AN ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION OF Sandie MacDonald for the degree of Doctor of Education in Learning, Leadership and Community presented on March 20, 2018.

Title: A Comparison between Gender and Years of Experience on School Principal's Job Autonomy and Social Support

Abstract approved:

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Efforts to address high levels of principal turnover in the United States have been largely focused on indicators of principal dissatisfaction as reported by those principals who left the position. Using a subset of the National Center for Education Statistics' (NCES) 2011-2012 School and Staffing Survey (SASS) and 2012-2013 Principal Follow-up Survey (PFS) dataset, this study provides an examination of indicators of principal satisfaction as reported by those principals who chose to remain in the position. Descriptive statistics and multiple independent samples *t*-tests are used to compare the mean levels of job autonomy and social support reported by principals in gender and experience groups. The results of the study can be used by state agencies and local school districts when predicting and examining principal turnover and retention.

A Comparison between Gender and Years of Experience on School Principal's Job Autonomy and Social Support

By

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I understand that my dissertation will become part of the permanent collection of Plymouth State University, Lamson Learning Commons. My signature below authorizes release of my dissertation to any reader upon request.

Sandie MacDonald, Author

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Chapter 1 - Introduction

The annual principal turnover rate in the United States (U.S.) has reached a national average of 30 percent and is significantly impeding school improvement efforts throughout the country (Beteille, Kalogrides, & Loeb, 2012; Goldring & Taie, 2014; Seashore-Louis, Wahlstrom, Leithwood, & Anderson, 2010;Tekleselassie & Villarreal III, 2011). The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) (2014) reported that 74 percent of the principals remaining in the position at the end of a school year had held that position for less than five years, and that 50 percent of the same group had less than five years of experience as a principal (Goldring & Taie, 2014). The research has shown that principals must remain in the school for a minimum of five years before educational progress can begin to be realized (Beteille et al., 2012; Branch, Hanushek, & Rivkin, 2012; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010). With the rising national focus on school improvement, this information calls attention to the urgent need to address principal turnover in our country.

Statement of the Problem

Several states, including New Hampshire, North Carolina, Texas, and Illinois have conducted multi-year principal turnover studies confirming the significance of the problem in retaining school principals. A twelve-year study in North Carolina revealed that half of all principals leave the position during their first four years of employment (Miller, 2009). A previous study in North Carolina reported an attrition rate of 52 percent after six years (Gates, Santibanez, Brown, Ghosh-Dastidar, & Chung, 2004). In Texas, a twelve-year study conducted by Fuller and Young (2009) found that 70 percent of newly

hired principals left the position within the first five years; 50 percent left during the first three years (Fuller & Young, 2009). Research conducted in Illinois between 1987 and 2001 disclosed a newly hired principal attrition rate of 62 percent (Ringel, Gates, Chung, Brown, & Ghosh-Dastidar, 2004). A 2017 draft report of certified principals and principal turnover in New Hampshire completed by the New Hampshire Department of Education (NH DOE) found an average four year turnover rate of 58 percent. Additionally, the NH DOE (2017) reported that only 36 percent of the educators with a principal certification held the position in 2016 (New Hampshire Department of Education, 2017). These studies were conducted over multiple year periods, netted similar results, and are consistent with the recent national data reported by NCES (2014). The preceding statistics accentuate the principal turnover problem in our country and highlight the need for valid and reliable information that can be used to reduce this problem that can impede school improvement efforts.

Purpose of the Study

Principal turnover is a national problem that must be addressed (Beteille et al., 2012; Fuller, 2012; Manna, 2015). Efforts to retain principals may play an important role in reducing turnover and should be given careful consideration (Rowland, 2015). This study provides information that can be used when granting such consideration by comparing the statistical differences in the levels of job autonomy and social support experienced by principals in selected demographic groupings. Job autonomy and social support have been found to be the most important indicators of principal job satisfaction, which in turn has been linked through research to principal retention (Chang, Leach, &

Anderman, 2015; Chou, Kroger, & Lee, 2010; Estes & Polnick, 2012; Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Maforah, 2015; Schmidt, 1976). Researchers Beck (1983) and Field (2008) found that satisfied employees approached their work with enthusiasm and passion, and that employers who recognized this, and promoted an environment where job satisfaction could occur, were rewarded with long-term employee retention. This is relevant as long-term principal retention is paramount for school success and principal effectiveness (Anthony, 2016; Beteille et al, 2012; Burkhauser, Elmore & Burney, 1997; Fuller, 2012; Gates, Hamilton, & Ikemoto, 2012; Kirtman, 2014; Miller, 2009; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010). Research has shown that for school success and principal effectiveness to occur the principal must remain in the same position for more than five years (Anthony, 2016; Beteille et al, 2012; Burkhauser, Gates, Hamilton, & Ikemoto, 2012; Fuller, 2012; Miller, 2009; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010). To reach this five-year milestone, a strong focus on practices designed to support and retain principals must be a school district priority (Anthony, 2016; Beteille et al, 2012; Burkhauser et al., 2012; Fuller, 2012; Miller, 2009; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010).

The Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) (2010) advised the key to employee retention is understanding not what drives employees to leave, but what motivates them to stay. Theorists and researchers including, Herzberg (1959), Vroom (1966), Hackman and Oldham (1976), Spector (1997), Drucker (1999), McGregor (2006), and Pink (2009) underscore the importance of job satisfaction and its influence on employee retention. The two most significant factors contributing to job satisfaction in principals have been identified as job autonomy and social support (Bobbitt et al., 1998;

Evans, 2010; Parker & Wall, 20011; Sai, 2016; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011). These factors must be considered when examining why principals remain in the position. Additionally, the demographic variables, gender and years of experience, should be included as they have also been shown to influence principal job satifaction (Branch et al., 2012; Chang et al., 2015; Chou et al., 2010; Gaziel, 1986; Humphrey et al., 2007; Larkin et al., 2015; Maforah, 2015; MetLife, 2013; Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Schmidt, 1976). Key differences among principals can raise critical issues in retention.

