Elucidating Organizational Readiness of K12 Schools in United States for Online Education

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Abstract: The main purpose of this study is to strategically map the organizational readiness of K12 schools in the USA for online education. Data for this study were collected using questionnaires. Of 500 teachers who were sent invitations in charter schools in the USA, 130 sent back their responses. Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS software. The results of the study show that variables such as cultural readiness, cognitive readiness, and stategic readiness were not fundamental variables, but were mediator variables. These varibales emerge over time as a consequence of school administrations' IT strategies, technical and tight partnerships with IT companies, and directing their financial resources to online education. The study concludes that in order to be ready for online education, first of all, employees must be ready for it in a cognitive sense, and online education processes must become a culture within the organization.

Keywords: Organizational Readiness, Online Education, Information Technologies, Strategic Planning, Education

1. Introduction

Educational institutions attempt to make the most of technology to support inspired teaching and interactive curriculum, thus learners are able to learn in the ways that they would admire. Favorably, this is in tandem with Y and Z generations who grew up with the Internet and are well familiar with online communicative environment. Hence, the importance of online education is indispensable. Most certainly, such importance has been intensified and accelerated after the outbreak of Covid-19.

In a report titled *"A National Primer on K-12 Online Learning"* by NACOL (2006), it was illustrated that 38 American states had provided state-led online education programs and policies that regulated online learning. Although the report stated the benefits of online education for students, parents, educators and administrators and policy makers, it admitted that there are few readily available resources.

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In supporting this view, Keramati et al., (2011) revealed that students are more knowledgeable and comfortable with new technologies like Internet and multimedia but difficulties and doubts arise from management and teachers when an attempt is made to implement online education in high schools within the Iranian context. This is because the former still do not believe in the system and therefore they do not support it and for the latter, the problem is their attitude toward the system that is not right.

Although organizational capability to change is considered as the most important elements that affect life expectancy, over about 70% of all major change intentions and initiatives are failed (Meaney & Pung, 2008; Tannenbaum, 2006); thus, topics like organizational reediness need continual investigations. In a similar vein, much research (e.g. Lokuge et al., 2019; Gartner 2009; Larsen and Roberts, 1971) confirms that firms lose considerable opportunities due to their lack of readiness.

Due to the unexpected impact of Coronavirus disease, the changes experienced by organizations especially educational establishments over the last two years remain unprecedented (Demir & Budur, 2022). Precisely, the debate about organizational readiness in relation to online education has gained renewed prominence. However, to date, the problem has received scant attention in the research literature. Therefore, this study makes a major contribution to research on illuminating organizational readiness of K12 schools in United States for online education. In short, a systematic understanding of how variables, such as resources readiness, partnership readiness, cognitive readiness cultural readiness, strategic readiness, IT readiness and innovation readiness, contribute to organizational reediness in relation to online education is still lacking

Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to strategically map the organizational readiness of K12 schools in the USA for online education. The study is specifically aiming to understand what variable, among abovementioned variables, have the most direct and strongest effect on organizational readiness.

The study is conducted in the form of a survey, with data being gathered via emails. The questionnaires obtained from the model by Lokuge et al. (2019) and then the study aims to develop the model accordingly.

While a variety of definitions in the field, e.g. e-learning, virtual schools, cyber-schools distance learning, have been suggested, this study will use both terms of online education and online learning that take place via internet.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Organizational Readiness

