories of applicant screening, selection practices, and selection assessments (see Table 22 in Appendix H22). The results identified a greater use of THRM practices when considering interviews as a traditional practice. Applicant screening exhibited some SHRM practices but remained mostly traditional. Interviews continued as the primary selection practice in principal HRM, but all districts identified additional selection activities to provide additional vantages to assess a candidate. Interview committee preparation differed greatly and did not completely satisfy concerns with subjectivity, bias, and consistency, which continue to challenge

the validity and reliability of the interview as a selection practice. Other frequently used practices related to review of the application packet contents, site visits, or stakeholder vetting.

The first research question also explored what practices districts use to develop principals, once hired, to be successful in the school and district-context. Principal development practices were the least productive HRM attribute in the study, identified in 57% of the sources with 140 frequency codes (see Table 31 in Appendix H31). The low response rate in the surveys and subsequent participating in interviews produced fewer results than the other HRM attributes. As interview participants noted, this area of HRM was still emerging as districts seek to improve support to building principals to be successful in specific contexts and responsive to needs. Development and growth and supervision and evaluation comprised principal development based on the conceptual framework, revealing participating districts saw a need to establish positive mentoring relationships between principals and district office administrators, using PLCs or coaching frameworks to explore problems of practice in the school, promoting growth in instructional leadership (see Table 31 in Appendix H31). Principal development exhibited the greatest variance in practice between participating districts and appeared to have the least consistency with existing leadership standards and state frameworks as districts have primarily focused on responding to teacher evaluation changes, according to interview participants.

The second research questions aimed to determine if HRM practices associated/related to district-contextual variables. Fifty-four percent of the HRM practices associated with at least one district-contextual variable. Sixty-seven percent of district-contextual variables associated/related to HRM practices highly or very highly. The results indicated the importance of district-context in relation to principal HRM stages. As specific leadership styles (collaborative, instructional, and educational) associated to contextual data, generalizations about what variables related to which style could inform recruiting and selection. The results should not be viewed as causal, as

Spearman's correlation test determines if a relationship exists, not whether the contextual variable causes the search for a specific leadership style (see Tables 32 and 33 in Appendix H32 and H33).

Discussion of the Results in Relation to the Literature

Discussion of the results in relation to the literature was organized by the conceptual framework stages of HRM: applicant recruitment, candidate selection, and principal development. The investigation of the two research questions revealed that while districts do use SHRM practices, traditional practices persisted.

Applicant Recruitment

Applicant recruitment. As the first stage in the hiring process, according to Klotz et al. (2013), applicant recruitment exhibited a variety of strategic and traditional practice results. Chapman et al.'s (2005) identified job and organizational characteristics as a key factor in applicant recruitment. Applicant attraction brackets organizational marketing and communication practices to publicize and attract qualified applicants with desired knowledge, skills, experiences, and characteristics. As an organizational characteristic, 4% of the sources did not evidence applicant attraction practices, such as limited marketing or lacking posting information applicants would need to know about the position and to form an RJP. The 4% lacking evidence represented small, rural district, possibly posting as required but already with a candidate in mind, lacking need or interest in attracting applicants. Phillips and Gully (2015) discussed how organizational recruiting strategies were affected by external factors (i.e., context). Perhaps the presence of an internal candidate in the small, rural district reflect concepts Wright et al. (2014) addressed in human capital pipelines, causing the district to meet minimal posting requirements for a position with a candidate already in mind.

The Internet and growth of web-based postings has made some of the recruitment practices Van de Water (1987) and Farr (2004) researched obsolete. Posting sites have increased districts'

abilities to post as well as centralized openings for prospective applicants. As web-based marketing strategies and source-creation through electronic HRM firms such as Schoolspring has become readily available, districts employed a variety of emerging practices to attract applicants. These practices were most common and well established in districts consistently hiring administrators. The change in electronic HRM was an example of an external factor influencing recruitment strategies (Phillips & Gully, 2015).

PJ Fit in applicant attraction. PJ Fit includes Chapman et al.'s (2005) job and organizational characteristics. Carless (2005) recommended job posting should provide applicants with enough information to self-assess their PJ Fit. Study results produced evidence of job and organizational characteristics in identifying responsibilities, duties, and characteristics. Applicants could determine organizational values through the sought attributes, which would aid in self-assessing PJ Fit. Kwan and Walker (2009) identified the mutual evaluation occurring during the recruitment stage. Based on the results, districts inconsistently provide necessary information for applicants to establish a PJ Fit. The inconsistencies suggested districts did not use strategic and systematic processes for recruitment as suggested by Clifford (2010) and Schmuck et al. (2013).

Leadership standards and characteristics in applicant attraction. According to Farr (2004), the job posting should develop from leadership standards and research-based characteristics. None of the postings or interviews produced evidence of this strategic practice, and document analysis of job descriptions revealed inconsistent or absent congruency with the OEL/AS. Lacking evidence of OEL/AS in the first stage of HRM, no districts met the parameters of the conceptual framework. Applicant characteristics, responsibilities, duties, and skills evidenced in the document analysis reflected school and district needs. The evidence from these attributes also reflected educational trends and research-based practices relating to instructional leadership (Cotton, 2003; Marzano et al., 2005; McEwan, 2003; Waters and Marzano, 2006).

Van de Water (1987) investigated practices to attract historically under-represented minorities in the principalship, and the inclusion of this question in the survey triangulated with evidence from the job postings, interviews, and district demographic data. City: large districts have a greater ethnic, linguistic, and special population diversity, which were reflected in the job posting descriptors of bilingual, bicultural, cultural leader, cultural responsive practices, and equity in the OEL/AS. As the Spearman correlation in this study revealed, a very high statistical significance associated a greater discipline frequency with ethnicity ($r_s=0.805$, $p=.0005$), percentage of ELL students ($r_s=0.759$, $p=.0005$), and number of languages spoken ($r_s=0.821$, $p=.0005$). Such district variables represent high needs and high contexts, which attract administrators with specific knowledge, skills, experiences, and interests. If a district does not clearly communicate these contextual variables, applicants would not form a realistic RJP, and trust between the district and applicant could be compromised, leading to a poor selection pool or finalists without the knowledge, skills, experiences, and characteristics necessary to be successful in a high context school (Klotz et al. 2013; Clifford, 2010; Maurer & Cook, 2011).

Pijanowski and Brady (2009) established a relationship between experience and district needs and context. Phillips and Gully (2015) and Schmuck et al. (2012) recommended ONA to assess needs and collect stakeholders' input as a strategic recruitment practice. Most job postings did not reflect clear evidence of a systematic process to determine need and interest. Job postings and interviews established experience as a highly desired trait in applicant recruitment. Depending on the locale, experience could be defined as teaching or administrative, showing how the shortage was affecting areas outside cities and urban areas. As contexts change and principals are expected to lead and manage more with fewer resources, more administrators may decide to retire or leave education. Vacancies intensify the shortage as fewer educators pursue administrative certification

and principal positions. Experience either will become a coveted commodity, or be relegated to a desired quality rather than a required qualification.

Pijanowski and Brady (2009) and Hill (2009) found the following applicant characteristics related to district-context: effective, experienced, successful, strong, instructional leader, communicator, educational leader, decision-maker, excellent, collaborative leader, and ability to form and sustain positive relations. Each of these characteristics related to one or more district-contextual variable. Characteristics drawn from job descriptions aligned with Whitaker (2003) and Maurer and Cook (2011), as did duties, responsibilities, and skills. The plethora of characteristics and desired qualities found in this study was less a product of strategic applicant recruitment. The study results revealed districts do not appear to update these descriptive statements based on organizational needs.

PO Fit in applicant attraction. PO Fit relies on districts publishing needed and relevant information (Carless, 2005). As seen in Table 21, postings lacked relevant information (see Appendix H21). Applicants could form impressions of the district through Carless' (2005) PO Fit. Rouen's (2011) cultural fit could be applied as an applicant considered posting information to determine PO Fit. Through assessing cultural fit, an applicant would consider what qualities an organization sought, and if districts did not update the descriptors and statements, a false image of organizational culture and value would be presented. As districts, state and federal agencies, and many other sources make contextual data available, applicants could have used web resources to determine culture, climate, philosophies, performance, and areas for growth. Each could have played into an applicant creating a RJP

Research literature identified SHRM practices for applicant recruitment including a timeline, the range of recruitment, and marketing mediums and strategies to attract applicants who fit the job description (Anderson, 1991; Carless, 2005, Clifford, 2010; Gully et al., 2014; Maurer &

Cook, 2011; Phillips & Gully, 2015). Timelines for the hiring process were often incomplete, leaving a critical piece of information for applicants out of the process. Recruitment strategies and mediums relied primarily on posting services (e.g. Schoolspring) or professional organizations (COSA). Only one district identified job fairs higher education programs as additional mediums for applicant recruitment, so it appears e-recruiting and word of mouth were the primary marketing mediums as suggested in research literature (Farr, 2004; Shen et al., 1999). Results did show a few districts using additional marketing strategies such as brochures and web-based content for additional district and community information. E-recruiting proved a useful tool for rural districts, enabling many districts to publicize a position through a search firm or their own efforts, but potentially increasing unqualified applications (Maurer & Cook, 2011).

Realistic Job Posting (RJP) in applicant attraction. PJ and PO Fit are the two factors in establishing an RJP (Carless, 2005). PO Fit, as a reflection of organizational characteristics and practices, lacked evidence in the results of consistent content and structure in postings. The diversity in job posting structure and content in this study would have made job, district, and school comparisons challenging. A discerning applicant would not have been easily able to form an RJP from many of the job postings collected in this study. Applying Carless' (2005) PJ and PO Fit and Kwan and Walker's (2009) research into job satisfaction and effectiveness, an RJP must clearly communicate the district and school context and needs to improve attracting qualified and legitimate applicants. The content was as important to RJP as was the structure, and many districts lacked critical information such as compensation and incentivizing or who a finalist would report to in the organizational hierarchy. Understanding who a finalist would work with and where he or she would be in the organizational hierarchy would be a significant factor in forming an RJP. Beyond supervision and evaluation, Gully et al. (2013) and Whitaker (2003) identified the significance of compensation and incentivizing in application attraction, which was apparent in job

descriptions, but inconsistent in clarity of packages or salaries. If applicants cannot determine fit from these statements, they would not form an RJP and districts would have been left with an applicant pool not aligned to desired knowledge, skills, experience, and values (Clifford, 2010; Klotz et al., 2013; Maurer & Cook, 2011)

Candidate Selection

Candidate selection is the second stage of the hiring process (Anderson, 1991; Carless, 2005). Some research-literature did not differentiate between recruitment and selection as separate stages, instead combining practices of each into one stage of selection (Spanneut, 2007).

Candidate selection results reflected Baehr's (1987) traditional selection objectives were common practice. Although results suggested some districts were using strategic selection practices, Hargreaves' (2009), NASSP's (2001), and Rammer's (2007) recommendation for establishing GYOP and changing the way administrators were hired appeared to be largely disregarded.

Applicant screening in candidate selection. Hooker (2000) established six screening and selection criteria: administrative experience, experience characteristics, organization skills, people skills, ability to join and work on a team, and ability to gain support from stakeholders. Clifford (2010) recommended pre-screening systems, committee roles and guidelines, systematic interviewing processes, and vetting activities as SHRM practices a district should use to select a quality principal. Spanneut (2007) also recommended pre-screening. The researcher used each of Hooker's (2000) and Clifford's (2010) criteria and recommendations as variables in Spearman's correlation test to determine if recruitment and selection practices associated with district demographic variables. The results indicate districts continue to rely on traditional practices and often lack systematic processes to improve the quality of candidates in the selection stage. Although results evidenced the use of screening forms, these were not aligned to standards and or an ONA, question effectiveness of existing screening practices (Clifford, 2010, Farr, 2004).

Selection practices in candidate selection. Selection practices reflect a variety of suggestions for researchers. Farr (2004) encouraged using standards and leadership characteristics to frame and guide selection practices. The OEL/AS were not consistently reflected in HRM practices in participating districts. OEL/AS and the percentage of the standards reflected in HRM practices associated to district demographic variables as Pijanowski and Brady (2009) asserted. As the OEL/AS were newly adopted and districts have focused on implementing new licensed evaluation systems to meet state and federal guidelines, opportunities to update principal HRM processes exist, beginning with job posting revisions that lead to strategic selection practices.

Spanneut (2007) and Hassenpflug (2013) encouraged training hiring committees before beginning interviews, but only one district specifically discussed systematic steps related to the practice. Clifford (2010) encouraged a systematic training of hiring committees as well. Other research literature provided evidence of practices marginally reflected in the results (Ash et al., 2013; Clifford, 2010; Palmer, 2014; Rammer, 2007). Although districts exhibited use of more than just the interview as a selection practice, the results did not determine the extent to which the practices were strategically designed and employed in HRM. Developing a practical system and resources for convening a committee, establishing roles and responsibilities, and training would improve organizational capacity, stakeholder engagement, and finalist quality.

The interview remained the dominant selection practice in the study results; however, additional strategic and traditional practices emerged and provided districts with a more complete evaluation of a candidate's knowledge, skills, experiences, and attributes. Kwan and Walker (2009) identified SHRM interview practices, including the use of a writing sample to assess a candidate's written communication and thinking processes. Writing samples as screening tool appeared in the results as used in 50% of the job postings and 40% of the surveys. As part of the selection process, writing samples appeared substantially less as an on-demand tasks, whereas

presentation was not evident in any of the results. Results included evidence of additional selection practices such as site visits and parent nights. Districts would benefit from developing a systematic selection process, providing multiple opportunities for candidates to demonstrate what they know and can do to a variety of stakeholders.

Interview and assessment practices in candidate selection. Developing interview questions based on standards and characteristics affecting student learning was a recommended practice in research literature that did not appear in the results (Ash et al, 2013; Farr, 2004). Some districts did identify seeking input from stakeholders to improve the quality of interview questions, but the results did not reveal a use of standards or specific research-based characteristics.

As a part of SHRM, districts would benefit from developing questions based off a strategic ONA, leadership standards, and research-based characteristics. After the interview, research-literature championed site visits, additional interviews, and reference and background checks as key vetting practices in candidate assessment (Clifford, 2010; Elmore & Burney, 2000; Klotz et al., 2013; Palmer, 2014; Spanneut, 2007). Reference and background checks were evidenced in the results in requesting letters of recommendation and through interview discussion. As a part of a SHRM process, the checks should be strategic and intentional to assess candidates accurately (Palmer & Mullooly, 2015). Site visits and follow-up interviews, as portrayed in the results, provided selection committee representatives and opportunity to determine if candidates' practices were congruent with their interview and documents, including further exploration of characteristics or interactions assessed against pre-determined criteria, which was not clearly identified in the study (Klotz et al., 2013; Spanneut, 2007).