This study examined the differences between the perceived levels of job authonomy and social support experienced by female and male principals who had been in their current position for at least one year, but not more than nine years. This study also examined and the differences between the perceived levels of job authonomy and social support experienced by principals with 1-3 years of cumulative experience and principals with 4-9 years of cumulative experience. This examination provides relevant information about why principals stay, and provides a resource for state and local agencies to use when seeking to identify those principals with the highest risk of leaving the position. Additionally, the information from this study, coupled with a compilation of the demographic composition of the principals in the state and/or local school districts, can be synthesized to allow agencies to identify differentiated principal groupings to receive targeted resources.

The sample used to conduct this study included only principals from traditional public-schools. Several studies have shown the indicators of job satisfaction vary among charter and traditional public-school principals (Kirshtein, 2012; Lettre & Campbell,

2016; Ni, Sun, & Rorrer, 2015; Sai, 2016; Vickers, 2014). Such variances were not included as part of this study. Therefore, public charter school principals were not included. Additionally, the demographic groupings examined in this study did not include principals with ten or more years of cumulative experience. As shown by Adamowski, Therriault, and Cavanna (2007) and MetLife (2013), principals serving in the same position for ten or more years may become complacent and can unintentionally misrepresent such complacency as inflated levels of job autonomy and social support. Given the findings of Adamowski et al. (2007) and MetLife (2013) the researcher limited the sample population to principals with nine or less years in the same position. Finally, the study was conducted using U.S. Census Bureau survey data specific to traditional public-school principals. Bureau of Indian Education and private school principals did not complete the same U.S. Census Bureau survey as the one used for study, therefore data could not be accurately combined and examined (NCES, 2014).

Research Questions

By analyzing a secondary dataset collected through the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), this study sought to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a difference between cumulative years of principal experience and job autonomy?

   Ho: There is no difference between cumulative years of principal experience and job autonomy.

   Ha: There is a difference between cumulative years of principal experience and job autonomy.

2. Is there a difference between cumulative years of principal experience and social support?

   Ho: There is no difference between cumulative years of principal experience and social support.

   Ha: There is a difference between cumulative years of principal experience and social support.

3. Is there a difference between the gender of the principal and job autonomy?

   Ho: There is no difference between gender and job autonomy.

   Ha: There is a difference between gender and job autonomy.

4. Is there a difference between the gender of the principal and social support?

   Ho: There is no difference between gender and job autonomy.

   Ha: There is a difference between gender and job autonomy.

Overview of Methodology

The researcher conducted an ex post facto comparative study to determine if significant differences existed between the mean levels of the independent and dependent variables groups. The independent variables examined in the study were gender and cumulative years of experience as a principal. The dependent variables examined were job autonomy and social support. This study is considered ex post facto because the phenomenon examined occurred prior to the development of the study and the independent variables could not be manipulated by the researcher. The results of this study speculate statistical difference but do not prove causation (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002; Preuss, 2003; Orcher, 2005; Patten, 2012). Random controlled samples

were not used in the study and all elements of true experimental design were not followed (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002; Preuss, 2003; Orcher, 2005; Patten, 2012).

This study employed the use of a secondary data obtained from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) with principal responses to the 2011-2012 *School and Staffing Survey for Principals* (SASS) and the 2013 *Principal Follow-up Survey* (PFS). The SASS, distributed every four years from 1987-1988 through 2011-2012, was designed to collect information about principal characteristics and demographics, preparation and professional development, experience, salary, levels of autonomy, priority of goals, and perceived barriers; and information about school characteristics, culture, climate, governance, and mobility intentions (NCES, 2014). The PFS was distributed twelve months after each of the last two SASS administrations; 2009 and 2013. The goals of the PFS were to determine the number of principals who remained in the same position in the same school, the number of principals who moved to a principalship in a different school, and the number of principals who left the position.

This study examined the differences in the means of the independent variables, cumulative years of experience as a principal and gender, on the dependent variables job autonomy and social support as experienced by the sampled principal stayers. Stayers are defined as those principals who chose to remain in the position from the time they completed the 2011-2012 SASS through their completion of the 2013 PFS. The data for the study was harvested from the de-identified 2011-2013 SASS/PFS secondary dataset. The researcher used the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS) V25 statistical software program to import and analyze the data. Two-tailed independent samples *t*-tests

were used to determine the differences between means and speculate causation (Salkind, 2010; Shadish et al., 2002).

Rationale and Significance

Principals play an important role in guiding and supporting the educational process. They have an impact on every member of the educational community, a responsibility to set the tone for learning, and the obligation to inspire the collective capacity necessary for sustainable improvement (Beteille et al., 2012). Such improvement is not likely to happen in a country, state, or school district where the average principal stays in the same school for three years, annual principal turnover rates range from between 30 and 70 percent, and the reported principal job satisfaction rate is 32 percent (Fuller & Young, 2009; MetLife, 2013; NCES, 2013). At the end of the 2008-2009 school year more than 23,940 principals left their positions, another 25,210 left at the end of 2012-2013 (Goldring & Taie, 2014). Combined, these numbers are staggering and paint a grim picture for the future of our schools and our educational system as a whole. Research has shown that when a new school principal takes over a school, progress is not realized until after the fifth year of his or her tenure (Beteille et al., 2012; Miller, 2009). Consider for a moment the number of students in the over 49,000 U.S. schools who experienced a change in principal leadership between 2009 and 2013. Every one of these students was subjected to a halt in school progress as a result of the leadership transition (Beteille et al., 2012; Miller, 2009; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010). This information clearly reflects the significance of the principal retention problem in the U.S. and calls attention

to the need to focus efforts on supporting and retaining school principals if reform efforts are to be successful.