For Weiner (2009), the term organizational readiness for change has been used to refer to situations in which psychological and behavioral preparedness of organizational members have little restriction to implement change. This means organization member is more likely to accept change initiatives, endure obstacles or burden during the process and even engage in cooperative or even championing behaviour in support of the change effort when organizational readiness is high (Weiner, 2009). Adding to the term readiness, drawing from previous studies, Lokuge et al. (2019) argue that readiness is a state that is reached before the commencement of a specific activity, it can be seen from multiple levels and then be analyzed at the individual, group, unit and organization level. Moreover, readiness is not dichotomous variable of

being "ready" or "not ready but rather as a degree of readiness in a continuum. A further explanation of readiness is given by Holt et al. (2007) who describe readiness for change as a comprehensive attitude that is influenced concurrently by the content "what", the process "how", the context "where", and the individuals "who" involved. Therefore, what it can be said that the nature of organizational readiness is multi-dimensional, which means there is no one who perfected it, and it is a continuous activity. Specifically, it is a state of being both psychological (willing) and behaviorally (ability) prepared to take action (Wang et al., 2020). Within education sector multiple terms are used for readiness such as learner readiness, instructor's readiness, readiness for learning, readiness for teaching, classroom readiness of graduate teachers, readiness for change, policy design and readiness for policy implementation (Coburn *et al.,* 2016).

Studies have shown that organizations with learning orientation agenda (Baker & Sinkula, 1999) are better prepared to engage in promoting and helping internal stakeholders adopt emerging technologies and develop new skills, and design innovative products (Quinton et al., 2018). Conversely, despite the fact that digital technologies have grown exponentially, and their use has globalized with easiness, accessibility and availability futures, about 90% of new ideas never reach the customers (Lokuge et al., 2019) and organizations miss many opportunities or struggle to reap the full innovation potential owing to the absence of organizational readiness (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). A recent systematic literature review by Wang et al. (2020, p.7) states that "failure to establish sufficient readiness accounts for one half of unsuccessful organizational change efforts". Thus, Sharma et al. (2018) remind those who are involving (e.g. managers, policy makers) in change implementation should take organizational readiness into consideration before the change program is prescribed to relevant people.

2.2 Cultural Readiness

Organizational culture is a set of assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration (Schein, 1990). Understanding culture within an organization may have played a vital role in bringing about new transition. To confirm that, Lee et al. (2016) show cultural readiness as an organization's ability to adapt to desired transition and it is seen as a factor that is well contributing to the progress of adaptation to innovation (Lokuge & Sedera, 2020). Scholars (e.g. Lokuge et al., 2019; Weiner; 2009; Jones et al. 2005; Weeks et al., 2004) highlighted that contextual factors like organizational culture which supports change and innovation and learning requirement have greater readiness for change. Further, DiLiello and Houghton (2006) place an emphasis on the existing organizational culture and climate are one that encourages, nurtures and enhances student creativity; thus, they assert that teachers must be well-aware about it.

2.3 Strategic Readiness

The term strategic readiness refers to all managerial activities that an establishment engages in to facilitate digital innovation (Lokuge et al., 2019). Strategic readiness offers the knowledge that joins a plan of actions and forms the guidelines for compliance in digital innovation. Phan and Dang (2017) state that understanding faculties' attitudes will be valuable for the school administrators to have strategic plans to support and motivate them to participate in the adoption of e-learning with willingness (Demir, 2020). Administrators, leaders and faculty governing bodies need to regularly re-examine institutional policies

regarding faculty incentives, especially in this era of declining financial resources. Perhaps most importantly, campus leaders need to identify strategies to acknowledge and recognize the additional time and effort faculty invest in online as compared to face-to-face teaching and learning. Apart from training employees on digital technologies and gadgets, managers should also conduct training programs that would help employees align with organizational vision, mission and values, which can result in IWB in organizations, ultimately, in increased organizational effectiveness (Aboobaker & Renjini, 2020). Aboobaker and Zakkariya (2021) are of the opinion that intended changes within an educational organization impose both teachers and administrators to delineate and align activities that distinguish itself from its competitors and add value to the competitive advantage at all levels. McCarthy (2009) points out that online learning plan cannot meet specified strategic goals without an engaged and supported faculty. McCarthy (2009) added that there are still unsolved problems about which teachers are expressing their concern as they view online learning as time consuming, lack of support for online development and teaching and these supports do not appear to include sufficient incentives and policies to promote the broadest possible engagement of faculty in an institution's online learning endeavors. Overall, studies (Budur et al., 2021; Nilsen et al., 2018; Phan & Dang, 2017; Allen & Seaman, 2013; McCarthy, 2009) suggests that leaders and administrators must acknowledge and recognize the time and effort element and put in place some visible strategies (policies, programs, or procedures) to address above mentioned issues. In short, several strategic activities such clear vision, leadership commitment, clear communication and training related to building adequate IT infrastructure are considered as the most important to have an effective online education (Aydinli & Arslan, 2016; Budur et al., 2021; Ammirato et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2016).