Principal Development.

Following the conclusion of the selection phase, a finalist accepts a position and enters a principalship. At this point, THRM moves into supervision and evaluation, discrete from the first

two stages. As results provided no evidence of a systematic approach to using the information gleaned in the recruitment and selection stages to inform principal development, districts could most benefit from developing practices to identify areas of strength and areas for growth during the selection process and communicate to finalists through a professional growth plan. Minimal evidence of growth and development emerged from job descriptions, with inferential coding attributing incentives for professional growth or advanced course work as reflective of a districts' support in this area. As interview results revealed different models for coaching, mentorship, or collaborative learning with principal colleagues through PLTs, research literature provided a variety of support models and resources examples at local, state, and national levels (Anderson, 1991; Baehr, 1987; Barker, 1997; Chatzimouratidi et al., 2012; Elmore & Burney, 2000; Fink & Resnick, 2001; Harper, 2009; Honig & Copland, 2008; Honig, 2012; Huff et al., 2013; Lewis, 2008; Whitaker, 2003). With different models to select and implement in principal development, districts would benefit from strategically designing support systems to improve organizational capacity and a principal's likelihood of success in a position. The only example of formalized mentorship model existed in a rural area according to the document analysis, where size and locale of districts causes isolation more so than urban areas where the proximity to other districts, larger administrative groups in district, and access to professional networking and higher education provide support opportunities. Just as this example grew out of necessity in those participating districts needing to support each other, larger and more urban districts would benefit from improving their own principal development academies or systems as well. Growth and development results indicated districts understand the importance of supporting principals in their roles but recognize the limitations of this support based on the available resources and district administrative capacity.

District office administrators must have the capacity to support and develop principals as effective managers and instructional leaders. Garofalo (2015), Hill (2009), and Honig and Copland (2008) studied capacity building through PLCs, leadership academies, or internal programs to develop existing administrators and support a succession plan. As a participant in the interviews discussed, shared learning through principal PLCs or coaching/mentorship would be only as effective as the administrators leading the growth opportunities,. Huff et al. (2013) explored the relationship between principals and coaches and based on findings, recommended growth-minded coaches to promote instructional leadership growth as an alternative to traditional, authority-based supervision and evaluation model.

Ongoing tension between principals' instructional and management responsibilities and expectations continue to cause role confusion. Honig (2012) studied urban principals and roles and increasing management responsibilities, arguing principals must find ways to build school staff capacity to handle management tasks and shift focus solely to instructional leadership. The demands placed on principals to manage a multitude of systems in schools as well as provide instructional leadership were clear in the variety of characteristics, knowledge, skills, and experiences found in the data collection. Shared leadership in schools engages staff and strengthens the organization in distributing the responsibilities and decision-making. Principals who are able to build capacity through professional growth, cultivate licensed and certified staff abilities to assume managerial tasks (e.g. facilities, grounds, and clerical tasks).

Supervision and evaluation rarely emerged in data collection, likely a result of the recent advent of the OEL/AS and focus on teacher evaluation changes. Research literature encouraged evaluators to return to the standards, characteristics, and ONA used in the first stage of principal HRM (Clifford, 2010; Hargreaves, 2009; Hill, 2009; Spanneut, 2007). As Honig (2012) and Palmer and Mullooly (2015) explained, the supervisory role is positional authority based. Not

only does the relationship assume the evaluator's capacity to evaluate principals consistently and appropriately, the assumption could be that the evaluation process would be for growth and not for punitive measures. Unfortunately, supervision and evaluation often does not align with growth and development because of the power differential as Huff et al. (2013) asserted. Districts would benefit from systematically developing a SHRM model with growth and development informed by the entire hiring process and through at least the probationary period (typically the first three years of the principal's employment?).

As administrators continue to retire or leave education, succession and retention plans should be important for districts to consider. Marks (2013) asserted succession and retention plans are effective, especially in lean qualified applicant pools. Despite survey responses claiming GYOP or internal human capital pipelines, limited evidence of formalized, systematic, and intentional practices were evidence in the data collected. Establishing human capital pipelines both within the organization through GYOP as well as through partnerships with administrative certification programs and higher education institutes would proactively position districts to respond to attrition and administrative applicant shortages (Brymer et al., 2014; Wright et al., 2014).

Limitations

The greatest limitation recognized in this study was response rates for surveys. Several factors contributed to the limitation timing and sample size. IRB approval for this study was delayed as a result of a severe winter, creating a backlog in workflow as local schools and universities shut down for up to two weeks. Due to this, IRB approval was not received until right before the statewide job fair. Consequently, the researcher delayed sending the survey to district office administrators until one week after the statewide job fair. Each year, the job fair is highly attended by districts from around the state, neighboring states, international schools, and other

states experiencing shortages. Hundreds of administrative, licensed, and classified staff meet with prospective employers, leave resumes, participate in interviews, and in some instances, are offered positions or tentative contracts. As a result, the weeks following a job fair create substantial work and effort for district administrators and human resource staff. Another timing limitation related to the financial climate in the state in 2016–17. The Oregon legislators did not approve the budget until late in the spring; human resource staff had additional duties to anticipate potential reductions in force (RIF) for administrative, licensed, and classified staff. The possibility of a RIF delayed some districts in hiring, adding additional work in a short timeframe at the end of the year. If the study were replicated, considerations for timing of the data collection, both surveys and interviews, should be made to avoid spring and fall when human resource staff is at the peak of workflow.

Even though the study relied on qualitative case study to triangulate results to describe the current principal HRM practices, sampling limited the study as only 182 of the 197 districts met the study target criteria, and only four districts participated in the interview and the survey. Expanding the study to include additional states, private districts, and charter schools would aid in increasing the sample size. As explained relating to timing, recruiting interview participants was also challenging. The participants represented interested administrators who voluntarily pursued the study due to interest in the topic and practices. The limitation of the small sample size could have influenced results of practices districts used to recruit, select, and develop principals. Constrained by the timeframe for the study and program completion, additional participant recruitment and data collection was not possible.

Analysis of PJ and PO Fit was limited in the study to the perceptions of organizational representatives. If acting principals who participated in a district's hiring process and were in the principal development stage were included in the study, additional data collection through interviews and surveys would need to be conducted to document their perceptions throughout the

recruitment, selection, and development stages. Seawell (2015) explored potential applicants' responses to job postings and descriptions, and adding a similar data collection source would improve the quality and validity of the case study in regards to fit.

The survey the researcher used in the study used questions from Van de Water (1988) and Farr (2004), who each performed validity testing and distributed hardcopies to participants by mail. Van de Water's (1988) survey is included in Appendix F, and Farr's (2004) survey is included in Appendix G. The researcher selected specific survey questions aligned with the research literature and the conceptual framework of this study. The selected questions measured the intended context, needs, and practices district may use to recruit, select, and develop principals. Due to the constraints in this study, the researcher did not conduct a pilot study for the reconfigured survey.

Implications of the Results for Practice

Applicant recruitment. As the student population continues to change and shift in Oregon, administrators will need to respond to variables previously challenges in urban areas. Leading equity work will challenge administrators to change their own perspectives and beliefs in some situations, but also will challenge power structures and institutional racism and oppression. Historically under-represented populations range from ethnicity to gender. As Oregon did not exhibit a diverse population, especially in rural and small districts, recruiting applicant's representative of community contexts may require efforts to expand to other states with high populations of minority candidates.

Developing human capital pipelines to recruit minority students in public school to enter into education would benefit classrooms. Increasing the representation of minority educators to respond to district and school contexts and needs would require districts to develop systematic and intentional GYOP or leadership academies to groom and grow future administrators. By building

organizational leadership capacity and increasing applicant pools that can meet stakeholders' interests and needs, family and community engagement, and relationships would improve within districts.

As study results showed, districts share information with applicants inconsistently, human resources directors and staff could benefit greatly from identifying critical information recommended in research-literature. Drawing on evidence of successful marketing strategies, districts could improve the quality of content and structure as well as enhance the attractiveness and trust in the recruitment. Improving job posting would be very significant for applicant attraction if districts begin to recruit heavily outside of the state, where applicants would have less local knowledge or access to information about a school or district. Although research suggested salary was not necessarily as influential a factor in teachers seeking to enter administration, districts included salary information more than any other applicant attraction attribute. Districts may need to seek out additional motivators and consider interests potential applicants may have in order to leverage those in job postings. Districts must improve applicant recruitment in the areas of PJ and PO Fit so applicants can form an RJP. If districts intend to combat the teacher-reticence to pursue administration, additional effort to reduce barriers and detractors must occur by ensuring job postings are updated and accurate.

As national leadership standards continue to evolve and influence changes at the state level, districts would benefit from using the standards to update requirements and desired attributes to improve an applicant's ability to assess PJ and PO Fit. Updating these postings based on an ONA, as Clifford (2010) and Schmuck et al. (2012) recommended, would aid in increasing stakeholder's perception of fit, as each of the applicant recruitment attributes are a two-way evaluation (Kwan & Walker, 2009). Human resource directors would benefit from collaboration and consultation with web-based postings to improve the structure of postings to communicate better with applicants.

Candidate selection. Candidate selection continues to rely on many traditional practices. Although the interview has potential to be a powerfully informative practice, districts should continue to develop strategic methods of assessing candidates. Intentionally designing selection practices could build organizational capacity through committee training and involvement in leadership selection, reducing bias and reliance of traditional subjective judgments based on fit or feel, and gathering selection data from multiple sources and events to capture a holistic perspective of a candidate's knowledge, skills, experience, and attributes.

Using the information collected from an ONA and standards-based job description, selection would improve in a systematic alignment of human resource practices focused on a specific outcome—the candidate who best meets the established criteria to be successful in the school and district-contexts. Ensuring alignment between characteristics sought in applicant recruitment are congruent with the characteristics sought in selection maintains consistency with research and organizational values.

Districts do not need to abandon traditional selection practices, but providing training opportunities for human resource staff to understand how to align the practices systematically as part of SHRM model would improve the quality of applicants and candidates. As organizational capacity and knowledge grows in regards to establishing principal HRM, additional innovation and improvements may emerge. Such changes and adaptations would serve as improvements and branch out into other areas of the organization, supporting leadership growth and development in potential leaders.

Principal development. As evidenced in research literature and the study results, the tension between principals as managers and as instructional leaders persists. Based on the wealth of characteristics, responsibilities, skills, and duties in the job postings and interviews, a principal who can accomplish all of the attributes was unlikely. Districts would benefit from organizational

assessment and job description revisions to clarify a principal's primary function and supporting functions. These revisions may need to occur down the organizational chart, clarifying management tasks an assistant principal, secretaries, counselors, teachers, etc., should be responsible for to ensure the principal has the ability to perform the instructional leadership duties. Regardless of how good of an instructional leader a principal may be, if the system bogs the principal down in operational, personnel, or student management, the district may unfairly believe the principal did not project a true perspective of ability and skills. Districts would benefit from ensuring a focused job description clearly outlines expectations so applicants can assess fit based on their perception of potential success. Then as districts move through hiring and development, areas for growth to fill in the gaps would be apparent and openly acknowledged rather than a surprise and lead to mistrust.

Principal development offers the greatest opportunity for improvement in HRM. As the study revealed disconnect between the first two stages and this stage, districts would benefit from establishing a framework for evaluation of applicants and candidates based on OEL/AS. Reducing isolation and attrition, building district office administrative capacity to mentor, coach, supervise, and evaluate principals with the goal of growth and development would improve PO Fit, trust, job satisfaction, and organizational communication.

Districts may need to pursue training of district office and building level administrators on a specific growth model to reduce misunderstanding or fear. Just as relationships are critical between a principal, staff, students, parents, and community, the relationship between principal and district office must be based on support and trust (Huff et al., 2013). Establishing a framework may address attrition factors, but it may also provide acculturation and transition plans for new leadership to emerge and assume principalships in a system working to support and ensure success of all.

As part of a communication loop, districts would benefit from involving principals in GYOP to provide perspective, mentoring, and coaching to aspiring administrators. Working closely with teacher-leaders, administrators may discover additional support and improvement as instructional leaders, finding better ways to engage with teachers and students in classrooms through distribution of management tasks. Principals would establish relationships with prospective assistant principals, building future administrative teams. As rural and small district may not have the capacity for these activities, partnerships with local districts would lead to regional collaboration and better support.

Recommendations for Further Research

Applicant recruitment. If districts intend to combat the teacher-reticence to pursue administration, additional study into the barriers, detractors, etc. would improve districts' potential in understanding how to update job postings, descriptions, and marketing strategies to attract qualified applicants. A wealth of research exists in private sector, psychology, and sociology; further study of applicant recruitment in education would benefit this stage of HRM.

To determine PJ and PO Fit as well as RJP, additional research involving administrators who apply for principalships (experienced and inexperienced) would aid in understanding both the district and the applicant's perspectives through these frameworks. Such research would benefit districts' abilities to adjust recruitment strategies and mediums to build qualified applicant pools, trust, satisfaction, and success. The significant relationship between SBA Math Performance percentage of students meeting or exceeding associates/relates to posting recruitment for minority candidates or with experience would be an opportunity for further study as to why the relationship between higher performing districts and seeking minority and experienced candidates exists.

Candidate selection. Developing a specific instrument for assessing all candidate selection, assessment, and interview practices would benefit the field in knowing strengths and

areas for growth in principal HRM. Comparing these results nationally, between public and private schools, or between national and international schools would benefit the field in a broader understanding of how to select candidates effectively.

Further research of recruitment characteristics, responsibilities, duties, and skills and selection practices and assessments would benefit education in ensuring congruency between objectives, practice, and assessment. It was not known how a candidate perceives selection practices and process in the principal hiring process. Such knowledge would benefit districts in understanding how to establish effective and efficient selection systems but also promote organizational trust with candidates.

Principal development. As the OEL/AS were still new, additional research into the effectiveness of these standards in coaching and evaluative support would provide a better understanding of how the standards promote educational leadership. District administrator capacity to serve in coaching and evaluative roles with the standards was another area for further research to provide effective models and framework that promote growth and development. Investigating principal's satisfaction with growth and development verses supervision and evaluation was not known in relation to the OEL/AS and district professional growth plans.

Conclusion

The first research question in this study explored what practices districts used to recruit principals. Principal recruitment exhibited new practices as a result of e-recruiting, but maintained many traditional practices, leading to miscommunication, absent information applicants need, and an inability for an applicant to establish a PJ or PO Fit to form an RJP. Districts using strategic recruiting practices did so in response to contextual variables and needs in the district, school, or community.

The first research question also explored what practices districts used to select principals. Some continuity with recruitment was evident in the results, but districts mainly used traditional practices. What strategic practices were employed met needs within the school, district, or community but were not systematically assessed against predetermined standards based criteria. Although the interview remained the most common selection practice, all participants provided examples of other practices used to gain a broader perspective of the candidate. Many of the recommended strategies from the research literature appeared in district practices, but significant variation persisted between districts.