Research studies about principal turnover have largely ignored those principals still serving in the position (Mendels, 2012; Usdan, McCloud, & Podmostko, 2000). While there have been many studies conducted about why principals leave the position, there are few focused on why they stay (Mendels, 2012; Usdan et al., 2009). Adamowski et al. (2007) and MetLife (2013) have shown that the principal job satisfaction is at its lowest level in six years, and that exiting principals express dissatisfaction with the level of autonomy and social support they experienced in the position. Yet few studies have examined these variables, or the predictability of them, among or between principal groups (Mendels, 2012; Usdan et al., 2009). This study contributes to the limited pool of information available about why principals choose to remain in the position.

A national dataset was selected by the researcher to complete this study for two primary reasons. First, conducting a state level study would have resulted in a small sample size thus limiting data analysis to descriptive statistics; and second, this study sought to provide generalizable data about statistical differences in means between principal groups and indicators of principal job satisfaction (Boyce & Bowers, 2016; Gates et al., 2004; Sorapuru, 2012; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011). With 85,110 records representing principals in public-schools across the country (Goldring & Taie, 2014), the NCES dataset allowed the researcher to produce information that can be used by policy makers, state agencies, and school districts in their efforts to predict principal turnover and to develop retention strategies. Additionally, the results of this study

contribute to the limited pool of literature on the indicators of job satisfaction reported by principals who remain in the position. With national principal turnover rates reaching or exceeding 30 percent, this information is vital if there is any hope of reducing the annual flow of principals in and out of our U.S. schools each year.

Role of the Researcher

To maintain objectivity the researcher remained personally detached from the study by not allowing personal values and experiences, but instead facts and data to either prove or disprove the null hypotheses (Punch, 1998). This study involved the analysis of a secondary dataset. The data contained in the harvested dataset were de-identified by the U.S. Census Bureau prior to the researcher obtaining them thereby posing minimal direct risk to the individuals associated with information (NCES, 2014). The data in this study met the requirement of 45 CFR 46.101(b) Categories of Exempt Human Subjects Research: (4) Research involving the collection or study of existing data, documents, records, pathological specimens or diagnostic specimens, if these sources are publicly available or the information is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the subjects cannot be identified directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects.

To obtain the NCES data, the researcher collaborated with the Dissertation Committee Chair, Dr. Christopher Benedetti, to acquire the support of a Senior Official with the authority to enter into a contract with the NCES, and the willingness to sponsor data access for the researcher. The secondary dataset obtained was stored in locked cabinet in a secure project office while not in use. When the researcher was away from

the computer, the data was protected by locking both the computer and the office in which it was located. Access to the data was limited to the researcher.

Assumptions

The researcher assumed the secondary dataset was representative of a national sample of traditional public-school principals as stated in the 2013, 2014, 2015, and 2017 NCES documentation referenced in this study. The researcher also assumed that principal respondents to the survey questions included in the study answered questions honestly, that the survey question and construct validity studies conducted by the NCES (2017) were accurate and true, and that imputation, weighting, and stratification were conducted correctly and as referenced in the NCES report, *Documentation for the 2011–2012 Schools and Staffing Survey*. It was assumed that the correct method to test for statistical significance was used in the study, that the results were valid and reliable, and that the method correctly proved or disproved the null hypothesis.

Definitions of Key Terminology

Autonomy gap: The difference between the priority level principals assigned to a task and the amount of autonomy granted to them to perform the task (Adamowksi et al., 2007).

Hygiene (extrinsic) factors of motivation: Those factors leading to job dissatisfaction: salary, interpersonal relationships, employment status, supervision, company policy, working conditions, and job security (Herzberg et al., 1959; Herzberg, 1966).

Intrinsic factors of motivation: those factors attributed to the satisfying events experienced by the employee: autonomy, advancement, growth, personal value for the work and achievement (Herzberg et al., 1959; Herzberg, 1966).

Job autonomy: the degree to which an employee feels they can make decisions and influence the tasks associated with their job; job responsibility refers to the tasks an employee is charged with completing (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Parker & Wall, 2001).

Job enlargement: a horizontal widening of responsibilities (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Lunenburg, 2011; Parker & Wall, 2001).

Job enrichment: a vertical expansion of the position (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Lunenburg, 2011; Parker & Wall, 2001).

Job satisfaction: employees' overall emotional connection to the meaningfulness of their work and the perceived value of their job (Human Resource Council, 2008).

Leaver: a principal who leaves the profession (Goldring & Taie, 2014).

Mover: a principal who moves to a different school (Goldring & Taie, 2014).

Principal: the chief academic and administrative officer of a public-school (Gifford, 2014).

Principal job autonomy: the principal's ability to influence policies and make decisions related to the operation of the school (Sai, 2016).

School level: elementary or secondary level (Goldring & Taie, 2014).

School size: refers to the number of enrolled students (Goldring & Taie, 2014).

Social support: regular feedback through participation in collegial networks, mentoring, coaching, and or other collaborative projects and district initiatives (Seashore-Louis et al., 2010).

Stayer: a principal who stayed in the same school between school years (Goldring & Taie, 2014).

Organization of Dissertation

This study was organized into five chapters, reference documents, and appendices. Chapter One introduced the study, presented the problem statement, the research questions, and the significance of the study. Chapter Two presented a review of literature related to the importance of the principal role, principal turnover and its impacts, principal job satisfaction and its constructs as predictors of turnover and retention, and the conceptual framework of the study. Chapter Three described the research methodology including the selected approach, research sample, data source and collection methods, analysis techniques and limitations of the study. Chapter Four presented the research findings. The analysis and synthesis of the findings were presented in Chapter Five.