2.4 IT Readiness

For companies to adopt IT innovation, it is required that they unfreeze, freeze, and refreeze their resources, comparable to that of the three-period model of change (Lewin, 1951). In this regard, drawing on an extensive range of resources (Mergel & Bretschneider, 2013; Hameed et al., 2012; Kim & Garrison, 2010; Yu & Tao, 2009; Thong et al., 2006), Ammirato et al. (2019) argue that there are three broad categories of the IT innovation which are often referred to as initiation (pre-adoption), adoption decision and implementation (post-adoption). Each step entails various activities that organizations, management and all individuals who are involved must incur. For instance, first phase encompasses some activities such as consciousness towards change, recognition of a need; collect relevant information and proposing innovation for adoption whereas the second phase is related to the acceptance of idea and evaluate the proposed technology from a technical, strategic and financial viewpoint The last phase which is the implementation phase covers acquisition of the innovation, acceptance of it by recipients and actual use of IT and reutilization in organizational process signify the ultimate goal of the technology adoption process (Hameed et al., 2012; Mergel & Bretschneider, 2013; Klein & Sorra, 1996). Most importantly, throughout all these stages managers need to learn about innovation's existence, identify key features of innovation, verify its appropriateness for institutions' purposes and provide resources for innovation acquisition and implementation (Ammirato et al., 2019; Mergel and Bretschneider, 2013).

Patrick (2011) points out that the transformative potential of online learning for K-12 section can be understood by providing technology infrastructure. This includes virtual learning environment, internet

access and digital devices, learning management systems, professional development programs for teachers in online and blended mode which are student centered; and evaluation redesign to performance-based, demonstration of learning using multiple measures, and immediate feedback of learning.

2.5 Innovation Valance

The elements, which are centered in innovation valance, are including the level of employees' motivation and empowerment provided by organizations. Valence denotes the perceptions of the people who are involved of change, either the individual or organization, to believe that the potential change can certainly produce favorite benefits (Armenakis & Harris, 2009). In relation to innovation, for Rogers (1995) innovation means an object, idea, or practice that is perceived as new by the unit of adoption. From a managerial perspective, innovation purpose according to Drucker (1985) is to identify change in firms to create new opportunities or to better exploit the existing ones.

Change valance refers to the individual commitment towards digital innovation (Kiveu et al., 2019; Ozturk et al., 2017). It seems that change valance is all about individual's willingness to accept or reject the change. Kilani (2021) claims and uses innovative valance instead of change valance as the concept of the former is derived from the latter (Lokuge et al., 2019).

Innovative valance is defined by Kilani (2021, p. 5) "as the extent wherein employee shows positive attitude towards adoption of information technology" or it "measures the positivity the stakeholders have toward digital innovation" (Lokuge et al., 2019, p. 450). In short, the way employees within organizations see intended change influence their thoughts, actions, behaviors and support towards the change. For example, if individuals perceive their interests are under threat as a consequence of the change, it is highly expected to increase their resistance. Kilani (2021) hypothesized that there is a strong link between intention to adopt e-government services and actual use of e-government services when innovation valance is higher. This hypothesis is well confirmed by several studies (Armenakis et al., 2007; Lokuge et al., 2018) which show that innovation valance significantly impacts on user adoption of online services.