The first research question additionally explored what practices districts used to develop principals. No districts cited examples of a systematic SHRM process connecting all three phases through leadership standards and characteristics to promote professional development and growth. Although each participating district provided specific examples of research-based frameworks and practices to support building principals in their roles as instructional leaders, the recruitment and selection phases did not intentionally inform the plan. Principal development was the stage with the most potential for growth in the field of education.

The second research question explored if district-contextual variables associated/related to practices to recruit, select, and develop principals. Although Pearson's Partial Correlation failed to produce results as the data failed to pass assumption tests, Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation provide evidence of relationships between principal HRM practices and district-contextual variables. Size appeared to have a greater impact on what practices a district used than locale did.

The findings of this study suggest while districts use SHRM practices in principal recruitment, selection, and development, the practices often lacked consistency or a systematic framework based on research best practices and were not connected with OEL/AS. Many factors and variables complicated principal HRM and challenged districts to adapt traditional practices to

meet emerging needs. Staffing reductions, increased accountability for district office personnel, changing federal and state policies and regulations, and less administrative mobility affect a district's ability or need to adapt principal HRM practices. As policy changes continue to trickle down to local levels, certain requirements—such as mandatory and thorough background checks—will change some practices. While student demographics continue the shift and change ethnic, linguistic, socio-economic, and social-emotional diversity in communities and schools, districts may need to be prepared to revamp recruitment past practices to meet emerging stakeholder needs to hire and develop principals who have the experience, understanding, and responsiveness to the needs.

Due to the limitations in sample size and time constraints, this study describes the perspectives of the four districts who participated in the survey and the interview, analyzing associations and relationships in district-contextual variables in these districts with the document analysis of principal job postings and associated contextual variables in the other districts. As a result of the study, districts would benefit from completing an organizational assessment of principal HRM practices, aligning research and OEL/AS to recruit, select, and develop effective instructional leaders. Recommendations for further research were based on broadening the scope of the project to determine HRM practices and improve districts' understandings of internal processes as well as considerations relating to applicant attraction, candidate selection, and principal development.

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Appendix A: Statement of Original Work

The Concordia University Doctorate of Education Program is a collaborative community of scholar-practitioners, who seek to transform society by pursuing ethically-informed, rigorously- researched, inquiry-based projects that benefit professional, institutional, and local educational contexts. Each member of the community affirms throughout their program of study, adherence to the principles and standards outlined in the Concordia University Academic Integrity Policy. This policy states the following:

Statement of academic integrity.

As a member of the Concordia University community, I will neither engage in fraudulent or unauthorized behaviors in the presentation and completion of my work, nor will I provide unauthorized assistance to others.

Explanations:

What does “fraudulent” mean?

“Fraudulent” work is any material submitted for evaluation that is falsely or improperly presented as one’s own. This includes, but is not limited to texts, graphics and other multi-media files appropriated from any source, including another individual, that are intentionally presented as all or part of a candidate’s final work without full and complete documentation.

What is “unauthorized” assistance?

“Unauthorized assistance” refers to any support candidates solicit in the completion of their work, that has not been either explicitly specified as appropriate by the instructor, or any assistance that is understood in the class context as inappropriate. This can include, but is not limited to:

- Use of unauthorized notes or another’s work during an online test
- Use of unauthorized notes or personal assistance in an online exam setting
- Inappropriate collaboration in preparation and/or completion of a project
- Unauthorized solicitation of professional resources for the completion of the work.

Statement of Original Work

I attest that:

1. I have read, understood, and complied with all aspects of the Concordia University- Portland Academic Integrity Policy during the development and writing of this dissertation.
2. Where information and/or materials from outside sources has been used in the production of this dissertation, all information and/or materials from outside sources has been properly referenced and all permissions required for use of the information and/or materials have been obtained, in accordance with research standards outlined in the *Publication Manual of The American Psychological Association*

DAVID ATHERTON

Digital Signature

David Atherton

Name (Typed)

July 6, 2017

Date

Appendix B: Self-Report Survey

The following survey was developed by combining Farr's (2004) and Van de Winter's (1987) instruments for recruitment and selection. Each has granted to use and modify surveys, and a consultant panel will provide feedback to address credibility, relevance, and reliability.

Q1.1

Research Study Title:	Principal Human Resource Management
Principal Investigator:	David Atherton
Research Institution:	Concordia University
Faculty Advisor:	Connie Greiner, Ed.D.

Purpose and what you will be doing: The purpose of this survey is to collect data on current principal recruitment, selection, and development practices Oregon public school districts use. We expect approximately 130 volunteers to meet statistical significance of the 197 Oregon public school districts. No one will be paid to be in the study. We will begin enrollment on April 8, 2017 and end enrollment on April 23, 2017. To be in the study, you will complete a 25 item self-report survey. The items are either selection(s) from a list or multiple-choice (e.g. Yes, No, Somewhat). Certain items also have additional entry options for "other" to gather additional practices not listed. The survey should take less than 30 minutes to complete.

Risks: There are no risks to participating in this study other than providing your information. However, we will protect your information. Any personal information you provide will be coded so it cannot be linked to you. Any name or identifying information you give will be kept securely via electronic encryption. When we or any of our investigators look at the data, none of the data will have your name or identifying information. We will only use the district code to analyze the data. We will not identify you or specific districts in any publication or report. Your information will be kept private at all times and then all study documents will be destroyed 3 years after we conclude this study.

Benefits: Information you provide will help identify what practices are used in Oregon to recruit, select, and develop principals. Additionally, relationships between district demographics (e.g. size, locale, student populations, etc.) may lead to generalizations about effective practices and promote critical change to respond to school, district, and community contexts and needs when hiring a principal. You could benefit this by contributing to data collection of Oregon principal human resource management practices and determining how your district and school context may relate to and influence your practices, resulting in better strategic recruitment, selection, and development.

Confidentiality: This information will not be distributed to any other agency and will be kept private and confidential. The only exception to this is if you tell us abuse or neglect that makes us seriously concerned for your immediate health and safety.

Right to Withdraw: Your participation is greatly appreciated, but we acknowledge that the questions we are asking are personal in nature. You are free at any point to choose not to engage with or stop the study. You may skip any questions you do not wish to answer. This study is not required and there is no penalty for not participating. If at any time you experience a negative emotion from answering the questions, we will stop asking you questions.

Contact Information: You will receive a copy of this consent form. If you have questions you can talk to or write the principal investigator, David Atherton at [Researcher email redacted]. If you want to talk with a participant advocate other than the investigator, you can write or call the director of our institutional review board, Dr. OraLee Branch (email obranch@cu-portland.edu or call 503-493-6390).

Your Statement of Consent: I have read the above information. I asked questions if I had them, and my questions were answered. I volunteer my consent for this study.

Participant Name: _____

Date: _____

Participant Signature: _____

Investigator Name: David Atherton

Date _____

Investigator Signature: _____

Investigator: David Atherton email: [Researcher email redacted] c/o: Professor Connie Greiner, Ed.D. Concordia University–Portland, 2811 NE Holman Street Portland, Oregon 97221

- ☐ Yes, I have read and consent.
- ☐ No, I do not consent.

Q2.1 Please select the district you are responding for in this survey.

- ☐ ADEL SD 21
- ☐ ADRIAN SD 61
- ☐ ALSEA SD 7J
- ☐ AMITY SD 4J
- ☐ ANNEX SD 29
- ☐ ARLINGTON SD 3
- ☐ AROCK SD 81
- ☐ ASHLAND SD 5
- ☐ ASHWOOD SD 8
- ☐ ASTORIA SD 1
- ☐ ATHENA-WESTON SD 29RJ

- BAKER SD 5J
- BANDON SD 54
- BANKS SD 13
- BEAVERTON SD 48J
- BETHEL SD 52
- BLACHLY SD 90
- BLACK BUTTE SD 41
- BROOKINGS-HARBOR SD 17C
- BURNT RIVER SD 30J
- BUTTE FALLS SD 91
- CAMAS VALLEY SD 21J
- CANBY SD 86
- CASCADE SD 5
- CENTENNIAL SD 28J
- CENTRAL CURRY SD 1
- CENTRAL LINN SD 552
- CENTRAL POINT SD 6
- CENTRAL SD 13J
- CLATSKANIE SD 6J
- COLTON SD 53
- CONDON SD 25J
- COOS BAY SD 9
- COQUILLE SD 8
- CORBETT SD 39
- CORVALLIS SD 509J
- COVE SD 15
- CRESWELL SD 40
- CROOK COUNTY SD
- CROW-APPLEGATE-LORANE SD 66
- CULVER SD 4
- DALLAS SD 2
- DAVID DOUGLAS SD 40
- DAYTON SD 8
- DAYVILLE SD 16J
- DIAMOND SD 7
- DOUBLE O SD 28
- DOUGLAS COUNTY SD 15
- DOUGLAS COUNTY SD 4
- DREWSEY SD 13
- DUFUR SD 29

- EAGLE POINT SD 9
- ECHO SD 5
- ELGIN SD 23
- ELKTON SD 34
- ENTERPRISE SD 21
- ESTACADA SD 108
- EUGENE SD 4J
- FALLS CITY SD 57
- FERN RIDGE SD 28J
- FOREST GROVE SD 15
- FOSSIL SD 21J
- FRENCHGLEN SD 16
- GASTON SD 511J
- GERVAIS SD 1
- GLADSTONE SD 115
- GLENDALE SD 77
- GLIDE SD 12
- GRANTS PASS SD 7
- GREATER ALBANY PUBLIC SD 8J
- GRESHAM-BARLOW SD 10J
- HARNEY COUNTY SD 3
- HARNEY COUNTY SD 4
- HARNEY COUNTY UNION HIGH SD 1J
- HARPER SD 66
- HARRISBURG SD 7J
- HELIX SD 1
- HERMISTON SD 8
- HILLSBORO SD 1J
- HOOD RIVER COUNTY SD
- HUNTINGTON SD 16J
- IMBLER SD 11
- IONE SD R2
- JEFFERSON COUNTY SD 509J
- JEFFERSON SD 14J
- JEWELL SD 8
- JOHN DAY SD 3
- JORDAN VALLEY SD 3
- JOSEPH SD 6
- JUNCTION CITY SD 69
- JUNTURA SD 12

- KLAMATH COUNTY SD
- KLAMATH FALLS CITY SCHOOLS
- KNAPPA SD 4
- LA GRANDE SD 1
- LAKE COUNTY SD 7
- LAKE OSWEGO SD 7J
- LEBANON COMMUNITY SD 9
- LINCOLN COUNTY SD
- LONG CREEK SD 17
- LOWELL SD 71
- MALHEUR COUNTY SD 51
- MAPLETON SD 32
- MARCOLA SD 79J
- MCKENZIE SD 68
- MCMINNVILLE SD 40
- MEDFORD SD 549C
- MILTON-FREEWATER UNIFIED SD 7
- MITCHELL SD 55
- MOLALLA RIVER SD 35
- MONROE SD 1J
- MONUMENT SD 8
- MORROW SD 1
- MT ANGEL SD 91
- MYRTLE POINT SD 41
- NEAH-KAH-NIE SD 56
- NESTUCCA VALLEY SD 101J
- NEWBERG SD 29J
- NORTH BEND SD 13
- NORTH CLACKAMAS SD 12
- NORTH DOUGLAS SD 22
- NORTH LAKE SD 14
- NORTH MARION SD 15
- NORTH POWDER SD 8J
- NORTH SANTIAM SD 29J
- NORTH WASCO COUNTY SD 21
- NYSSA SD 26
- OAKLAND SD 1
- OAKRIDGE SD 76
- ONTARIO SD 8C
- OREGON CITY SD 62

- OREGON TRAIL SD 46
- PAISLEY SD 11
- PARKROSE SD 3
- PENDLETON SD 16
- PERRYDALE SD 21
- PHILOMATH SD 17J
- PHOENIX-TALENT SD 4
- PILOT ROCK SD 2
- PINE CREEK SD 5
- PINE EAGLE SD 61
- PINEHURST SD 94
- PLEASANT HILL SD 1
- PLUSH SD 18
- PORT ORFORD-LANGLOIS SD 2CJ
- PORTLAND SD 1J
- POWERS SD 31
- PRAIRIE CITY SD 4
- PROSPECT SD 59
- RAINIER SD 13
- REDMOND SD 2J
- REEDSPORT SD 105
- REYNOLDS SD 7
- RIDDLE SD 70
- RIVERDALE SD 51J
- ROGUE RIVER SD 35
- SALEM-KEIZER SD 24J
- SANTIAM CANYON SD 129J
- SCAPPOOSE SD 1J
- SCIO SD 95

- SD 1
- SEASIDE SD 10
- SHERIDAN SD 48J
- SHERMAN COUNTY SD
- SHERWOOD SD 88J
- SILVER FALLS SD 4J
- SISTERS SD 6
- SIUSLAW SD 97J
- SOUTH HARNEY SD 33
- SOUTH LANE SD 45J3
- SOUTH UMPQUA SD 19
- SOUTH WASCO COUNTY SD 1
- SPRAY SD 1
- SPRINGFIELD SD 19
- ST HELENS SD 502
- ST PAUL SD 45
- STANFIELD SD 61
- SUNTEX SD 10
- SUTHERLIN SD 130
- SWEET HOME SD 55
- THREE RIVERS/JOSEPHINE COUNTY SD
- TIGARD-TUALATIN SD 23J
- TILLAMOOK SD 9
- TROY SD 54
- UKIAH SD 80R
- UMATILLA SD 6R
- UNION SD 5
- VALE SD 84
- VERNONIA SD 47J
- WALLOWA SD 12
- WARRENTON-HAMMOND SD 30
- WEST LINN-WILSONVILLE SD 3J
- WILLAMINA SD 30J
- WINSTON-DILLARD SD 116
- WOODBURN SD 103
- YAMHILL CARLTON SD 1
- YONCALLA SD 32

Q2.2 Does your district have developed procedures and policies for the recruitment of school principals?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ Somewhat
- ☐ No

Q2.3 Does your district have a developed recruiting plan that takes into account projected changes in your principal staffing needs and labor pools over the next five years?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ Somewhat
- ☐ No

Q2.4 Has your district organized and implemented an internal, “grow your own” program for school principals?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ Somewhat
- ☐ No

Q2.5 Does your district have recruiting literature that accurately represents the school district, its mission and vision, work conditions, expectations, and other important information about the school community?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ Somewhat
- ☐ No

Q2.6 Do existing recruitment practices include strategies that try to reach qualified minority and female candidates for the principalship?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ Somewhat
- ☐ No

Q2.7 In seeking to develop a principal candidate pool, what sources/methods does your district use to attract quality candidates? First, please check ALL methods that apply.