Chapter 2 – Review of Literature

School principals in the United States are expected to perform a multifaceted array of services and to have expert proficiencies in a vast number of areas including, but not limited to: curriculum, instruction, assessment, financial forecasting and budgeting, community engagement and public relations, child development, and the recruitment, retention, and practices that enhance the cohesion of a quality workforce (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005; Miller, 2013; Weinstein, Jacobowitz, Ely, Landon, & Schwartz, 2009). Principals have an impact on every student in a school building, the faculty, the staff, and the educational community at large, and are second only to the classroom teacher in terms of impact on student learning (Branch, Hanushek, & Rivkin, 2012; Davis et al., 2005; Hanusek, & Rivkin, 2012; Lettre & Campbell, 2016; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005; Rowland, 2015a). To be effective in school improvement, the principal must serve in the same school for a minimum of five years (Beteille, Kalogrides, & Loeb, 2012; Bottoms & Schmitt-Davis, 2010; Branch et al., 2012; Elmore & Burney, 1997; Fuller & Young, 2009; McAdams, 1997; Seashore-Louis, Wahlstrom, Leithwood, & Anderson, 2010; Weinstein et al., 2009). This time frame addresses the amount of time it takes new principals to implement the vision, policies, and strategies necessary for sustained school improvement (Beteille, 2012). However, in the United States (U.S.) principals average only three years in the same position, and annual principal turnover rates are as high as 70 percent in some states (Fuller & Young, 2009; Goldring & Taie, 2014). The inconsistencies brought on by frequent principal changes have led to significant delays in advancing the public education in our nation

(Beteille et al., 2012; Bottoms & Schmitt-Davis, 2010; Branch et al., 2012; Elmore & Burney, 1997; Fuller & Young, 2009; McAdams, 1997; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010; Weinstein et al., 2009).

Research designed to examine the challenges in retaining principals has been primarily focused on the factors that led the principals to resign, with information collected from the leaving principals, *leavers*, after they have vacated the position (Mendels, 2012; Usdan, McCloud, & Podmostko, 2009). Such studies have assumed there is a positive correlation between principal dissatisfaction and turnover, thereby indicating there is also a positive correlation between principal satisfaction and retention (Mendels, 2012; Usdan et al., 2009). This study examined principal job satisfaction through the lens of those principals who chose to remain in the position, the *stayers*. The sample used in the study included traditional public-school principals employed with the same school district for one to five years, which is the critical period of transition for a school when a new principal takes over (Beteille et al., 2012; Bottoms & Schmitt-Davis, 2010; Branch et al., 2012; Elmore & Burney, 1997; Fuller & Young, 2009; McAdams, 1997; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010; Weinstein et al., 2009). Sample groupings included gender and years of experience up to nine years. The study sample did not include principals who had been in the same position for more than nine years. This cap was based on the findings of Adamowski, Therriault, and Cavanna (2007) and MetLife (2013), who conducted large-scale studies on principal leadership. Adamowski et al. (2007) and MetLife (2013) found that some principals serving beyond ten years in the same school developed a sense of complacency. Such principals did not seek to change or

improve either the system or their own level of job satisfaction, and often confused complacency for satisfaction (Adamowski, Therriault, & Cavanna, 2007; MetLife, 2013). If these principals had been included in the study, they could have inaccurately skewed the results and threatened the validity and reliability of the findings. A narrower focus allowed the researcher to examine data generalizable to the principal groups included in the study. The results of this study provide valuable information that can be used by school district leaders, policy makers, and state agencies when predicting principal turnover and strategizing to prevent it.

The first part of this chapter served as an introduction to the content, scope, and organization of the study, and the strategies used in the review of the literature. The introduction included a description of the important role of the principal in leading and guiding a school. The introduction called attention to high principal turnover rates across the nation and the impact of such rates on the learning community and the need to examine retention through the lens of principals who chose to remain in the position. The second part of this chapter reviews principal job satisfaction and its constructs; job autonomy and social support (Bobbitt, Faupel, & Burns, 1991; Evans, 2010; Parker & Wall, 2001; Perrachione, Rosser, & Petersen, 2008; Sai, 2016; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011). Additionally, the chapter provides information relative to the demographic variables that have been shown to impact principal job satisfaction; gender and experience (Branch et al., 2012; Chang, Leach, & Anderman, 2015; Chou, Kroger, & Lee, 2010; Gaziel, 1986; Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Larkin, Brantley-Dias, & Lokey-Vega, 2015; Maforah, 2015; MetLife, 2013; Schmidt, 1976; Smerek &

Peterson, 2007). The chapter concludes with a presentation of the conceptual model of the study and a summary of the literature review in its entirety.

Literature Review

To complete the literature review, the researcher conducted a comprehensive search of thirteen electronic databases to identify peer-reviewed journal articles and primary research studies related to job satisfaction as an indicator of employee retention in an educational setting. Search parameters included works generated between the years of 1986 and 2016. Additionally, the researcher reviewed the works of seven known job satisfaction studies outside of the set time-period: Desanctis (1982); Iannone (1973); Kalleberg, (1977); Krumboltz, Mitchell, and Jones (1976); McGregor (1966); Schmidt (1976); Seashore and Taber (1975); and six documents developed by the theorists who developed the motivational models examined in this study: Hackman and Oldham (1975); Herzberg (1959, 1966); Maslow (1943, 1954); and Vroom (1964). The findings from the review were synthesized to build the conceptual model that guided this study.

Role of the Principal

School principals play a critical part in guiding and supporting the educational process. They are responsible for leading the educational community by setting the tone for the learning, creating a positive culture where education can occur, and by fostering intrinsic motivation and a collective capacity for sustainable improvement (Beteille et al., 2012; Bottoms & Schmidt-Davis, 2012; Branch et al., 2012; Elmore & Burney, 1997; Leithwood, Seashore Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010; Weinstein et al., 2009). Today's school principals must be strong instructional leaders,

community stewards, and visionary planners, who have robust skills in: goal setting; personnel management; public relations; data disaggregation and analysis; financial planning and budget management; curriculum, instruction, and assessment methodologies; effective learning environments; and building student and community support systems (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Lettre & Campbell, 2016; Mendels, 2012; Seashore-Louis, et al., 2010 Usdan et al., 2009). Principals rank second only to teacher quality among school influences on student learning (Leithwood et al., 2004; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010). Not only can they influence student achievement, effective principals, who are able to develop and communicate the mission for their schools, along with goals and action plans, have also been shown to increase student attendance, graduation rates, and teacher effectiveness (McIver, Kearns, Lyons, & Sussman, 2009; Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003).