2.6 Cognitive Readiness

The term cognitive readiness has come to be used to refer to knowledge perception and implication within the institutions (Demir et al., 2021). Specifically, the term encompasses individual's abilities and availability to solve problems in relation to the process of digitalization (Lokuge et al., 2019) and competencies that assist employees to use required devices and technologies for innovative improvements (Adigüzel & Aydinli, 2016.; Yusof et al., 2010).

For effective online teaching, Martin et al. (2019) identified four competencies that that is subsumed under the framework to develop and validate the Faculty Readiness to Teach Online (FRTO). First competence includes interaction and communication ability in which they (Martin et al. 2019) assert that teachers need to provide learners with timely responses and feedback and facilitate and participate in discussions. Second competence is course design which includes development of content and instructional events, facilitation, and assessment. The third competence is teacher's technical competence which covers technical skills such as technical knowledge, skills, and abilities related to systems, platforms, and instructional technology that instructors are required to utilize. Lastly, have an effective time management during the

delivery of the course. This is because monitoring student progress and supporting online learners can be time consuming. Bolliger and Halupa (2021) find that teachers with confidence to teach online are more equipped and prepared for the task than those who are less confident. They (Bolliger & Halupa, 2021) indicate some factors that affect teacher's confidence negatively. These factors include lack of skill or organizational support, issues with the delivery format and technology, concerns for students, integrity of assessments, time constraints, and workload issues. Some researchers (e.g. Lichoro, 2015; Downing & Dyment, 2013) are of the opinion that unprepared teachers and their perception in terms of online education as time-consuming have significant negative effect on the perception of the students about e-learning.

2.7 Partnership Readiness

Partnership readiness can be broadly described as the affiliation of external stakeholders to an institution's digital innovation (Lokuge et al., 2019). For digital innovation, this is all about building and maintaining a close relationship with software and hardware vendor's venders, suppliers, customers (e.g. students) and management consultants (Budur et al., 2021; Lokuge et al., 2019; Haney, 2002). With no doubt, partnership readiness within education institutions play a significant role to guarantee and deliver promised online education plan. In a recent cross-sectional study, which was conducted in high education sector in the Kurdistan Region-Iraq, Budur et al. (2021) argue the importance of partnership readiness and revealed that the biggest challenge facing online education is to find the factual and appropriate software for online education within universities in the Kurdistan region. The majority of universities used Zoom software program during the pandemic-Covid-19- (Demir et al., 2020) but online education required more complex and consistent software to assess student performances, attendances, and deliver a quality education (Budur et al., 2021).

2.8 Resource Readiness

For some novel researchers the term resource readiness is overlapping with IT readiness, even slightly confusing meanings. Lokuge et al. (2019, p.450), however, clearly defined it "as the flexibility of a shared set of financial, technology, and human resources that provide the foundation on which digital innovation can be delivered upon". In their study Lokuge et al., (2019), put an emphasis on its flexibility rather than availability by that they mean financial flexibility, human resource flexibility and IT infrastructure flexibility which is all considered as determinants of digital innovation. Jennett et al. (2003) confirm that available instruments should be suitable for the required jobs and should be available safely and conveniently so that it can positively affect the institutions' performance. In tandem with schools' financial aspect, teachers play a crucial role in the execution of the internet learning environment. More than the required technical support, they have to possess the unique set of tools, skills and personal attributes to do online teaching and online environment administration successfully (Mercado, 2008). From abovementioned, it can be concluded that the presence of skillful people, non-rigid financial sources and the flexibility of the IT infrastructure are considered as significant factors to develop innovations and represent resources readiness.