- ☐ In district job posting
- ☐ Grow Your Own Programs (Development of Internal Candidate Pool)
- ☐ Local newspapers
- ☐ Educational Institutions (universities, colleges)
- ☐ State-newspapers/media
- ☐ Professional Organizations (COSA, ASCD, OASSP, NASSP)
- ☐ Internet -Web Posting Sites
- ☐ Professional Search Firms
- ☐ State Employment Agencies
- ☐ Peer Referrals (word-of-mouth)
- ☐ Other (text entry) _____

Q3.1 In the process of screening potential principal candidates, what selection methods does your district use to obtain information?

- ☐ Reviewing resumes
- ☐ Conducting personal interviews
- ☐ Evaluating college transcripts
- ☐ Checking district application
- ☐ Consulting listed references
- ☐ Examining performance appraisals
- ☐ Reviewing assessment center results
- ☐ Hiring professional search firms
- ☐ Utilizing internally developed candidate pool from a "Grow Your Own Program"
- ☐ Other (text entry) _____

Q3.2 Select the following preparatory interview techniques your district uses (check all that apply)

- ☐ Interview guides are carefully developed and followed
- ☐ Selection criteria receive board of education approval
- ☐ Criteria are based on job analysis or description
- ☐ Criteria are reviewed/revised periodically
- ☐ Interviewer(s) are systematically trained in interviewing skills
- ☐ Other (text entry) _____

Q3.3 Who is responsible for deciding the interview format to be used when interviewing candidates for a building principalship?

- ☐ Superintendent
- ☐ Board of Education
- ☐ Interview Team Members
- ☐ Others (text entry) _____

Q3.4 Who is responsible for choosing and formulating the interview questions to be used for the purpose of selection a principal?

- ☐ Superintendent
- ☐ Board of Education
- ☐ Interview Team Members
- ☐ Others (text entry) _____

Q3.5 In your district, how would school district personnel be chosen to participate in the initial interview of candidates for a building principalship?

- ☐ Selected by the superintendent
- ☐ Suggested by faculty association
- ☐ Volunteer
- ☐ Other (text entry) _____

Q3.6 In your district, which individuals would be chosen to participate in the initial interview of candidates to fill a building principalship vacancy?

- ☐ Board of education members
- ☐ Central Office Administrators
- ☐ Building level administrators
- ☐ Teachers
- ☐ Parents or community members
- ☐ Others (text entry) _____

Q3.7 Select the following selection interview techniques your district uses (check all that apply)

- ☐ Application information reviewed orally during the dialogue limited to predetermined questions and applicant responses
- ☐ Group interview involving several candidates in one setting is used
- ☐ Interview is conducted in a private, closed room location
- ☐ Interview is more important to the selection process than the candidate's papers or references
- ☐ Interview is semi-structured
- ☐ Interview is structured
- ☐ Interview is unstructured
- ☐ Open-ended questions are used
- ☐ Different questions are asked of different candidates
- ☐ Panel interview involving several interviews is used
- ☐ Writing sample is required
- ☐ Interviewer(s) ask any questions they wish
- ☐ Interviewer(s) are skilled in the art of listening
- ☐ Candidate is informed about the job and the school district
- ☐ Interviewer(s) take notes during the interview
- ☐ Other (text entry) _____

Q3.8 Select the following selection interview ASSESSMENT practices your district uses (check all that apply)

- ☐ Interviewer(s) use preprinted checklist
- ☐ Interviewer(s) use a point system to rate the candidate
- ☐ Different candidates answers to the same questions(s) are compared
- ☐ Interviewer(s) attempt to analyze each candidate's 'body language'
- ☐ Interviewer(s) concentrate on the candidate's strengths
- ☐ Interviewer(s) seek to assess the candidate's personality
- ☐ Interviewer(s) assess candidate's overt behavioral traits
- ☐ Interviewer(s) seek to determine relevance of training and experience to job demands
- ☐ Selection decisions are based on intuition or common sense
- ☐ Interview lasts under 30 minutes
- ☐ Interview lasts 30-60 minutes
- ☐ Interview lasts for over an hour
- ☐ Interview records are retained for validation against future performance
- ☐ Interview is the district's sole selection tool
- ☐ Candidate has an opportunity to ask questions
- ☐ Candidate is aware of the selection criteria
- ☐ Candidate is aware of subsequent steps in the selection process
- ☐ Other (text entry) _____

Q3.9 Years since last principal hiring in the district

- ☐ 1-2
- ☐ 3-4
- ☐ 5-6
- ☐ 6+
- ☐ Don't know

Q3.10 Years until your next principal hiring in the district?

- ☐ 1-2
- ☐ 3-4
- ☐ 5-6
- ☐ 6+
- ☐ Don't know

Appendix C: Content Analysis Framework

Applicant Recruitment

Applicant Attraction Practices

Professional Organizations COSA ASCD OASSP NASSP
Internet Web Posting Sites Schoolspring and TalentEd
GYOP or Development of Internal Candidate Pool
In-district job posting
Video link
Education Institutes colleges and universities
Search Firm
Peer Referrals word of mouth
Quality Vacancy Announcement
Job Fairs
Local Newspaper
State newspapers media and district websites

P-J Fit: Contract Information

Salary
Days
PERS
Insurance
Allowances
Annuity
Tuition reimbursement
Salary to be determined
Professional Development funds

P-J Fit: Posting Content and Structure

Organizational Literature/Info
Timeline
Requirements
Responsibilities
Job Description
Equal Opportunity or Nondiscrimination Statement
Contact Information
Community or School Description
Qualifications
Start Date

P-J Fit: Qualifications and Requirements

Experience Required
Administrative License
Letters
Administrative Experience

Teaching Experience
Apply Online
Writing Sample
Degree
Masters
Resume

P-J Fit: Responsibilities

Learning
Leadership
Management
Culture
Instruction
Teaching
Time
Relationships
Resources
Data

P-J Fit: Duties

Manage
Develop
Know
Maintain
Implement
Demonstrate
Support
Supervise
Provide
Promote

P-J Fit: Characteristic

Effective
Experience
Successful
Strong
Leader, instructional
Communicator
Leader, educational
Decision-maker
Excellent
Leader, collaborative
Relational

P-J Fit: Characteristic

Person-Organization Fit (P-O)

- Culture & Climate
- District Description
- Diversity and Cultural Responsive
- Specified Site
- Community Description
- PLTs or PLCs
- Performance and Evaluator
- District Administrative Roles
- Special Education
- High School

Candidate Selection: Applicant Screening**Strategic Applicant Screening**

- Internal or GYOP
- Search firm
- Minority applicants and Equity
- Screening Form
- Stakeholder input
- Candidate knows steps in process
- Point system to rate
- Experience congruent to need
- Volunteer work

Traditional Applicant Screening

- Check for application completion
- Review Letters/References
- Reviewing resumes
- Evaluating Transcripts
- Application review
- Pre-reference check
- Candidate Selection: Applicant Screening

Candidate Selection: Characteristics

- Leadership
- Manager
- Experience
- Support
- Support
- Relationships
- Promote
- Data
- Improve
- Collaborate
- Leader, instructional
- Candidate Selection: Characteristics

Candidate Selection: Selection Practices

Strategic Selection Practices

- Writing sample
- Site Visit/Building tour
- Open-ended questions used
- Repost position
- Teaching Eval and Feedback
- Community Evaluation/Parent Night
- On demand activities
- Writing activities
- Presentation

Traditional Selection Practices

- Reference and background checks
- Interview
- Review Assessment Center Results
- Interview 2nd round
- Group Interview
- Video interview
- Interview 3rd
- Candidate Selection: Selection Practices

Selection Assessment Practices

Strategic Assessment Practices

- Point system to rate
- Interviewers take notes
- Compare candidates' responses
- Relevance of training & Experiences to job
- Preprinted checklists
- Records retained to validate against future performance
- Analysis of candidates' personalities
- Community Evaluation
- Analysis of body language
- Analysis of overt behavioral traits

Traditional Assessment Practices

- Interview greater than app packet
- Interview sole selection tool
- Board approval of finalist contract
- Selection based on intuition/common sense
- Concentrate on candidate's strengths
- Committee Recommendation to Hire
- Selection Assessment Practices

Final Selection Members

- Superintendent
- Board Chair
- Board members

Former principal
Classified staff
Parents
Students
Teachers
Building admin
DO admin

Candidate Selection: Interview Practices

Established Process
Predetermined questions
Develop questions
Interview participant: DO admin
Interview participant: teachers
Develop questions
Interview participant: DO admin
Interview participant: teachers
1-2 years since last hire
Criteria based on job analysis/description
Criteria reviewed/revised periodically
Question development with stakeholder input
Committee Formation

Interview Question #1: What specific criteria do you use to narrow the principal candidate pool in the selection process of potential hires?

Context
Leadership qualities (general)
Experiences
Progress
Instruction
Licensed
Curriculum
Screening
Minority or Female Selection Practices
Stakeholder involvement

Interview Question #2: In your hiring process, how do you assess effective principal leadership that you believe will impact improving student achievement?

P-O fit
Characteristics
Context
Experience
Relationships
Trust

Interview Questions #3: When effectively interviewing and hiring, what specific practices does your district use to determine quality principal candidates?

- Interview
- Data Analysis
- Recommendations and References
- Internal or GYOP
- Committee Training
- Meet-and-greet night
- Screening form
- Committee Application Screening
- Question development
- Site Visit

Interview Question #4: How does research influence your final decisions about hiring of principal candidates?

- Instructional Leadership
- Coaching or mentoring
- District Admin Capacity
- Changing mindsets
- Efficacy
- Relationships
- Use of selection results to develop finalists
- Balanced Leadership
- Feeling/Instinct

Principal Development

Growth & Development

Supervision & Evaluation

- District Admin Capacity
- Research or Framework
- Coaching/Mentorship
- PLCs
- Collaborative
- Needs Based
- Professional Growth Plan
- Inquiry
- Administrative Standards
- Promotion plan

Appendix D: Interview Questions

The following interview questions were drawn from the research literature and were validated by an expert panel. We are specifically interested in hiring practices in rural areas (areas not urbanized, with a low population density, devoted largely to agriculture). Please feel free to ask for clarification if it is needed on any terms or question.

Interview Question #1:

What specific criteria do you use to narrow the principal candidate pool in the selection process of potential hires for rural schools?

Additional probes include: Why? Explain more...

Interview Question #2:

In your hiring process, how do you assess effective principal leadership for a rural district that you believe will impact improving student achievement?

Additional probes include: Explain more? Could you provide more information...

Interview Question #3:

When effectively interviewing and hiring, what specific practices does your district use to determine quality principal candidates in rural areas?

Additional probes include: Which practice? Why? Explain...

Interview Question #4:

How does research influence your final decisions about hiring of principal candidates in a rural area?

Additional probes include: Explain. Expand on that point...

Appendix E: Informed Consent

Research Study Title: Principal Human Resource Management
Principal Investigator: David Atherton
Research Institution: Concordia University
Faculty Advisor: Connie Greiner, Ed.D.

Purpose and what you will be doing:

The purpose of this survey is to collect data on current principal recruitment, selection, and development practices Oregon public school districts use. We expect approximately 130 volunteers to meet statistical significance of the 197 Oregon public school districts. No one will be paid to be in the study. We will begin enrollment on April 8, 2017 and end enrollment on April 23, 2017. To be in the study, you will complete a 25 item self-report survey. The items are either selection from a list or multiple-choice (e.g. Yes, Somewhat, No). Certain items also have additional entry options for “other” to gather additional practices not listed. The survey should take less than 30 minutes to complete.

Risks:

There are no risks to participating in this study other than providing your information. However, we will protect your information. Any personal information you provide will be coded so it cannot be linked to you. Any name or identifying information you give will be kept securely via electronic encryption. When we or any of our investigators look at the data, none of the data will have your name or identifying information. We will only use the district code to analyze the data. We will not identify you or specific districts in any publication or report. Your information will be kept private at all times and then all study documents will be destroyed 3 years after we conclude this study.

Benefits:

Information you provide will help identify what practices are used in Oregon to recruit, select, and develop principals. Additionally, relationships between district demographics (e.g. size, locale, student populations, etc.) may lead to generalizations about effective practices and promote critical change to respond to school, district, and community contexts and needs when hiring a principal. You could benefit this by contributing to data collection of Oregon principal human resource management practices and determining how your district and school context may relate to and influence your practices, resulting in better strategic recruitment, selection, and development.

Confidentiality:

This information will not be distributed to any other agency and will be kept private and confidential. The only exception to this is if you tell us abuse or neglect that makes us seriously concerned for your immediate health and safety.

Right to Withdraw:

Your participation is greatly appreciated, but we acknowledge that the questions we are asking are personal in nature. You are free at any point to choose not to engage with or stop the study. You may skip any questions you do not wish to answer. This study is not required and there is no penalty for not participating. If at any time you experience a negative emotion from answering the questions, we will stop asking you questions.

Contact Information:

You will receive a copy of this consent form. If you have questions you can talk to or write the principal investigator, David Atherton at [Researcher email redacted]. If you want to talk with a participant advocate other than the investigator, you can write or call the director of our institutional review board, Dr. OraLee Branch (email obranch@cu-portland.edu or call 503-493-6390).

Your Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information. I asked questions if I had them, and my questions were answered. I volunteer my consent for this study.

Participant Name

Date

Participant Signature

Date

David Atherton
Investigator Name

Date

Investigator Signature

Date



Investigator: David Atherton email: daatherton@mail2.cu-portland.edu
c/o: Professor Connie Greiner, Ed.D.
Concordia University – Portland
2811 NE Holman Street
Portland, Oregon 97221

Appendix F: Van de Water's (1988) Survey

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Part I - SELECTION CRITERIA

Assume that this spring your district will have an opening for a secondary principal. For each of the possible selection criteria listed below, determine its value for the candidate to be chosen to fill a vacancy in your district for a secondary school principalship.