The Wallace Foundation (2012) finds that without an effective school principal, school improvement cannot occur. Yet while principals shoulder, and are held strictly accountable for, the responsibilities associated with ensuring that all students have equitable access to a supportive learning environment, they receive little to no professional support from the state agencies, schools district leaders and policy makers that drive the school agenda, and have limited autonomy to complete the day-to-day tasks necessary to effectively run their schools (Burkhauser, Gates, Hamilton, & Ikemoto, 2012; Fuller, 2012; Lettre & Campbell, 2016; Rowland, 2015). Through interviews with principals who left the position, Johnson (2005) found a common perception that the position was not manageable. He further concluded that principals are pulled in too many

directions, and that the level of principal accountability coupled with the lack of autonomy over their schools, made it impossible to successfully navigate the position (Johnson, 2005).

Principal job satisfaction is declining, and it is growing increasingly evident that policy makers, state agencies, and local school districts must put more focus on developing strategies designed to support principals in executing their intricate and complex roles, and in granting them the autonomy to perform their craft (Adamowksi, Therriault, & Cavanna, 2007). Such efforts cannot be disassociated from current research about effective leadership practices or local needs of principals (Lettre & Campbell, 2016). While not as in-depth as studies conducted on the impact of the teacher on student achievement, research shows that principal leadership accounts for 25 percent of the school related factors that influence student outcomes (Branch, Hanushek, & Rivkin, 2012; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). When principals are granted autonomy and the support necessary to fulfill their role as the school leader, they are also granted the power to transform their schools to a point where sustainable change can occur (Lettre & Campbell, 2016; Rowland, 2015).

Effective Principals

Effective principals recognize there is a delicate balance between school district and building level priorities and can accomplish this balance within the constraints set by the school board, central office, and budgetary process (Elmore & Burney, 1997). These principals embrace the notion that continuous improvement is the result of ongoing knowledge acquisition and the consistent development of their professional practice

(Pont, Nusche, & Moorman, 2008; Kirtman, 2014). Additionally, effective principals acknowledge that sustainable improvement must be a concerted, system-wide effort as opposed to isolated practices and set the long-term strategic goals necessary to guide their school's growth (Elmore & Burney, 1997). Unfortunately, while recognizing the factors necessary for effective leadership and long-term growth, many principals do not have the support or autonomy to see it happen. Instead they become entrenched in daily administrative tasks with short-term goals designed to meet the immediate needs of the school and staff (Elmore & Burney, 1997). Tekleselassie and Villarreal (2011), found that principals devote 60-80 hours a week keeping up with the growing list of task oriented jobs assigned to them by school partners who participate in the decision making process and then abdicate the duty to the principal. Studies conducted twenty-years ago found situations leading to principal burnout and career frustrations to be occurring on a regular basis (Bacharach & Mitchell, 1983; Hertling, 2001; Norton, 2003; Pounder & Merill, 2001). Recent studies show that such situations have not improved, but become worse (Adamowksi, 2007; MetLife, 2013). According to MetLife (2013), principal job satisfaction has dropped back to the lowest level recorded since the start of their annual study in 1984.

Principal Retention

Given the vital role of the principal, it is not surprising to learn that to be effective in school improvement efforts, a principal must serve in the same school for at least five years (Beteille et al., 2012; Bottoms & Schmitt-Davis, 2010; Branch et al., 2012; Elmore & Burney, 1997; Fuller & Young, 2009; McAdams, 1997; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010;

Weinstein et al., 2009). It is also not surprising that given the complexity of the role and the increasing pressures to advance student achievement in ever changing and challenging school environments, the average length of stay for a principal is only three years (Beteille et al., 2012; Bottoms & Schmitt-Davis, 2010; Branch et al., 2012; Fuller & Young, 2009; Goldring & Taie, 2014; McAdams, 1997; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010; Weinstein et al., 2009). This is 40 percent less than what research indicates is necessary for effective principals to succeed in leading school improvement (Beteille et al., 2012; Bottoms & Schmitt-Davis, 2010; Branch et al., 2012; Elmore & Burney, 1997; Fuller & Young, 2009; Goldring & Taie, 2014; McAdams, 1997; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010; Weinstein et al., 2009). This data indicates a tremendous problem that must be immediately and effectively addressed by state agencies, policy makers, and school district leaders.

Principal Support

To achieve sustainable success in the challenging and ever-changing educational environment, principals must not only maintain longevity in the school, they must also be supported in their efforts (Anthony, 2016; Beteille et al, 2012; Burkhauser et al., 2012; Fuller, 2012; Miller, 2009; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010). Sustainable school improvement is dependent on new knowledge and updated practices, built on instructional innovation and concerted system wide efforts, and opportunities for and engagement in open dialogue and professional feedback (Elmore & Burney, 1997; Robinson, 2011). Aspirations for improved teaching and student learning must be grounded in a culture of guidance and support, a mindset for growth, and forward thinking strategic planning

(Elmore & Burney, 1997). However, a variety of studies conducted by Elmore and Burney (1997), Fullan (2013, 2014), Kirtman (2014), and Robinson (2011), have found that just the opposite is true. These studies report that principals tackle the enormity of the position by focusing on the short-term objectives and daily demands (Elmore & Burney, 1997; Kirtman, 2014; Shubilla & Sturgis, 2012; Sparks, 2013) According to Cole (2012) this close-sighted focus reported by principals can be at least partially attributed to the lack of guidance and support they have in allowing them to focus on developing quality professional learning and leadership practices for all members of the educational team as routine practice (Cole, 2012).