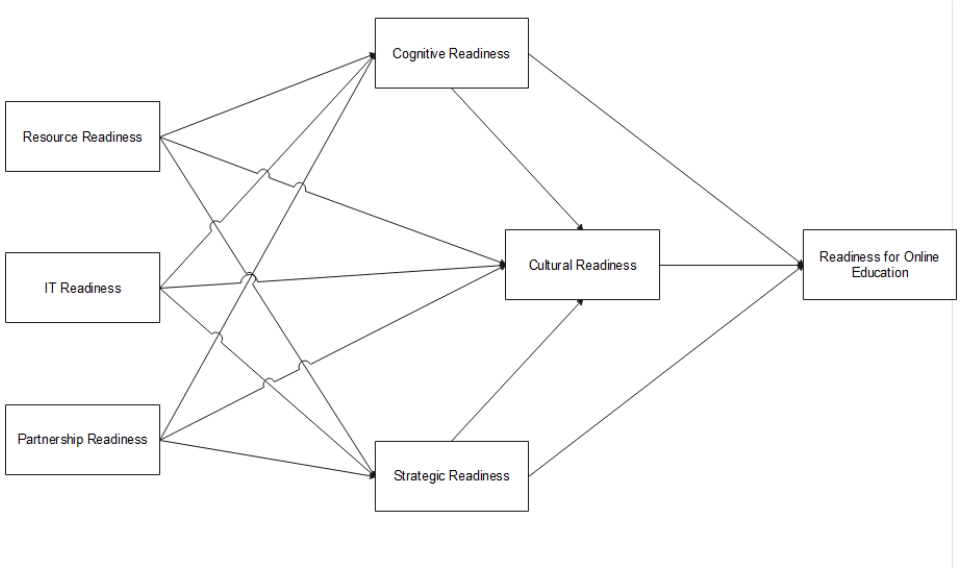

Figure 1: Hypothesized framework

3. Methodology

3.1 Purpose

The purpose of this study is to develop a map of the organizational preparation of K12 schools in the United States of America for online education. In this sense, Lokuge et al., The questionnaire obtained from the (2019) model was adapted to this study and the model development was aimed accordingly.

3.2 Sampling

The study was generally applied in charter schools in the New York state and data were collected from these schools. Initially, questionnaires were sent to approximately 500 teachers working in these schools via email, but 150 teachers completed the questionnaire and submitted feedback. When the feedback was examined with the naked eye, 20 of them were not included in the analysis because they were missing data or incomplete questionnaires, and the analyses were continued with only the remaining 130 data. In this sense, it has been observed that the response rate is around 30%. In addition, the information of the participants is given in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of sample

Age	Frequency	%
18 - 25	5	3,8
26 - 35	58	44,6
36 - 45	47	36,2
46 - 55	17	13,1
56+	3	2,3
Total	130	100,0
Gender		
Female	61	46,9
Male	69	53,1
Total	130	100,0
Position		
Other Staff	47	36,2
Principal	9	6,9
Teacher	74	56,9
Total	130	100,0
Experience		
1 - 3 years	28	21,5
4 - 6 years	31	23,8
7 - 10 years	30	23,1
11 - 15 years	19	14,6
15+ years	22	16,9
Total	130	100,0

3.3 Procedures

First of all, the obtained data were subjected to validity and reliability analysis. The data whose validity and reliability were proven were tested and detailed using the partial least squares method. As a result of the detailed model, a strategic map was drawn on the variables that had a significant effect, and practical recommendations were made for the administrators in the light of this strategic map in the conclusion part.

4. Research Findings

4.1 Validity and Reliability

Before the model was tested, it was subjected to validity and reliability tests. Analyses were performed using IBM SPSS software. Analyses were made using the Principles component analysis module, and varimax was used in the rotation method. Table 2 shows the results of the analysis.