Use a seven point scale where 1 means "your district places no importance on this competency or quality when selecting a secondary principal" and 7 means "your district places great importance on this competency or quality when selecting a secondary principal." The remaining numbers -- 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 -- convey intermediary degrees of importance. (Circle number)

	NOT IMPORTANT					VERY IMPORTANT		
1	Be very intelligent.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Be an "idea person".....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Be a member of professional organizations.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Belong to service clubs.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Have risen through the ranks.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Be a good business manager.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Set a tone of respect in school..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Use time well.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Demonstrate loyalty.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Be physically attractive.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Possess high energy level.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Demonstrate an ability to work well with diverse groups.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Hold high expectations for teachers' classroom performance..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Have experience with gifted and talented programs.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Demonstrate a knowledge of school law.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Be quick to assume initiative....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Be married.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Have prior supervisory experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19	Maintain positive relationships with parents.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Monitor and evaluate student progress.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Have prior experience in the district.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Be male.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Completed an administrative internship in the district.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	Be able to frame specific curricular goals and objectives..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	Be self-confident.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	Live in the school district.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	Be warm and caring.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	Emphasize student achievement as the primary outcome of schooling.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	Get involved in classroom discipline problems.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	Be well organized.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	Demonstrate a knowledge of classroom management.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	Possess a doctorate.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	Be easy going.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	Take a personal interest in welfare of school staff.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	Have at least 10 years of teaching experience.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	Seek the advice of staff members on important issues.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	Create order and discipline.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38	Be enthusiastic.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39	Delegate responsibilities.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40	Be flexible.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41	Be articulate.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	NOT IMPORTANT				VERY IMPORTANT		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42 Demonstrate a commitment to academic goals.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43 Be able to interpret community expectations, translate them into norms, and then establish these norms in school.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44 Belong to an ethnic or racial minority.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45 Demonstrate a knowledge of curriculum.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46 Demonstrate a knowledge of school finance.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47 Possess knowledge of and skill in human relations.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48 Communicate well orally with others.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49 Be female.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50 Be familiar with COH procedures..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51 Embody community values.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52 Be politically astute.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53 Be sociable and out-going.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54 Be open and honest.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55 Be a good listener.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56 Be an instructional leader.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57 Possess appropriate certification	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58 Be a team player.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59 Consult effectively with others..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60 Think well on his/her feet.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61 Know how to deal with conflict...	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62 Provide explicit cues and directives.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63 Have a sense of humor.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

If your district considers that a prospective principal should possess competencies or qualities other than those listed on the preceding pages, please note them below and then rank each one. (Circle number)

		NOT IMPORTANT					VERY IMPORTANT	
1	_____	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	_____	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part II - SELECTION INTERVIEW

Consider that your district is conducting initial employment interviews to select a candidate for a secondary principalship which will become vacant this spring. For each of the possible interview characteristics listed below, rate its degree of importance in the employment interview process that your district would conduct for the purpose of hiring a secondary principal.

Use a seven point scale where 1 means "your district places no importance on this technique or condition when interviewing to select a secondary principal" and 7 means "your district places great importance on this technique or condition when interviewing to select a secondary principal." The remaining numbers -- 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 -- convey intermediary degrees of importance. (Circle number)

		NOT IMPORTANT					VERY IMPORTANT	
1	Group interview involving several candidates in one setting is used	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Application information reviewed orally during the interview.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Interviewer(s) perceive interview procedures to be rigorous.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Dialogue limited to predetermined questions and applicant responses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Interviewer(s) seek negative information about the candidate..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Interview is the district's sole selection tool.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Way in which answer is phrased or delivered by candidate reveals as much as the answer.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Interview is semi-structured.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Interviewer(s) assess candidate's overt behavioral traits.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		NOT IMPORTANT					VERY IMPORTANT	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Interviewer(s) seek factual data.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Interviewer(s) attempt to put candidate at ease.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Interviewer(s) are systematically trained in interviewing skills....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Interviewer(s) speak more than the candidate.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Interviewer(s) seek to assess the candidate's personality.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Interviewer(s) use a point system to rate the candidate.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Interviewer(s) use preprinted checklist.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Different questions are asked of different candidates.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Interview is conducted in a private, closed room location....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Interview is unstructured.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Interviewer(s) seek spontaneous information about the candidate..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Interviewer(s) seek to determine relevance of training and experience to job demands.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Interview is more important to the selection process than the candidate's papers or references.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Interviewer(s) lead the interview	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	Candidate speaks more than the interviewer(s).....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	Candidate is aware of selection criteria.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	Interviewer(s) take notes during the interview.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	Interview lasts under 30 minutes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	Open-ended questions are used....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

29	Much laughter or kidding takes place during the interview.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	Interviewer(s) use silence effectively.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	Selection decisions are based on intuition or common sense.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	Interview is structured.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	Different candidates' answers to the same question(s) are compared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	Candidate has an opportunity to ask questions.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	Interview records are retained for validation against future performance.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	Interview lasts for over an hour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	Candidate is aware of subsequent steps in the selection process...	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38	Interviewer(s) concentrate on the candidate's strengths.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39	Interviewer(s) are skilled in the art of listening.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40	Candidate permitted to lead the discussion.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41	Interviewer(s) take notes only after interview's conclusion.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42	Panel interview involving several interviewers is used.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43	Writing sample is required.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44	Interview lasts 30-60 minutes....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45	Interviewer(s) ask any questions they wish.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46	Candidate is informed about the job and the school district.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47	Interviewer(s) attempt to analyze each candidate's 'body language'.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48	Interview guides are carefully developed and followed.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part III - SELECTION INTERVIEW PROCESS IN YOUR DISTRICT

In your district, which of the following statements would describe the development of the criteria to be used when selecting a school principal? (Circle all numbers that apply)

- 1 CRITERIA ARE WRITTEN
- 2 CRITERIA RECEIVE BOARD OF EDUCATION APPROVAL
- 3 CRITERIA ARE BASED ON JOB ANALYSIS OR DESCRIPTION
- 4 CRITERIA ARE WRITTEN WHEN A PRINCIPAL IS TO BE HIRED
- 5 CRITERIA ARE REVIEWED/REVISED PERIODICALLY
- 6 OTHER...(specify) _____

In your district, who would be responsible for choosing and formulating the interview questions to be used for the purpose of selecting a principal? (Circle all numbers that apply)

- 1 THE SUPERINTENDENT
- 2 THE BOARD OF EDUCATION
- 3 INTERVIEW TEAM MEMBERS
- 4 OTHERS...(specify) _____

In your district, who would be responsible for deciding the interview format to be used when interviewing candidates for a building principalship? (Circle all numbers that apply)

- 1 THE SUPERINTENDENT
- 2 THE BOARD OF EDUCATION
- 3 INTERVIEW TEAM MEMBERS
- 4 OTHERS...(specify) _____

In your district, how would school district personnel be chosen to participate in the initial interview of candidates for a building principalship? (Circle all numbers that apply)

- 1 SELECTED BY THE SUPERINTENDENT
- 2 SUGGESTED BY FACULTY ASSOCIATION
- 3 VOLUNTEERED
- 4 OTHER...(specify) _____

In your district, which individuals would be chosen to participate in the initial interview of candidates to fill a building principalship vacancy? (Circle all numbers that apply)

- 1 BOARD OF EDUCATION MEMBERS
- 2 CENTRAL OFFICE ADMINISTRATORS
- 3 BUILDING LEVEL ADMINISTRATORS
- 4 TEACHERS
- 5 PARENTS OR COMMUNITY MEMBERS
- 6 OTHER...(specify) _____

In your district, if school district personnel other than the Superintendent participate in the initial interview of candidates for a building principalship, how would the results be summarized for the Superintendent? (Circle number)

- 1 NOT APPLICABLE; SUPERINTENDENT PARTICIPATED
- 2 VERBALLY
- 3 IN A WRITTEN SUMMARY
- 4 ON AN INTERVIEW EVALUATION FORM
- 5 OTHER...(specify) _____

Do you believe that school district personnel participating in interviewing for selection purposes should receive formal training or instruction in employment interviewing techniques? (Circle number)

- 1 NO
- 2 YES

How long have you held an administrative position which requires you to participate in or conduct interviews for the purpose of hiring principals? (Circle number)

- 1 LESS THAN 1 YEAR
- 2 1 - 2 YEARS
- 3 3 - 5 YEARS
- 4 6 - 10 YEARS
- 5 MORE THAN 10 YEARS (specify years: _____)

Approximately how many individual candidates have you interviewed, either by yourself or in a group, for building principal positions? (Circle number)

- 1 NO CANDIDATES
- 2 1 - 5 CANDIDATES
- 3 6 - 10 CANDIDATES
- 4 11 - 20 CANDIDATES
- 5 MORE THAN 20 CANDIDATES

Other than on-the-job experience, what is the nature of any training or instruction in employment interviewing techniques or methodologies that you have had? (Circle all numbers which apply)

- 1 NOT APPLICABLE; NO FORMAL TRAINING
- 2 GRADUATE STUDIES IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
- 3 GRADUATE STUDIES IN PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT, PSYCHOLOGY OR OTHER FIELDS
- 4 CONFERENCES, SEMINARS, WORKSHOPS
- 5 INDIVIDUAL STUDY AND/OR READING
- 6 PRINCIPAL ASSESSMENT CENTER TRAINING
- 7 OTHER...(specify) _____

What was the duration of any such formal training or instruction? (Circle number)

- 1 NOT APPLICABLE; NO FORMAL TRAINING
- 2 1 - 5 HOURS
- 3 6 - 10 HOURS
- 4 11 - 20 HOURS
- 5 MORE THAN 20 HOURS

Have you ever been interviewed for a school building principalship? (Circle number)

- 1 NO
- 2 YES

Do you feel that the selection interview process reveals sufficient and accurate data about a candidate for a principalship? (Circle number)

- 1 NO
- 2 YES

Does your district currently employ the interview process as a tool for selecting prospective building level administrators? (Circle number)

- 1 NO
- 2 YES

How many principals on each building level were hired by your school district in each of the past five school years? (Fill in the blanks. If none, write "0")

Year Hired:	Building Level of Principal Hired:		
	ELEMENTARY	MIDDLE SCHOOL/JUNIOR HIGH	SENIOR HIGH
1984-85	_____	_____	_____
1983-84	_____	_____	_____
1982-83	_____	_____	_____
1981-82	_____	_____	_____
1980-81	_____	_____	_____

Which of these indicates the building level of most recently hired principal? (Circle number)

- 1 NO PRINCIPAL HAS BEEN RECENTLY HIRED
- 2 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
- 3 MIDDLE SCHOOL/JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
- 4 SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

What is your current administrative title? (Circle number)

- 1 SUPERINTENDENT
- 2 ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT FOR PERSONNEL
- 3 DIRECTOR OF PERSONNEL
- 4 OTHER...(specify) _____

Is there anything else that you would care to add about your district's process for interviewing candidates for a building principalship? If so, please use this space for that purpose.

Your contribution to this research effort is greatly appreciated. If you would like a summary of results, please write "copy of results requested" and print your name and address on the back of the return envelope (NOT on this questionnaire). We will see that you receive a copy.

Appendix G: Farr's (2004) Survey

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APPENDIX E

MONTANA PRINCIPAL RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION: A SURVEY OF MONTANA SUPERINTENDENTS

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Survey #:

**Montana Principal Recruitment and Selection:
A Survey of Montana Superintendents**

Please complete the following survey and return in the postage paid envelope by April 30, 2003.

The purpose of this study is to learn more about recruitment and selection practices used in Montana schools. Information obtained will be used to develop model strategies for the recruitment and selection of principal candidates.

Part I: Demographic Information - Please check (✓) one item for each of the following questions

1. Gender? ☐ Male ☐ Female
2. What is your race? ☐ Caucasian ☐ Hispanic ☐ African American
☐ American Indian/Alaska Native ☐ Asian/Pacific-Islander
3. What is your age? ☐ Under 30 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60 +
4. How many years do you have in public education? ☐ 0-10 ☐ 11-20 ☐ 21-30 ☐ 31+
5. How many years do you have as a school superintendent? ☐ 0-5 ☐ 6-10 ☐ 11-15
☐ 16-20 ☐ 21+
6. How many years do you have as superintendent of your current district? ☐ 0-5 ☐ 6-10
☐ 11-15 ☐ 16+
7. Years since last principal hiring in the district? ☐ 1-2 ☐ 3-4 ☐ 5-6 ☐ 6+ ☐ don't know
8. Years until your next principal hiring? ☐ In process ☐ 1-2 ☐ 3-4 ☐ 5-6 ☐ 6+
☐ don't know

Part II: Recruitment and Selection Questions - the following items pertain to recruitment and selection practices and procedures used in your school district. **For each item, please check (✓) the practice(s) or procedure(s) that best describes recruitment and selection in the district.** Recruitment refers to processes used to attract a pool of highly qualified candidates for actual or anticipated vacancies. Selection refers to those processes used to identify the most qualified from among those individuals having made application for a vacancy in the school district.

1. Does your district have developed procedures and policies for the recruitment of school principals?
☐ Yes ☐ Somewhat ☐ No
2. Does your district have practices and procedures for recruiting candidates from outside your own district?
☐ Yes ☐ Somewhat ☐ No
3. Has your district organized and implemented an internal, "grow your own" program for school principals?
☐ Yes ☐ Somewhat ☐ No

4. Does your district have a developed recruiting plan that takes into account projected changes in your principal staffing needs and labor pools over the next five years?
- ☐ Yes ☐ Somewhat ☐ No
5. Does your district have recruiting literature that accurately represents the school district, its mission and vision, work conditions, expectations, and other important information about the school community?
- ☐ Yes ☐ Somewhat ☐ No
6. Do existing recruitment practices include strategies that try to reach qualified minority and female candidates for the principalship?
- ☐ Yes ☐ Somewhat ☐ No

Part II: Recruitment and Selection Questions - Continued

7. In seeking to develop a principal candidate pool, what sources/methods does your district use to attract quality candidates? **First, please check (✓) ALL methods that apply. Second, from those methods checked, please underline the ONE method that has proven most successful in attracting candidates.**
- ☐ In district job postings ☐ Grow Your Own Programs (Development of Internal Candidate Pool)
- ☐ Local newspapers ☐ Educational Institutions (universities, colleges)
- ☐ State-newspapers/media ☐ Professional Organizations (MTSBA, SAM, NASSP)
- ☐ Internet –Web Posting Sites ☐ Professional Search Firms
- ☐ State Employment Agencies ☐ Peer Referrals (word-of-mouth)
- ☐ Other _____
8. In the process of screening potential principal candidates, what selection methods does your district use to obtain information? **Please rank only those methods used by your district in order of their importance with 1 being the most important.**

Selection Method

- _____ Reviewing résumés
- _____ Conducting personal interviews
- _____ Evaluating college transcripts
- _____ Checking district application
- _____ Consulting listed references
- _____ Examining performance appraisals
- _____ Reviewing assessment center results

_____ Hiring professional search firms

_____ Utilizing internally developed candidate pool from a "Grow Your Own Program"

9. In the selection of a principal candidate, who would be involved in the final selection committee?
(Please check all that apply.)

Selection Committee Members		Used (✓)	
Superintendent	<input type="checkbox"/>	Chairperson of the Board	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other Board Members	<input type="checkbox"/>	Classroom Teacher (s)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Former Principal	<input type="checkbox"/>	Classified Staff Member (s)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Parents	<input type="checkbox"/>	Students	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other: _____			

10. Does the district provide training that will help selection committee members evaluate job applicants?

☐ Yes

☐ No

If yes, what type of training is offered? _____

Part III: Selection Assessment – The Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) has identified six standards for public school leaders (Principals, Superintendents, and Supervisors). Each of the six standards is presented together with examples of the knowledge, disposition, and performance indicators associated with each standard. **Knowledge indicators** present the kinds of theories, trends, principles, models, and concepts that serve as part of a foundation for what the school leader should know and understand; **Disposition indicators** present statements of what the school leader should value or believe in; and, **Performance indicators** describe what the school leader actually does.