Continuous Improvement

There is strong agreement among scholars that effective principal leaders foster intrinsic motivation in the educational community; inspire collective capacity building for continuous improvement with transparent accountability; balance central office and school level priorities; and build systemic capacity for sustainability (Elmore & Burney, 1997; Fullan, 2013; Mourshed, Chijioke, & Barber, 2010). Additionally, these scholars agree that for leaders to be effective, they must be supported in their efforts to foster effective synergistic teams that tap into the individual strengths of each member as they collaboratively address the complex challenges of the work (Elmore & Burney, 1997; Fullan, 2013; 2014; Kirtman, 2014; Robinson, 2011; Sparks, 2013). To foster an environment of continuous improvement, effective principals must have a focused emphasis on quality professional learning for all members of the educational team as a routine practice (Cole, 2012). Principals must have the autonomy to provide opportunity

for, and participate in, the deliberate evaluation of their own and their staff members' professional practices, with open feedback, skilled critique and self-reflection (Elmore & Burney, 1997; Robinson, 2011). In her research on student-centered leadership, Robinson (2011) found that effective principals were highly engaged as participants in a learning environment (Robinson, 2011). If school communities truly embrace the ideas behind building a sustainable, positive and effective learning culture, then they must fully embrace and support the principals driving and shouldering the responsibility for such changes (Wallace Foundation, 2013).

Principal Turnover

The high expectations placed on school principals today, coupled with the pressures of meeting the conflicting needs and interests of community stakeholders, such as parents, teachers, students, staff, district offices, and government agencies, have made the principal position highly complex, regardless of the geographic area or demographic composition (Davis et al., 2005; MetLife, 2013). While 89 percent of school principals reported that they believe they are and should be held accountable for everything that happens to the students in their schools, they also perceive and are frustrated with a lack of autonomy related to their accountabilities (MetLife, 2013). This hindrance has contributed to a decreased level of job satisfaction and a growing rate of attrition among principals who are finding it increasingly difficult to manage their schools, much less employ the innovative practices necessary for sustainable school improvement (Kirtman, 2014; MetLife, 2013; Miller, 2009). MetLife (2013) found that only 32 percent of principals surveyed reported feeling satisfied in their position. This is the lowest principal

satisfaction rating reported since 2002 and is tied for the lowest rating since the survey began in 1984 (MetLife, 2013). Across the nation, school districts are experiencing average annual principal turnover rates of 30 percent and higher; in some states, including Illinois and Texas the range is between 62 and 70 percent (Beteille et al., 2012; DeAngelis & White, 2011; Fuller, 2012; Goldring & Taie, 2014). The magnitude of this turnover impedes school improvement efforts and has a negative impact on student achievement, teacher retention, and the educational community (Anthony, 2016; Beteille et al, 2012; Burkhauser, Gates, Hamilton, & Ikemoto, 2012; Fuller, 2012; Miller, 2009; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010).

Impact of principal turnover. Fluctuations of principal leadership caused by principal turnover often bring modifications to school policy, practices within the school building, and plans for the implementation of new goals and priorities (Branch et al., 2012; Burkhauser et al., 2012; Ingersoll, 2001). These changes are disruptive to the school operations and can lead to distrust in the educational community, detachment of the faculty and staff, and a general negative overall culture and climate; none of which provide the foundation for a thriving learning environment (Boyce & Bowers, 2016; Branch et al., 2012; Fuller & Young, 2009; Griffith, 1999; Jones & Webber, 2001; Miller, 2009; Weinstein et al., 2009). Leadership stability is an essential component of any well-run organization; such stability is even more critical when the organization is a school where educators are responsible for the academic learning and development of the students (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Leithwood et al., 2004). Studies conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) (2013) and the College Board (2011)

find that states with the highest proportion of new principals have the lowest graduation rates (Mattem & Patterson, 2011; NCES, 2013).

Student achievement. Principal retention not only directly affects teacher satisfaction and retention; it also greatly impacts student achievement (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Leithwood et al., 2004). Habegger (2008) found that educational relationships situated in a positive school environment with a consistent leader had a strong impact on student success. Miller (2009) found similar results in a multiyear study conducted in North Carolina. Student test scores dropped in the first two years with a new principal. They did not begin to rebound until after the fourth year of the principal's tenure and did not show improvement until after the fifth year (Miller, 2009). If the principal left before the four-year mark, the test scores never began to rebound, never returned to where they were when the principal started and as the new principal cycle began again, the achievement scores dropped even lower (Miller, 2009). Other researchers agree that it takes more than five years for student achievement to fully rebound from the transition to a new principal and that the documented negative impact on student achievement doubles when a new principal is coupled with novice teachers (Akiba & Reichardt, 2004; Beteille et al., 2012; Fuller & Young, 2009; Ringel, Gates, Chung, Brown, & Ghosh-Dastidar, 2004; Weinstein et al., 2009). This information sheds a new light on the potential causes of stunted student achievement in the U.S. where national data show that 74 percent of the serving principals in 2011-2012 had less than five years of experience in their current position, and 50 percent had less than five years of cumulative experience serving in a school principal role (Goldring & Taie, 2014). This study examined both groups of

principals by analyzing the number of years they spent in the same school, as well as the cumulative number of years of experience in the principal position, to determine if these different factors affected job satisfaction. Such information is valuable in developing differentiated principal retention strategies for principals who have remained in the same school.