Table 2: Results of EFA

	Mean	STD. DEV.	Communalities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
RR1	5,62	1,332	0,798					0,852				
RR2	5,59	1,334	0,856					0,809				
RR3	5,72	1,341	0,795					0,783				
CR1	5,51	1,277	0,714		0,524							
CR2	4,74	1,640	0,499		0,595							
CR3	5,28	1,245	0,653		0,729							
SR1	5,14	1,488	0,785						0,762			
SR2	5,26	1,423	0,687						0,713			
SR3	5,32	1,421	0,723						0,714			
ITR1	5,52	1,410	0,753							0,710		
ITR2	6,18	1,070	0,666							0,753		
ITR3	5,84	1,262	0,746							0,706		
IV1	5,18	1,357	0,776	0,601								
IV2	5,62	1,222	0,676	0,597								
IV3	5,20	1,577	0,631	0,576								
COG R1	5,17	1,324	0,793			0,609						
COG R2	5,30	1,125	0,736			0,559						
COG R3	5,54	1,221	0,796			0,654						
PR1	5,05	1,284	0,833				0,842					
PR2	4,92	1,312	0,790				0,783					
PR3	5,07	1,289	0,799				0,818					
GM1	5,60	1,298	0,710									0,609
GM2	5,48	1,410	0,609									0,485
Readness1	5,03	1,509	0,782								0,741	
Readness2	5,50	1,259	0,758								0,656	
Readness3	5,08	1,473	0,813								0,758	
Exp. Var.				14%	11%	9%	7%	5%	5%	3%	3%	2%

When Table 2 is examined, the mean and standard deviation results are on the left side of the table. Data were collected using a 7-point Likert scale. Accordingly, since the median value was 3.5, the general values being above 5 resulted in an evaluation above the average. Secondly, the fact that the standard deviation values were close to 1, below 2, led to the judgment of a normal standard deviation value. Accordingly, it is understood that there is no general difference between the evaluators.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test results are expected to be at least 0.5; In this case, it can be concluded that the resulting groupings constitute a significant factorization. According to the results of the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in this study, it was observed that the KMO level was 0.9, and this result was above the adequate level. Another indicator, communalities, shows the variance loads of each item. Accordingly, it should be noted that these loads are not less than 0.50 (50%). Items that fall below the relevant value will be removed from the survey. When the communalities values of Table 2 were examined, no similar problem was encountered. All values were found to be above 0.5.

A survey must disclose at least 50% of the variance for that problem so that survey factors can be judged to be sufficient. The questionnaire in this study explained 59% of the total variance, and it was observed that it was sufficient at this point. In the last part of the validity analysis, whether rotated components are included in the planned factor group is a proof of its convergent validity. Secondly, the result of at least 0.1 when the factors under which it is not related are subtracted from the factor load on which it depends, is proof of discriminant validity. When the results in this study were examined, it was observed that each item was gathered under the required dimension and had the necessary distance from other factors. In this case, the validity of the questionnaire has been proven.

Table 3: Results of reliability analysis

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
RR1	11,29	6,194	0,744	0,866	0,885
RR2	11,34	5,722	0,828	0,791	
RR3	11,16	6,092	0,760	0,852	
CR1	10,01	6,353	0,584	0,679	0,756
CR2	10,76	4,845	0,592	0,691	
CR3	10,23	6,390	0,611	0,655	
SR1	10,57	6,716	0,788	0,809	0,879
SR2	10,43	7,368	0,734	0,856	
SR3	10,38	7,132	0,776	0,819	
ITR1	11,99	4,447	0,763	0,769	0,854
ITR2	11,36	6,338	0,628	0,886	
ITR3	11,70	4,788	0,820	0,704	
IV1	10,79	6,455	0,617	0,774	0,807
IV2	10,39	6,331	0,757	0,651	
IV3	10,80	5,477	0,621	0,790	
COGR1	10,84	4,803	0,845	0,852	0,910
COGR2	10,71	5,759	0,822	0,873	
COGR3	10,47	5,414	0,803	0,884	
PR1	9,98	6,046	0,813	0,881	0,912
PR2	10,12	5,938	0,808	0,885	
PR3	9,97	5,875	0,847	0,853	
GM1	5,48	1,988	0,725	-	0,839
GM2	5,60	1,684	0,725	-	
Readness1	10,58	6,446	0,841	0,835	0,903
Readness2	10,12	7,932	0,797	0,878	
Readness3	10,53	6,825	0,802	0,868	

The data, which passed the validity analysis successfully, were also subjected to the reliability test before the model test. Tested with IBM SPSS software's Cronbach's Alpha method. According to the results, the relevant value is expected to be at least 0.70.