Directions: Using the scale below and based on your perceptions of your district’s selection strategies, please rate how completely your district’s present selection methods assess the knowledge, dispositions and performances, for each potential principal candidate.

SELECTION ASSESSMENT SCALE

Fully assess candidate in this area	4
Somewhat assess candidate in this area	3
Little assessment of candidate in this area	2
No assessment of candidate in this area	1

Standard I: The school administrator facilitates the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community.

Knowledge Elements - *The school administrator has knowledge and understanding of:*

- the principles of developing and implementing a strategic plan or comprehensive school improvement plan including effective consensus-building and negotiation skills; information sources, data collection, and data analysis strategies; and developing learning goals in a pluralistic society

Fully
4

**Selection
Assessment
Level
Circle One**

3

2

None
1

Disposition Elements - *The administrator believes in, values, and is committed to:*

- the inclusion of all members of the school community; ensuring that students have the knowledge, skills and values needed to become successful adults; doing the work required for high levels of personal and organization performance; continuous school improvement; and a belief that all students can learn

Fully
4

Circle One

3

2

None
1

Performance Elements - *The administrator facilitates processes and engages in activities ensuring that:*

- the vision and mission of the school are effectively communicated to staff, parents, students, and community members; an implementation plan is developed in which objectives and strategies to achieve the vision and goals are clearly articulated; assessment data related to student learning are used to develop the school vision and goals; the vision, mission, and implementation plans are regularly monitored, evaluated and revised

Circle One

Fully 4 3 2 None 1

Directions: Based on your perceptions of your district's selection strategies, please rate how completely your district's present selection methods assess the knowledge, dispositions and performances, for each potential principal candidate.

SELECTION ASSESSMENT SCALE

Fully assess candidate in this area	4
Somewhat assess candidate in this area	3
Little assessment of candidate in this area	2
No assessment of candidate in this area	1

Standard II: The school administrator advocates, nurtures, and sustains a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional development.

**Selection
Assessment
Level
Circle One**

146

Knowledge Elements - *The school administrator has knowledge and understanding of:*

- student growth and development and the application of application of applied learning theories; principles of effective instruction and related measurement, evaluation and assessment strategies; curriculum design, implementation, evaluation, and refinement; adult learning and professional development models; the role of technology in promoting student learning and professional growth; and the importance of a school's culture

Fully 4 3 2 None 1

Disposition Elements - *The administrator believes in, values, and is committed to:*

- student learning as the fundamental purpose of schooling and the proposition that all students can learn; life long learning for self and others; professional development as an integral part of school improvement; a safe and supportive learning environment; the benefits that diversity brings to the school community; and, preparing students to be contributing members of society

Circle One

Fully 4 3 2 None 1

Performance Elements - The administrator facilitates processes and engages in activities ensuring that:

■ individuals are treated with fairness, dignity and respect; barriers to student learning are identified, clarified, and addressed; curriculum decisions are based on research, expertise of teachers, and the recommendation of learned societies; a variety of supervisory and evaluation models are employed; pupil personnel programs are developed to meet the needs of students and their families; and, the school is organized and aligned for success

Circle One

Fully 4 3 2 None 1

Directions: Based on your perceptions of your district's selection strategies, please rate how completely your district's present selection methods assess the knowledge, dispositions and performances, for each potential principal candidate.

SELECTION ASSESSMENT SCALE

Fully assess candidate in this area	4
Somewhat assess candidate in this area	3
Little assessment of candidate in this area	2
No assessment of candidate in this area	1

Standard III: The school administrator ensures management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.

Knowledge Elements - The school administrator has knowledge and understanding of:

■ theories and models of organizations and the principles of organizational development; principles and issues relating to school safety and security; human resources management and development; and issues related to financial operations of school management, school facilities and use, and legal matters impacting school operations

**Selection
Assessment
Level
Circle One**

Fully 4 3 2 None 1

Disposition Elements - The administrator believes in, values, and is committed to:

■ making management decisions to enhance learning and teaching; taking risks to improve schools through high-quality standards, expectations, and performances; and, involving stakeholders in management processes

Circle One

Fully 4 3 2 None 1

Performance Elements - The administrator facilitates processes and engages in activities ensuring that:

■ knowledge of learning, teaching, and student development is used to inform management decisions; operational plans and procedures to achieve the vision and goals of the school are in place; effective problem-solving and communication skills are used; fiscal resources of the school are managed responsibly, efficiently, and effectively; and, the school seeks opportunities that support continuous school improvement

Circle One

Fully 4 3 2 None 1

Directions: Based on your perceptions of your district's selection strategies, please rate how completely your district's present selection methods assess the knowledge, dispositions and performances, for each potential principal candidate.

SELECTION ASSESSMENT SCALE

Fully assess candidate in this area	4
Somewhat assess candidate in this area	3
Little assessment of candidate in this area	2
No assessment of candidate in this area	1

Standard IV: The school administrator collaborates with families and community members, responds to diverse community interests, and needs, and mobilizes community resources.

Knowledge Elements - The school administrator has knowledge and understanding of:

■ emerging issues and trends that potentially impact the school community; community relations and marketing strategies and processes; the conditions and dynamics of the diverse school community; and, successful models of school, family, business, community, government, and higher education partnerships

Selection Assessment Level Circle One

Fully 4 3 2 None 1

Disposition Elements - The administrator believes in, values, and is committed to:

■ schools operating as an integral part of the larger community; collaboration and communication with families; involvement of families and other stakeholders in school decision-making processes; and, resources of the family and community needing to be brought to bear on the education of students

Circle One

Fully 4 3 2 None 1

Performance Elements - *The administrator facilitates processes and engages in activities ensuring that:*

- high visibility, active involvement, and communication with the larger community is a priority; information about family and community concerns, expectations, and needs is used regularly; there is outreach to different business, religious, political, and service agencies and organizations; public resources and funds are used appropriately and wisely; and, partnerships are established with area businesses, institutions of higher education, and community groups to strengthen programs and support school goals

Circle One

Fully				None
4	3	2	1	

Directions: Based on your perceptions of your district's selection strategies, please rate how completely your district's present selection methods assess the knowledge, dispositions and performances, for each potential principal candidate.

SELECTION ASSESSMENT SCALE

Fully assess candidate in this area	4
Somewhat assess candidate in this area	3
Little assessment of candidate in this area	2
No assessment of candidate in this area	1

149

Standard V: The school administrator acts with integrity, fairness and in an ethical manner.

Knowledge Elements - *The school administrator has knowledge and understanding of:*

- the purpose of education and the role of leadership in modern society; various ethical frameworks and perspectives on ethics; the values of the diverse school community; professional code of ethics; and, the philosophy and history of education

**Selection Assessment
Level
Circle One**

Fully				None
4	3	2	1	

Disposition Elements - *The administrator believes in, values, and is committed to:*

- the right of every student to a free, quality education; bringing ethical principles to the decision-making process; accepting the consequences for upholding one's principles and actions; using the influence of one's office constructively and productively in the service of students and their families; and, development of a caring school community

Circle One

Fully				None
4	3	2	1	

Performance Elements - The administrator facilitates processes and engages in activities ensuring that:

- demonstrates values, beliefs, and attitudes that inspire others to higher levels of performance; treats people fairly, equitably, and with dignity and respect; protects the rights and confidentiality of students and staff; demonstrates appreciation for and sensitivity to the diversity in the school community; and applies laws and procedures fairly, wisely, and considerately

Circle One

Fully 4 3 2 None 1

Directions: Based on your perceptions of your district's selection strategies, please rate how completely your district's present selection methods assess the knowledge, dispositions and performances, for each potential principal candidate.

SELECTION ASSESSMENT SCALE

Fully assess candidate in this area 4
Somewhat assess candidate in this area 3
Little assessment of candidate in this area 2
No assessment of candidate in this area 1

150

Standard VI. The school administrator understands, responds to, and influences the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context.

Selection Assessment Level

Knowledge Elements - The school administrator has knowledge and understanding of:

- the role of public education in developing and maintaining a democratic society and an economically productive nation; the political, social, cultural, and economic systems and processes that impact schools; global issues and forces affecting teaching and learning; the dynamics of policy development and advocacy under our democratic political system; and, the law as related to education and schooling

Circle One

Fully 4 3 2 None 1

Disposition Elements - The administrator believes in, values, and is committed to:

- education as a key to opportunity and social mobility for students; recognizing a variety of ideas, values, and cultures and the importance of communicating with other decision makers affecting education; actively participating in the political and policy-making context in the service of education; and, using legal systems to protect student rights and improve student opportunities

Circle One

Fully 4 3 2 None 1

Performance Elements - *The administrator facilitates processes and engages in activities ensuring that:*

- communication occurs among the school community concerning trends, issues, and potential changes in the environment in which schools operate; there is ongoing communication with representatives from various community groups; the school community works within the framework of policies, laws, and regulations enacted by local, state, and federal authorities; public policy is shaped to provide quality education for students; and, lines of communication are developed with decision makers outside the school community

Circle One

Fully				None
4	3	2		1

Thank you for your time and assistance in completing this survey!!

Please return completed survey in the postage paid, self-addressed envelope to:

Daniel T. Farr, 1012 4th Ave SE, Sidney, MT 59270

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Appendix H1

Table 1

Number of Oregon School Districts and Schools by Locale

District Locale	# of Districts	# Schools in District (K–12)	% of Locale	% of State
City				
Large	3	106	23.1%	1.5%
Midsized	3	113	23.1%	1.5%
Small	7	180	53.8%	3.6%
Total	13	399		6.6%
Suburb				
Large	12	165	60.0%	6.1%
Midsized	5	54	25.0%	2.5%
Small	3	15	15.0%	1.5%
Total	20	234		10.2%
Rural				
Distant	34	74	32.7%	17.3%
Fringe	14	57	13.5%	7.1%
Remote	56	100	53.8%	28.4%
Total	104	231		52.8%
Town				
Distant	17	118	28.3%	8.6%
Fringe	18	124	30.0%	9.1%
Remote	25	130	41.7%	12.7%
Total	60	372		30.5%
Oregon Total	197	1236		

Appendix H2

Table 2

Number of Oregon School Districts and Schools by Size

District Size	# Districts	# Schools	% of State Size
Small	109	204	55.3%
Medium	71	518	36.0%
Large	17	514	8.6%
Statewide Total	197	1253	

Note. Small defined as 1–999 students. Medium defined as 1,000–6,999 students. Large defined as more than 7,000 students

Appendix H3

Table 3

Number of Oregon School Districts and Schools and Study Percentages by Locale

Locale	# Dist	# Dist Schools	% Locale	% State	State % Part	Target % Part	Total % Part
CITY							
Large	3	106	23.1%	1.5%	1%	1%	6%
Midsized	3	113	23.1%	1.5%	1%	1%	6%
Small	7	180	53.8%	3.6%	2%	2%	9%
Total	13	399		6.6%	4%	4%	20%
SUBURB							
Large	12	165	60.0%	6.1%	2%	2%	11%
Midsized	5	54	25.0%	2.5%	1%	1%	3%
Small	3	15	15.0%	1.5%	0%	0%	0%
Total	20	234		10.2%	3%	3%	14%
RURAL							
Distant	34	74	32.7%	17.3%	3%	3%	17%
Fringe	14	57	13.5%	7.1%	1%	1%	3%
Remote	56	100	53.8%	28.4%	1%	1%	6%
Total	104	231		52.8%	5%	5%	26%
TOWN							
Distant	17	118	28.3%	8.6%	2%	2%	9%
Fringe	18	124	30.0%	9.1%	4%	4%	20%
Remote	25	130	41.7%	12.7%	2%	2%	11%
Total	60	372		30.5%	7%	8%	40%
Oregon and Study Totals	197	1236			18%	19%	

Note. Locale categories are defined by NCES (2016) as city, suburb, rural, town.
Dist—District

Part—Participation

Appendix H4

Table 4

Number of Oregon School Districts and Study Percentages by Size

District Size	# Districts	# Schools	% State	State % Part	Tar Pop % Part	% Part
Small	109	204	55.3%	4%	4%	23%
Medium	71	518	36.0%	10%	10%	54%
Large	17	514	8.6%	4%	4%	23%
Oregon Averages	197	1253		24%	19%	18%

Note. Small defined as 1–999 students. Medium defined as 1,000–6,999 students. Large defined as more than 7,000 students.

Part—Participation

Tar Pop—Target Population

Appendix H5

Table 5

District Percentages for Participating Oregon School Districts by Locale

District Locale	PPS	SE	T	S	STR
CITY					
Large	\$13,665	29,616	1,506.38	50	19.9
Midsize	\$11,665	28,826	1,245.52	51	23.0
Small	\$10,835	22,322	985.50	34	23.0
Averages	\$12,043	21,649	1,014	38	21.7
SUBURB					
Large	\$10,987	9,371	415.11	16	23.0
Midsize	\$10,737	2,801	139.31	6	20.1
Small	0	0	0	0	0
Averages	\$10.862	6,086	277.21	11	21.5
RURAL					
Distant	\$13,208	510	28.88	2	17.1
Fringe	\$11,854	4,637	198	16	24.7
Remote	\$11,678	3,282	163.66	11.5	20.4
Averages	\$12,247	2,810	129.97	10	20.7
TOWN					
Distant	\$11,211	2,545	126.59	5	20.3
Fringe	\$10,090	2,812	131.45	7	21.6
Remote	\$11,018	2,745	127.06	7	20.8
Averages	\$10,773	2,701	128.04	6	20.9
Oregon Averages	\$11,481	8,311	387.34	16	21.2

Note. Locale categories are defined by NCES (2016) as city, suburb, rural, town.

PPS—Per-pupil-spending

SE—Student Enrollment

T—Teachers

S—Schools

STR—Student-Teacher Ratio

Appendix H6

Table 6

District Demographics for Participating Oregon School Districts by Size

District Size	PPS	SE	T	S	STR
Small	\$12,640.50	519	28.32	2	17.7
Medium	\$10,762.74	3,514	163.10	8	21.7
Large	\$11,872.63	25,721	1,178.72	43	21.8
Oregon Averages	\$11,758.62	9,918	456.71	18	20.5

Note. Small defined as 1–999 students. Medium defined as 1,000–6,999 students. Large defined as more than 7,000 students.