Teacher retention. Teacher retention is significantly impacted by the effectiveness and tenure of the school principal (Beteille et. al., 2012; Fuller & Young, 2009; Ingersoll, 2001; Plecki, Elfers, Loeb, Zahir, & Knapp, 2005; Weinstein et al., 2009). In fact, principal retention has been identified as an important factor in a teacher's decision to remain in a school (Beteille et al., 2012; Fuller, Baker, & Young, 2007; Ingersoll, 2001; Miller, 2009; Papa, 2002; Rosenholtz, 1989). Several research studies show that schools with high levels of principal retention also have high levels of teacher retention (Beteille et. al., 2012; Fuller & Young, 2009; Ingersoll, 2001; Plecki et al., 2005; Weinstein et al., 2009). Conversely, the same studies found that schools with high levels of principal turnover also had high levels of teacher turnover (Beteille et. al., 2012; Fuller & Young, 2009; Ingersoll, 2001; Plecki et al., 2005; Weinstein et al., 2009). Ingersoll (2001) found that administrative support was one of the critical factors teachers considered when deciding to leave a position. Additionally, Ingersoll found that teachers attributed job dissatisfaction, and the final decision to leave a position, to the high rate of principal turnover in the school. Research conducted in twenty Washington State school districts from 1988-2003 showed that high principal turnover was a causal factor of teacher dissatisfaction and was highly correlated with teacher attrition (Plecki et al.,

2005). Beteille et al. (2012) found teacher attrition to be 18 percent higher in the years in which a new principal entered a school. The quality and consistency of the teaching staff has been shown to be the most important factor contributing to student achievement (Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004; Lockwood & McCaffrey, 2008; Rowan, Correnti, & Miller, 2002). These findings underscore the importance of principal retention and the impact of principal turnover on the teaching staff that are instrumental in advancing the education of all students. Principal retention leads to higher levels of teacher retention; both are instrumental to improved student achievement.

System-wide improvement. Researchers agree that schools with high levels of principal turnover lack the stability necessary for success, as it takes time for a principal to build the relationships and cultural learning environment necessary to implement meaningful and sustainable change (Beteille, et al., 2012; Gates, Santibanez, Brown, Ghosh-Dastidar, & Chung, 2004). Principals must remain in the same building for five or more years to become effective in the position and to put in place the policies and changes necessary for system-wide academic and school improvement (Beteille et al., 2012; Bottoms & Schmitt-Davis, 2010; Branch et al., 2012; Elmore & Burney, 1997; Fuller & Young, 2009; McAdams, 1997; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010; Weinstein et al., 2009). Unfortunately, state and national data indicate the average retention rate for a school principal is just three years, which falls ominously short of the five years indicated by research as necessary to propel school growth or even sustain the status quo (Fuller & Young, 2009; Gates, et al., 2004; Goldring & Taie, 2014; Miller, 2009; Ringel et al., 2004; Weinstein et al., 2009). The consequences of increasing principal turnover fall

directly on the shoulders of our nation's students who, without consistent principal leadership, are at risk of being ill-prepared for the fast-paced and ever-changing world that they will inherit.

Professional response. National efforts to address principal turnover have been narrowly focused on creating a pipeline of new principals to fill vacated positions (Hanover Research, 2012; Mendels, 2012). While this is a stop-gap measure to help ensure there is a principal in every U.S. school, it does not address the country's principal retention problem. It does not consider the feedback from the principals currently serving in the position who consistently report the complexities of the job, coupled with a lack of autonomy to address such complexities, are making the position too difficult to perform (Davis et al., 2005; MetLife, 2013; Miller, 2009). The message delivered to researchers from those principals who have exited the position was the job was too complex. This information is tabulated, documented, and available for national, state, and local agencies to use in creating programs to prepare new principals for the challenging role (Mendels, 2012; Sun, 2011; Usdan et al., 2009). If instead, the research paid closer attention to the needs of current principals and documented those factors that could improve the level of principal satisfaction, then national, state, and local agencies would have the information necessary to shift from developing strategies for replacing principals to developing strategies for sustaining principals.

Preparing new principals to fill open spots does not address the turnover problem and the resulting effects on teachers, students, and achievement. Simply filling a principal vacancy with a novice principal who will likely leave the position in less than five years

will only contribute to the growing number of schools experiencing frequent leadership transitions (Fuller, 2012; Goldring & Taie, 2014; NCES, 2013). If strategies are not aimed directly at principal retention, the number of schools experiencing principal turnover will far exceed the 49,000 reported by the NCES (2013), and the number of students affected by the leadership transitions will continue to rise. It is imperative that the policy makers, state, and school district officials pay closer attention to the needs of current principals so retention, not replacement, strategies can be structured and implemented.

Job Satisfaction

From the 1950's to the 1970's the U.S. transitioned from a time of traditional industrial age rationale-oriented management theory, to one with a focus on the consideration for human relations and organizational behavior (George, Jones, & Sharbrough, 2002). During this period scholars developed theoretical models and conducted research studies designed to identify and explain the indicators associated with employee retention (George et al., 2002; Pinder, 2008; Porter, Bigley, Steers, & Steers, 2002). Several theories emerged identifying intrinsic employee motivation as the primary factor of job satisfaction and a construct that human resource managers could use to predict employee retention (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Kalleberg, 1977; Larkin et al., 2015; Pardee, 1990; Sai, 2016; Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Spector, 1997; Vroom, 1964). Such theories are aligned with the teachings of Abraham Maslow (1943) asserting that while the psychological and security needs of employees were necessary for employment, neither contributed to the level of

internal job satisfaction that would cause an employee to remain in the position (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Kalleberg, 1977; Larkin et al., 2015; Pardee, 1990; Sai, 2016; Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Spector, 1997; Vroom, 1964). To positively influence employee retention, higher order needs must be met. The employee must have a sense of value for the challenging work itself, they must experience professional growth with autonomy and responsibility, and be recognized for the work they do in a supportive environment; only then will the employees' higher order needs be met so job satisfaction can occur (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Kalleberg, 1977; Larkin et al., 2015; Pardee, 1990; Porter & Steers, 1973; Sai, 2016; Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Spector, 1997; Vroom, 1964).