As it is known, the basic meaning of reliability analysis is; It is the percentage of the probability of getting the same answers if the same questions are asked to the same people in the same settings. In this case, this percentage is expected to be at least 70%. When the results of this study were examined, it was observed that 75.6% and the highest reliability were 91%, and it was understood that the latent variables had sufficient reliability. Table 3 can be viewed for more details.

4.2 Hypotheses Testing

The survey data, whose reliability and validity have been proven, were finally subjected to causality analysis using the partial least squares method. The model previously visualized in Figure 1 has been tested here. The results of the analysis can be observed on the Figure 2 and Table secondly on the Table 4. Analysis results were obtained with the help of Smart PLS software.

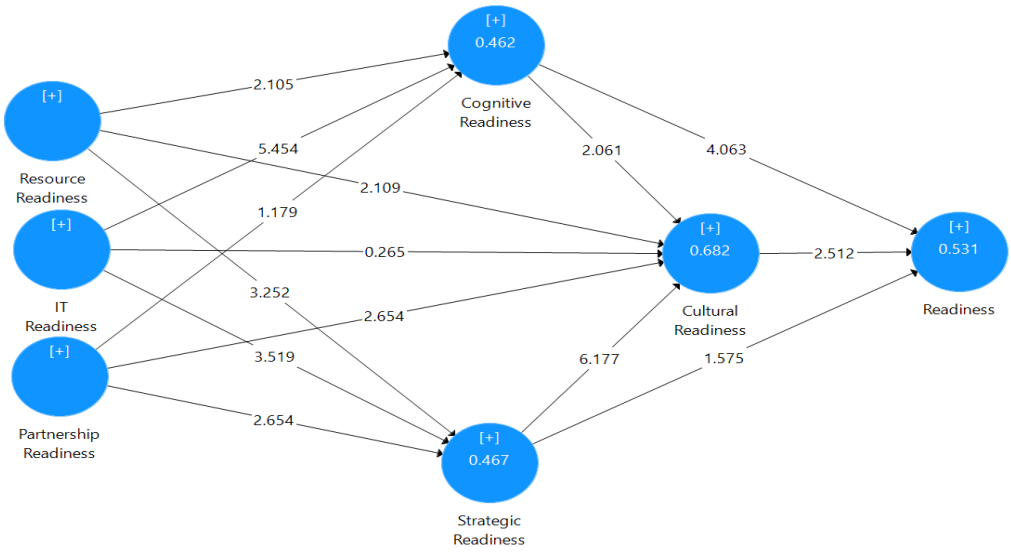

Figure 2: Results of the hypothesized framework

Table 4: Results of the hypothesized framework in table form

	Original Sample (O)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	P Values	Results
Cognitive Readiness -> Cultural Readiness	0.155	0.075	0.040	Significant
Cognitive Readiness -> Readiness	0.384	0.094	0.000	Significant
Cultural Readiness -> Readiness	0.258	0.103	0.012	Significant
IT Readiness -> Cognitive Readiness	0.524	0.096	0.000	Significant
IT Readiness -> Cultural Readiness	0.021	0.080	0.791	Not Significant
IT Readiness -> Strategic Readiness	0.350	0.099	0.000	Significant
Partnership Readiness -> Cognitive Readiness	0.097	0.082	0.239	Not Significant
Partnership Readiness -> Cultural Readiness	0.176	0.066	0.008	Significant
Partnership Readiness -> Strategic Readiness	0.247	0.093	0.008	Significant
Resource Readiness -> Cognitive Readiness	0.165	0.078	0.036	Significant
Resource Readiness -> Cultural Readiness	0.233	0.110	0.035	Significant
Resource Readiness -> Strategic Readiness	0.248	0.076	0.001	Significant
Strategic Readiness -> Cultural Readiness	0.468	0.076	0.000	Significant
Strategic Readiness -> Readiness	0.183		0.115	Not Significant

When the model results were examined, it was understood that the basic factors of organizational readiness for online education were cognitive readiness and cultural readiness. Besides, although strategic readiness was thought to be among these factors and tested accordingly, it was seen that this factor only affected organizational readiness through the dimension of cultural readiness.