PPS—Per-pupil-spending

SE—Student Enrollment

T—Teachers

S—Schools

STR—Student – Teacher Ratio

Appendix H7

Table 7

District Percentages for Participating Oregon School Districts by Locale

District Locale	AR	MR	DR	ELA	Math	DI	D%
CITY							
Large	82.9%	18.9%	3.7%	55.5%	43.9%	1, 079	3.6%
Midsized	77.3%	14.9%	4.5%	55.5%	43.9%	1,124	3.9%
Small	84.6%	12.5%	2.8%	63.1%	52.2%	748	3.4%
Averages	80.8%	15.4%	3.4%	59.4%	48.0%	984	4.6%
SUBURB							
Large	84.2%	12.4%	2.7%	58.3%	44.2%	543	5.8%
Midsized	82.0%	12.2%	1.7%	72.5%	62.7%	69	2.5%
Small	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Averages	83.1%	12.2%	2.2%	65.4%	53.5%	306	5.0%
RURAL							
Distant	82.1%	12.0%	1.9%	48.5%	32.6%	25	4.9%
Fringe	73.6%	20.0%	4.3%	54.6%	33.7%	529	11.4%
Remote	84.5%	12.2%	3.7%	53.6%	41.4%	258	7.9%
Averages	80.0%	14.7%	3.3%	52.2%	35.9%	271	9.6%
TOWN							
Distant	84.3%	12.8%	4.2%	52.9%	36.9%	138	5.4%
Fringe	82.9%	15.3%	5.1%	53.4%	37.3%	181	6.4%
Remote	76.6%	22.2%	5.8%	45.2%	32.6%	148	5.4%
Total	81.2%	16.8%	5.1%	50.5%	35.6%	156	5.8%
Oregon Averages	81.3%	14.8%	3.5%	56.9%	43.2%	429	5.2%

Note. Locale categories are defined by NCES (2016) as city, suburb, rural, town.

AR—Attendance Rate

MR—Mobility Rate

DR—Dropout Rate

ELA— English Language Arts Smarter Balanced Assessment Performance

Math—Math Smarter Balanced Assessment Performance
DI—Discipline Incidents
D%—Discipline Percentage

Appendix H8

Table 8

District Percentages for Participating Oregon School Districts by Size

District Size	AR	MR	DR	ELA	Math	DI	D%
Small	81.8%	11.5%	1.9%	52.1%	36.5%	29	5.6%
Medium	82.0%	15.9%	4.6%	55.2%	40.6%	196	5.6%
Large	81.8%	15.3%	3.7%	55.0%	42.3%	1,304	5.1%
Oregon Averages	81.9%	14.2%	3.4%	53.2%	39.1%	509	5.1%

Note. Small defined as 1–999 students. Medium defined as 1,000–6,999 students. Large defined as more than 7,000 students.

AR—Attendance Rate

MR—Mobility Rate

DR—Dropout Rate

ELA— ELA SBA Performance

Math—Math SBA Performance

DI—Discipline Incidents

D%—Discipline Percentage

Appendix H9

Table 9

Student Subgroups Percentages for Participating Oregon School Districts by Locale

District Locale	ED	SpEd	ELL	LS
CITY				
Large	61.9%	13.3%	29.5%	58
Midsized	58.2%	15.5%	19.7%	44
Small	39.6%	12.9%	22.9%	65
Averages	51.1%	13.5%	20.8%	45
SUBURB				
Large	42.7%	13.8%	19.7%	35
Midsized	38.7%	12.0%	<5%	13
Small	0	0	0	0
Averages	40.7%	12.9%	9.9%	24
RURAL				
Distant	50.6%	15.0%	<5%	4
Fringe	70.5%	11.0%	<5%	6
Remote	60.9%	7.2%	5.8%	10
Averages	60.7%	11.1%	1.9%	7
TOWN				
Distant	35.2%	15.2%	28.3%	7
Fringe	43.4%	14.6%	9.7%	11
Remote	61.8%	15.1%	6.3%	7
Averages	46.8%	15.0%	14.8%	8
Oregon Averages	49.8%	13.1%	11.8%	21

Note. Locale categories are defined by NCES (2016) as city, suburb, rural, town.

ED—Economically Disadvantaged

SpEd—Special Education

ELL—English Language Learners

LS—Languages Spoken

<5—Data by ODE suppressed to maintain student confidentiality.

Appendix H10

Table 10

Student Ethnicity Percentages for Participating Oregon School Districts by Locale

District Locale	AI / AN	Asian	NH / PI	Black	H / L	White	MR
CITY							
Large	3.9%	11.0%	1.1%	10.2%	20.4%	48.5%	7.9%
Midsized	1.2%	2.6%	1.3%	1.5%	25.9%	60.8%	7.0%
Small	0.6%	9.2%	0.7%	2.1%	25.4%	55.4%	6.7%
Averages	2.0%	6.6%	1.0%	4.3%	20.5%	59.3%	7.3%
SUBURB							
Large	0.6%	6.4%	0.8%	3.1%	19.7%	62.6%	6.7%
Midsized	0.7%	2.2%	0	1.9%	8.7%	78.7%	7.9%
Small	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Averages	0.6%	4.3%	0.4%	2.5%	14.2%	70.6%	7.3%
RURAL							
Distant	2.0%	0.8%	0.3%	0.2%	6.5%	86.3%	3.8%
Fringe	2.3%	0.0%	0.2%	0.7%	8.8%	83.6%	4.0%
Remote	7.7%	2.6%	0.2%	1.6%	14.2%	75.0%	2.8%
Averages	4.0%	1.1%	0.2%	0.8%	9.8%	81.6%	3.5%
TOWN							
Distant	0.3%	0.7%	0.2%	0.5%	42.0%	53.7%	2.6%
Fringe	1.0%	0.9%	0.3%	1.5%	14.2%	78.8%	4.2%
Remote	3.1%	1.1%	0.4%	0.7%	16.4%	72.0%	6.3%
Averages	1.5%	0.9%	0.3%	0.9%	24.2%	68.2%	4.4%
Oregon Averages	2.0%	3.2%	0.5%	2.1%	17.2%	69.9%	5.6%

Note. Locale categories are defined by NCES (2016) as city, suburb, rural, town.

AI / AN—American Indian/Alaskan Native

NH / PI—Non-Hispanic/Pacific Islander

H / L—Hispanic/Latino

MR—Multiple Race

Appendix H11

Table 11

Student Subgroups Percentages for Participating Oregon School Districts by Size

District Size	ED	SpEd	ELL	LS
Small	38.3%	13.1%	0.8%	5
Medium	46.3%	14.0%	10.8%	12
Large	54.9%	14.6%	27.9%	57
Oregon Averages	46.5%	13.9%	13.2%	25

Note. Small defined as 1–999 students. Medium defined as 1,000–6,999 students. Large defined as more than 7,000 students.

ED—Economically Disadvantaged

SpEd—Special Education

ELL—English Language Learners

LS—Languages Spoken

Appendix H12

Table 12

Student Ethnicity Percentages for Participating Oregon School Districts by Size

DL	AI / AN	Asian	NH / PI	Black	H / L	White	MR
Small	2.7%	1.2%	0.3%	0.4%	7.4%	85.6%	3.3%
Medium	1.6%	1.7%	0.3%	1.2%	18.6%	71.8%	5.1%
Large	1.6%	7.9%	1.1%	4.8%	26.4%	52.1%	6.9%
Oregon Averages	2.0%	3.6%	0.6%	2.1%	17.5%	69.8%	5.1%

Note. Small defined as 1–999 students. Medium defined as 1,000–6,999 students. Large defined as more than 7,000 students.

AI / AN—American Indian/Alaskan Native

NH / PI—Non-Hispanic/Pacific Islander

H / L—Hispanic/Latino

MR—Multiple Race

Appendix H13

Table 13

Applicant Recruitment Summary

	Job Postings		Interviews		Surveys				Standards		Totals
Attribute	%	F	%	F	Y	S	N	F	F	%	F
Applicant Attraction Practices	96%	227	100%	15	21	3	26	24	0	95%	266
PJ Fit	100%	4,160	100%	1,656	0	0	0	0	276	91%	6,092
Contract Information	100%	210	25%	1	0	0	0	0	0	84%	211
Posting Content and Structure	38%	175	75%	13	0	0	0	0	0	36%	188
Qualifications and Requirements	100%	438	22%	12	0	0	0	0	0	86%	450
Responsibilities	100%	1,116	100%	982	0	0	0	0	134	100%	1,407
Duties	100%	1,634	100%	491	0	0	0	0	110	100%	2,726
Characteristic	100%	701	75%	13	0	0	0	0	32	100%	1,224
PO Fit	100%	360	75%	16	6	0	4	6	0	88%	382
Totals	100%	4,747	100%	1,684	36	3	36	30	276	98%	6,941

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Y—Yes: number of times when participants used a practice or attribute

S—Sometimes: number of times when participants occasionally used a practice or attribute

N—No: number of times when participants did not use a practice or attribute

Appendix H14

Table 14

Applicant Attraction Practices

	Job Postings		Interviews		Surveys			Totals	
Practice	%	F	%	F	Yes	Some	No	%	F
Admin Organizations	60%	38	50%	5	5	0	0	59%	53
Web postings	27%	13	25%	2	3	0	2	28%	21
GYOP/Internal pool	0%	0	50%	3	0	3	2	5%	9
In-district posting	0%	0	25%	1	4	0	1	7%	9
Video link	6%	3	25%	1	0	0	0	5%	4
Colleges / Universities	0%	0	25%	1	2	0	3	3%	5
Search Firm	2%	1	0%	0	2	0	3	5%	5
Peer Referral	0%	0	25%	1	1	0	3	2%	3
Quality Announcement	0%	0	25%	1	1	0	0	2%	3
Job Fair	0%	0	0%	0	1	0	4	2%	2
Local Newspaper	0%	0	0%	0	1	0	4	2%	2
State newspaper / media	0%	0	0%	0	1	0	4	2%	2
Totals	96%	227	100%	15	21	3	26	95%	266

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Y—Yes: number of times when participants used a practice or attribute

S—Sometimes: number of times when participants occasionally used a practice or attribute

N—No: number of times when participants did not use a practice or attribute

Appendix H15

Table 15

PJ Fit: Contract Information

Attribute	Job Postings		Interviews		Surveys			Totals	
	%	F	%	F	Y	S	N	%	F
Salary	65%	37	25%	1	0	0	0	55%	38
Days	46%	27	0%	0	0	0	0	38%	27
PERS	27%	16	0%	0	0	0	0	22%	16
Insurance	21%	14	0%	0	0	0	0	17%	14
Allowances	6%	3	0%	0	0	0	0	5%	3
Annuity	6%	3	0%	0	0	0	0	5%	3
Tuition reimbursement	6%	3	0%	0	0	0	0	5%	3
Salary to be determined	4%	2	0%	0	0	0	0	3%	2
Professional Development funds	2%	1	0%	0	0	0	0	2%	1
Totals	100%	210	25%	1	0	0	0	84%	211

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Y—Yes: number of times when participants used a practice or attribute

S—Sometimes: number of times when participants occasionally used a practice or attribute

N—No: number of times when participants did not use a practice or attribute

Appendix H16

Table 16

PJ Fit: Posting Content and Structure

Attribute	Job Postings		Interviews		Surveys			Totals	
	%	F	%	F	Y	S	N	%	F
Timeline	27%	35	0%	0	0	0	0	22%	35
Start Date	23%	12	0%	0	0	0	0	19%	12
Responsibilities	19%	31	0%	0	0	0	0	16%	31
Requirements	25%	34	0%	0	0	0	0	21%	34
Qualifications	21%	13	0%	0	0	0	0	17%	13
Organizational Literature/Info	35%	36	25%	1	3	0	2	36%	40
Job Description	21%	22	25%	1	0	0	0	19%	23
Equal Opportunity or Non-discrimination Statement	15%	12	25%	2	0	0	0	14%	14
Contact Information	21%	13	25%	1	0	0	0	19%	14
Community or School Description	4%	4	75%	12	0	0	0	9%	16
Totals	38%	175	75%	13	3	0	6	41%	191

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Y—Yes: number of times when participants used a practice or attribute

S—Sometimes: number of times when participants occasionally used a practice or attribute

N—No: number of times when participants did not use a practice or attribute

Appendix H17

Table 17

PJ Fit: Qualifications and Requirements

Attribute	Job Postings		Interviews		Totals	
	%	F	%	F	%	F
Experience Required	88%	90	11%	1	74%	91
Administrative License	90%	57	11%	1	83%	62
Letters	52%	71	11%	1	47%	72
Administrative Experience	79%	47	11%	1	67%	48
Teaching Experience	67%	39	0%	0	55%	39
Apply Online	100%	22	11%	1	91%	27
Writing Sample	50%	33	0%	0	43%	34
Degree	54%	29	0%	0	48%	31
Masters	54%	27	0%	0	45%	27
Resume	48%	23	11%	1	41%	24
Totals	100%	324	22%	12	93%	340

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Appendix H18

Table 18

PJ Fit: Responsibilities

	Job Postings		Interviews		Standards	Totals	
Attribute	%	F	%	F	F	%	F
Learning	73%	124	44%	18	6	76%	171
Leadership	77%	101	44%	15	3	79%	133
Management	69%	99	22%	3	0	66%	105
Culture	56%	59	22%	8	1	53%	72
Instruction	52%	56	44%	8	6	59%	72
Teaching	73%	55	0%	0	1	62%	56
Time	56%	41	44%	9	2	55%	52
Relationships	42%	25	44%	14	2	48%	48
Resources	46%	40	11%	1	5	41%	46
Data	44%	29	44%	9	1	48%	43
Totals	100%	1,116	100%	157	134	100%	1,407

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Appendix H9

Table 19

PJ Fit: Duties

	Job Postings		Interviews		Standards	Totals	
Attribute	%	F	%	F	F	%	F
Manage	69%	99	22%	3	5	62%	107
Develop	65%	81	22%	2	4	59%	87
Know	58%	72	22%	11	0	52%	83
Maintain	50%	74	0%	0	0	41%	74
Implement	46%	60	0%	0	2	40%	62
Demonstrate	50%	58	0%	0	1	43%	59
Support	48%	50	22%	2	4	45%	56
Supervise	63%	52	0%	0	1	53%	53
Provide	38%	53	0%	0	0	31%	53
Promote	40%	32	11%	1	13	36%	46
Totals	100%	1,634	100%	9	110	100%	1,818

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Appendix H20

Table 20

PJ Fit: Characteristics

	Job Postings		Interviews		Standards	Totals	
Attribute	%	F	%	F	F	%	F
Effective	56%	65	0%	0	2	48%	67
Experienced	71%	58	33%	4	0	64%	62
Successful	48%	53	0%	0	0	40%	53
Strong	44%	48	0%	0	0	36%	48
Leader, instructional	40%	27	33%	6	0	38%	33
Communicator	40%	29	0%	0	0	33%	29
Leader, educational	15%	9	0%	0	12	22%	21
Decision-maker	33%	19	0%	0	0	28%	19
Excellent	33%	18	0%	0	0	28%	18
Leader, collaborative	25%	18	0%	0	0	21%	18
Relational	25%	18	0%	0	0	21%	18
Totals	100%	701	44%	30	32	91%	763