According to the results, cognitive readiness ($\beta = 0.384$, $p<0.01$) and cultural readiness ($\beta = 0.258$, $p<0.05$) factors were found to have a significant effect on organizational readiness, while the effect of strategic readiness ($\beta = 0.183$, $p>0.05$) was significant. On the other hand, it was seen that strategic readiness had an effect on organizational readiness through cultural readiness. That is, strategic readiness has a significant effect on cultural readiness ($\beta = 0.468$, $p<0.01$), cultural readiness then affects organizational readiness, and in this case, strategic readiness indirectly affects organizational readiness.

According to the results, although cognitive readiness had an effect on organizational readiness over cultural readiness, its direct effect was found to be much stronger than its indirect effect. Accordingly, although it was seen that cultural readiness fully mediated strategic readiness, it was observed that it partially meditated cognitive readiness.

As can be seen in Figure 2, resource readiness, IT readiness, and partnership readiness dimensions were tested as the precursors of cognitive readiness, cultural readiness and strategic readiness. When the results

were analyzed, it was seen that resource readiness significantly affected cognitive readiness ($\beta = 0.165$, $p<0.05$), cultural readiness ($\beta = 0.233$, $p<0.05$), and strategic readiness ($\beta = 0.248$, $p<0.01$). It was determined that the impact of each of the resource readiness on all three factors was significant.

As the second dimension, it readiness had a significant effect on cognitive readiness a ($\beta = 0.524$, $p<0.01$) and strategic readiness ($\beta = 0.350$, $p<0.01$), while the effect of the factor on cultural readiness ($\beta = 0.021$, $p>0.05$) found to be meaningless.

Finally, while partnership readiness factor had a significant effect on cultural readiness ($\beta = 0.176$, $p<0.01$), and strategic readiness ($\beta = 0.247$, $p<0.01$) factors, its effect on cognitive readiness factor ($\beta = 0.097$, $p> 0.05$) was found to be insignificant.

5. Conclusions

The primary purpose of this study was to strategically map the organizational readiness of K12 schools in the USA for online education. Accordingly, statistical analyses were made with the data collected from the relevant schools in New York State and some conclusions were reached.

First, according to the model results obtained with the best model fit values, it was determined that the variables such as cultural readiness, cognitive readiness, and strategic readiness were not fundamental variables, but were mediator variables. Accordingly, cultural readiness, cognitive readiness, and strategic readiness emerge over time as a result of school administrations' IT strategies, technical and firm partnerships with IT companies, and directing their financial resources to online education. Especially when cognitive readiness and cultural readiness occur, it becomes organizationally ready for online education. However, strategic readiness does not turn into organizational readiness unless cultural readiness occurs.

According to these results, when educational institutions make the IT investments that have the most direct and strongest effect on cognitive readiness, share with their employees that they allocate sufficient financial resources and demonstrate these in practices, their employees will be cognitively ready for online training. In addition, the organizational readiness will be boosted if school administrations accelerate their partnership in terms of IT and make their employees ready in cultural and cognitive terms by organizing trainings and raising awareness, provided that their partners constantly visit K12 schools.

However, although all resources are strategically ready, it should never be forgotten that; In order to be ready for online education, first of all, employees must be ready for it in a cognitive sense, and online education processes must have become a culture within the organization. Otherwise, it would not be the right approach to assume that they will have a successful online progrm because they are strategically ready. Administrators should be aware that it will take time to develop.

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