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Appendix H21

Table 21

Applicant Recruitment: PO Fit

Attribute	Job Postings		Interviews		Surveys			Totals	
	%	F	%	F	Y	S	N	%	F
Culture & Climate	67%	63	50%	3	3	0	0	59%	69
District Description	60%	45	25%	2	0	0	0	52%	47
Diversity and Cultural Responsive	73%	40	0%	0	0	0	0	60%	40
Specified Site	71%	32	0%	0	0	0	0	59%	32
Community Description	25%	18	25%	2	3	0	0	28%	23
PLTs or PLCs	29%	20	50%	3	0	0	0	28%	23
Performance and Evaluator	13%	18	25%	1	0	0	0	12%	19
District Administrative Roles	17%	17	25%	2	0	0	0	16%	19
Special Education	23%	13	0%	0	0	0	0	19%	13
High School	27%	13	0%	0	0	0	0	22%	13
Totals	100%	360	75%	13	6	0	4	93%	382

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Y—Yes: number of times when participants used a practice or attribute

S—Sometimes: number of times when participants occasionally used a practice or attribute

N—No: number of times when participants did not use a practice or attribute

Appendix H22

Table 22

Candidate Selection Summary

Attribute	Job Postings		Interviews		Surveys			Totals	
	%	F	%	F	Y	S	N	%	F
Candidate Selection	52%	175	100%	210	125	3	38	59%	551
Strategic	50%	63	100%	71	37	2	1	57%	174
Traditional	51%	99	100%	45	36	0	15	57%	195
Applicant Screening	52%	85	100%	55	32	2	2	60%	176
Strategic	23%	25	100%	34	13	2	1	35%	75
Traditional	50%	60	100%	21	19	0	1	58%	101
Selection Practices	52%	75	75%	36	13	0	9	58%	133
Strategic	50%	38	75%	18	5	0	0	51%	61
Traditional	48%	37	75%	18	8	0	9	49%	72
Assessment Practices	4%	2	50%	25	28	0	5	16%	60
Strategic	0%	0	50%	19	19	0	0	11%	38
Traditional	4%	2	75%	6	9	0	5	16%	22
Interview Practices	23%	13	100%	94	52	1	22	35%	182

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Y—Yes: number of times when participants used a practice or attribute

S—Sometimes: number of times when participants occasionally used a practice or attribute

N—No: number of times when participants did not use a practice or attribute

Appendix H23

Table 23

Candidate Selection: Strategic Applicant Screening

	Job Postings		Interviews		Surveys			Totals	
Practice	%	F	%	F	Y	S	N	%	F
Strategic Screening	23%	25	100%	34	13	2	1	35%	75
Internal or GYOP	0%	0	75%	4	1	0	0	7%	5
Search firm	2%	1	0%	0	1	0	0	4%	2
Minority applicants and Equity	10%	6	100%	5	2	2	1	25%	16
Screening Form	0%	0	25%	3	1	0	0	4%	4
Stakeholder input	0%	0	100%	9	2	0	0	11%	11
Candidate knows steps in process	10%	18	50%	4	3	0	0	18%	25
Point system to rate	0%	0	50%	5	3	0	0	9%	8
Experience congruent to need	0%	0	50%	3	0	0	0	4%	3
Volunteer work	0%	0	25%	1	0	0	0	2%	1
Applicant Screening Totals	52%	85	100%	55	32	2	2	60%	176

AS—Applicant Screening

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Y—Yes: number of times when participants used a practice or attribute

S—Sometimes: number of times when participants occasionally used a practice or attribute

N—No: number of times when participants did not use a practice or attribute

Appendix H24

Table 24

Candidate Selection: Traditional Applicant Screening

	Job Postings		Interviews		Surveys			Totals	
Practice	%	F	%	F	Y	S	N	%	F
Traditional Screening	50%	60	100%	21	19	0	1	58%	101
Check for application completion	10%	5	100%	6	4	0	1	25%	16
Review Letters/References	44%	24	100%	6	5	0	0	53%	35
Reviewing resumes	44%	21	100%	4	5	0	0	53%	30
Evaluating Transcripts	17%	8	0%	0	4	0	0	21%	12
Application review	2%	1	75%	3	1	0	0	9%	5
Pre-reference check	2%	1	25%	2	0	0	0	4%	3
AS Totals	52%	85	100%	55	32	2	2	60%	176

AS—Applicant Screening

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Y—Yes: number of times when participants used a practice or attribute

S—Sometimes: number of times when participants occasionally used a practice or attribute

N—No: number of times when participants did not use a practice or attribute

Appendix H25

Table 25

Candidate Selection: Characteristics

	Job Postings		Interviews		Standards	Totals	
Practice	%	F	%	F	F	%	F
Leadership	77%	101	100%	15	3	74%	119
Manager	69%	99	50%	3	5	62%	107
Experience	71%	58	75%	4	0	64%	62
Support	48%	50	50%	2	4	45%	56
Relationships	42%	25	100%	14	2	43%	41
Promote	40%	32	25%	1	13	36%	46
Data	44%	29	100%	9	1	45%	39
Improve	33%	25	50%	6	0	31%	31
Collaborate	44%	31	25%	2	4	40%	37
Leader, instructional	40%	27	75%	6	0	38%	33
Totals	88%	594	100%	90	43	83%	727

%-Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute
 F-Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Appendix H26

Table 26

Candidate Selection: Strategic Selection Practices

SP	Job Postings		Interviews		Surveys			Totals	
Practice	%	F	%	F	Y	S	N	%	F
Strategic SP	50%	38	75%	18	5	0	0	51%	61
Writing sample	50%	33	0%	0	2	0	0	46%	35
Site Visit/Building tour	2%	2	75%	6	0	0	0	7%	8
Open-ended questions used	0%	0	50%	4	3	0	0	9%	7
Repost position	0%	0	25%	3	0	0	0	2%	3
Teaching Eval and Feedback	2%	1	50%	2	0	0	0	5%	3
Community Evaluation / Parent Night	0%	0	50%	2	0	0	0	4%	2
On demand activities	2%	1	25%	1	0	0	0	4%	2
Writing activities	2%	1	0%	0	0	0	0	2%	1
Presentation	0%	0	0%	0	0	0	0	0%	0
SP Totals	52%	75	75%	36	13	0	9	58%	133

SP—Selection Practices

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Y—Yes: number of times when participants used a practice or attribute

S—Sometimes: number of times when participants occasionally used a practice or attribute

N—No: number of times when participants did not use a practice or attribute

Appendix H27

Table 27

Candidate Selection: Traditional Selection Practices

SP	Job Postings		Interviews		Surveys			Totals	
Practice	%	F	%	F	Y	S	N	%	F
Traditional SP	48%	37	75%	18	8	0	9	49%	72
Reference and background checks	48%	28	50%	2	0	0	0	44%	30
Interview	17%	5	75%	10	5	0	0	28%	20
Review Assessment Center Results	0%	0	0%	0	1	0	4	9%	5
Interview 2nd round	4%	2	50%	2	1	0	0	9%	5
Group Interview	0%	0	0%	0	0	0	5	9%	5
Video interview	4%	2	50%	2	0	0	0	7%	4
Interview 3rd	0%	0	50%	2	1	0	0	5%	3
SP Totals	52%	75	75%	36	13	0	9	58%	133

SP—Selection Practices

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Y—Yes: number of times when participants used a practice or attribute

S—Sometimes: number of times when participants occasionally used a practice or attribute

N—No: number of times when participants did not use a practice or attribute

Appendix H28

Table 28

Candidate Selection: Interview Practices

	Job Postings		Interviews		Surveys			Totals	
Practice	%	F	%	F	Y	S	N	%	F
Established Process	23%	13	75%	9	2	1	2	33%	25
Predetermined questions	0%	0	75%	11	2	0	3	14%	13
Develop questions	0%	0	75%	8	0	0	0	5%	8
Interview participant: DO admin	0%	0	100%	4	4	0	1	16%	8
Interview participant: teachers	0%	0	50%	2	5	0	0	12%	7
1–2 years since last hire	0%	0	75%	3	4	0	0	12%	7
Criteria based on job analysis/description	0%	0	50%	2	4	0	1	12%	6
Criteria reviewed/revised periodically	0%	0	50%	2	4	0	1	12%	6
Question development with stakeholder input	0%	0	50%	4	2	0	0	7%	6
Committee Formation	0%	0	25%	1	5	0	0	11%	6
Totals	23%	13	100%	94	52	1	22	35%	160

SP—Selection Practices

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Y—Yes: number of times when participants used a practice or attribute

S—Sometimes: number of times when participants occasionally used a practice or attribute

N—No: number of times when participants did not use a practice or attribute

Appendix H29

Table 29

Candidate Selection: Strategic Assessment Practices

	Job Postings		Interviews		Surveys			Totals	
Practice	%	F	%	F	Y	S	N	%	F
Strategic Assessment Practices	0%	0	50%	19	19	0	0	11%	38
Point system to rate	0%	0	50%	5	3	0	0	9%	8
Interviewers take notes	0%	0	50%	2	4	0	0	11%	6
Compare candidates' responses	0%	0	50%	3	3	0	0	9%	6
Relevance of training & Experiences to job	0%	0	50%	4	2	0	0	7%	6
Preprinted checklists	0%	0	50%	4	1	0	0	5%	5
Records retained to validate against future performance	0%	0	0%	0	2	0	0	4%	2
Analysis of candidates' personalities	0%	0	0%	0	2	0	0	4%	2
Community Evaluation	0%	0	25%	1	0	0	0	2%	1
Analysis of body language	0%	0	0%	0	1	0	0	2%	1
Analysis of overt behavioral traits	0%	0	0%	0	1	0	0	2%	1
AP Totals	4%	2	50%	25	28	0	5	14%	60

AP—Assessment Practices

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Y—Yes: number of times when participants used a practice or attribute

S—Sometimes: number of times when participants occasionally used a practice or attribute

N—No: number of times when participants did not use a practice or attribute

Appendix H30

Table 30

Candidate Selection: Traditional Assessment Practices

Practice	Job Postings		Interviews		Surveys			Totals	
	%	F	%	F	Y	S	N	%	F
Traditional Assessment Practices	4%	2	75%	6	9	0	5	16%	22
Interview greater than app packet	0%	0	75%	3	4	0	0	12%	7
Interview sole selection tool	0%	0	0%	0	0	0	5	9%	5
Board approval of finalist contract	4%	2	0%	0	2	0	0	7%	4
Selection based on intuition/common sense	0%	0	75%	2	1	0	0	7%	3
Concentrate on candidate's strengths	0%	0	0%	0	2	0	0	4%	2
Committee Recommendation to Hire	0%	0	25%	1	0	0	0	2%	1
Assessment Practice Totals	4%	2	50%	25	28	0	5	14%	60

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Y—Yes: number of times when participants used a practice or attribute

S—Sometimes: number of times when participants occasionally used a practice or attribute

N—No: number of times when participants did not use a practice or attribute

Appendix H31

Table 31

Principal Development Practices

	Job Postings		Interviews		Surveys			Totals	
Practice	%	F	%	F	Y	S	N	%	F
Growth & Development	2%	1	100%	26	0	0	0	9%	27
Supervision & Evaluation	10%	5	75%	20	0	0	0	14%	25
District Admin Capacity	0%	0	100%	41	0	0	0	7%	41
Research or Framework	0%	0	100%	17	0	0	0	7%	17
Coaching / Mentorship	6%	6	100%	9	0	0	0	12%	15
PLCs	13%	7	50%	2	0	0	0	14%	9
Collaborative	0%	0	100%	9	0	0	0	7%	9
Needs Based	6%	4	75%	4	0	0	0	11%	8
Professional Growth Plan	6%	4	75%	4	0	0	0	11%	8
Inquiry	0%	0	100%	6	0	0	0	7%	6
Administrative Standards	0%	0	75%	6	0	0	0	5%	6
Promotion plan	0%	0	0%	0	2	1	2	9%	5
Totals	52%	38	100%	97	2	1	7	60%	140

%—Percentage of the sources (Job Posting, Interviews, or OEL/AS) containing an attribute

F—Frequency: the number of occurrences of an attribute or practice in the study

Y—Yes: number of times when participants used a practice or attribute.

S—Sometimes: number of times when participants occasionally used a practice or attribute.

N—No: number of times when participants did not use a practice or attribute.

Appendix H32

Table 32

Statistically Significant Relationships/Associations: District Applicant Attraction

District Variable	Value	Minority Posting Recruitment	Craft Job Description & Duties	Admin Experience	Effective
Ethnicity	r_s	0.422*	0.346*		
	p	0.014	0.048		
Discipline	r_s	0.422**	0.457**		0.371*
	p	0.010	0.007		0.033
Languages	r_s	0.428*	0.426*	0.454**	0.372*
	p	0.013	0.013	0.008	0.033
ELL	r_s	0.461**	0.447*		0.376*
	p	0.007	0.009		0.038
Enrollment	r_s	0.430*	0.422*		0.398*
	p	0.013	0.014		0.022
SBA Math	r_s	0.373*		0.424*	
	p	0.032		0.014	
Teachers	r_s	0.445**	0.443**	0.145*	0.405*
	p	0.010	0.010	0.016	0.019
Schools	r_s	0.479**	0.487**	0.403*	0.400*
	p	0.005	0.004	0.020	0.021
Student-Teacher Ratio	r_s			0.493**	
	p			0.008	

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Appendix H33

Table 33

Statistically Significant Relationships/Associations: School Applicant Attraction

District Variable		Collaborative Leader	Instructional Leader	Educational Leader	Advertise & Recruit
Enrollment	r_s		0.390*		
	p		0.025		
SBA Math	r_s	0.490**			0.347*
	p	0.004			0.048
Teachers	r_s		0.390*		
	p		0.025		
Schools	r_s		0.363*		
	p		0.038		
Student-Teacher Ratio	r_s				0.358*
	p				0.041
EconDis	r_s	-0.513**			
	p	0.002			
SBA ELA	r_s	0.486**			
	p	0.004			
Mobility	r_s			0.453**	
	p			0.008	

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Appendix H34

Table 34

Spearman's Correlation Results for Applicant Attraction and Contextual Variables

District Variable		Organizational Skills	People Skills	Build Support	Compensation & Incentives
SpEd	r_s	-0.399*	-0.348*	-0.355*	
	p	0.022	0.047	0.043	
EconDis	r_s	-0.452**			
	p	.008			
SBA ELA	r_s		0.362*		
	p		0.039		
SBA Math	r_s		0.408*		
	p		0.018		
Ethnicity	r_s				0.385*
	p				0.027

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).