Job satisfaction in principals. Early studies including those conducted by Frederick Herzberg (1959, 1966), Victor Vroom (1964), and Greg Hackman and J. Richard Oldham (1976), along with more recent studies conducted by Peter Drucker (1999), Douglas McGregor (2006), and Daniel Pink (2009), have consistently provided confirmation that when higher order needs are met, the resulting job satisfaction has a positive impact on and is predictive of the employee retention. Job satisfaction is defined by the Human Resource Council (2008) as an employee's overall emotional connection to the meaningfulness of their work and the perceived value of their job. Principals have long attributed their retention to their commitment to the field, emotional connection to the educational community, and the meaningfulness of the work (Iannone, 1973; Nixon, 2013). However, according to Adamowski et al. (2007) and MetLife (2013), principals are reporting lower perceptions of the work itself, an overall decline in their enthusiasm

for the perceived value of the position, and decreased levels of job satisfaction. Researchers attribute such declines to the isolative nature the principal role, coupled with the lack of control or authority to provide the leadership necessary to run their schools (Adamowski et al., 2007; MetLife, 2013). Given the link between employee retention and job satisfaction, and the decline in both, the indicators of job satisfaction must be examined to uncover potential causes that could be remedied.

Employee Motivation

To understand employee job satisfaction and retention behavior, supervisors and agencies must first understand what motivates employees to act (Schulze & Steyn, 2003). Theories of motivation can help to identify employees' needs and ultimately predict turnover intention (Rowley, 1996). One of the first published theories of job satisfaction was Herzberg's *Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction* (1959) which emerged with the publication of his book *The Motivation to Win* (Herzberg et al. 1959). The book chronicled twelve studies investigating the classification of work dimensions as either having intrinsic motivating factors, those factors attributed to the satisfying events experienced by the employee, or extrinsic hygiene factors, those factors related to events perceived by an employee as exceptionally bad (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg (1959) theorized that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction were products of two independent and distinct dimensions, satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and the absence of one dimension would not result in an increase to the other (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg's (1959) theory postulates the motivating factors leading to job satisfaction include: the need for recognition, autonomy, advancement, growth, personal value for the work and

achievement. Herzberg (1959) theorizes that the hygiene factors that can lead to employee dissatisfaction include: salary, interpersonal relationships, employment status, supervision, company policy, working conditions, and job security (Herzberg et al., 1959; Herzberg, 1966). Herzberg's (1959) theory has been generally supported when tested in educational settings and provides an appropriate lens for examining principal job satisfaction.

Schmidt (1976) conducted a study of secondary principal job satisfaction to test Herzberg's (1959) theory. To conduct the study, Schmidt (1976) administered a checklist version of Herzberg's (1959) job satisfaction questionnaire to a random sample of 74 high school principals from 132 high schools in Chicago area. His goal was to determine what types of events lead to principal job satisfaction, what events lead to job dissatisfaction and how long the satisfaction or dissatisfaction lasted (Schmidt, 1976). Schmidt (1976) proposed 296 situations to the principal participants; 139 situations related to motivation factors and 157 related to hygiene factors. Respondents reported that 111 of the 139 situations involving Herzberg's (1959) motivational factors were associated to job satisfaction, and that 120 of the 157 situations involving the hygiene factors contributed to their level of job dissatisfaction (Schmidt, 1976). Schmidt's (1976) study points to the distinct difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and to Herzberg's (1959) theory that intrinsic motivation was related to job satisfaction, extrinsic motivation was related to dissatisfaction, and that an increase in one would not cause a decrease in the other.

Maforah (2015) confirmed the significance of intrinsic motivation in a behavioral study of school principals designed to test the validity of job satisfaction theories. Using a mixed-methods approach, Maforah (2015) surveyed 30 secondary school principals to collect demographic and job satisfaction information and then conducted semi-structured interviews to seek clarification on observed patterns discovered through survey data analysis. The survey questions in Maforah's (2015) study were designed to produce data on both the intrinsic motivators of job satisfaction and the extrinsic motivators associated with job dissatisfaction. The variables addressed working conditions, autonomy, the nature of the position, personal characteristics, recognition, and self-actualization (Maforah, 2015). The study showed that 83.3 percent of the principals surveyed perceived the growing demands of the job far outweighed the salary increases they received (Maforah, 2015). However, the principals' dissatisfaction with the salary was not alone enough motivation to leave the position (Maforah, 2015). These results align to the results of the MetLife (2013) study indicating that 89 percent of principals surveyed felt the complexities of the job had significantly increased in the last five years. Both Maforah (2015) and MetLife (2013) confirmed Herzberg (1954), finding that the hygiene factors identified by principals as leading to high levels of job dissatisfaction did not impact the level of job satisfaction felt by principals, and therefore were not motivators to leave the position. The principals in both the MetLife (2013) and Maforah (2015) studies pointed to rewards related to recognition of effort, personal achievement, and ability to develop young minds as motivators for job retention. This is a splendid example of intrinsic motivators contributing to job satisfaction and retention and shows that while

extrinsic motivators such as salary may decrease job dissatisfaction, they do not necessarily impact job satisfaction or retention.

Extrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation was studied by Estes and Polnick (2012) in an examination of the publishing efforts exerted by faculty members in higher education. The hypothesis of the study was that once a faculty member published enough articles to achieve tenure status, he or she would no longer be motivated to publish articles (Estes & Polnick, 2012). The study produced a statistically significant ($p<0.0001$) decrease in the number of research articles published by faculty members after receiving tenure status (Estes & Polnick, 2012). Additionally, the faculty members did not report an increase in job satisfaction once tenure status was received (Estes & Polnick, 2012). The results of the Estes and Polnick (2012) study indicate that extrinsic motivators, such as tenure status, are not effective tools for motivating job satisfaction. This is relevant to understanding the motivation indicators for principal job satisfaction. There may be a strong public perception that educators leave the position due to the salary structure. However, researchers including Adamowski et al. (2007), Akiba and Reichardt (2004), Beteille et al. (2012), Bottoms and Schmidt-Davis (2012), Ingersoll (2001), Maforah (2015), and MetLife (2013), have found this not to be the case.

Extrinsic motivators are finite; once an extrinsic reward has been achieved another will have to be offered (McGregor, 1966; Ryan & Deci, 2000). When extrinsic motivators run out, employees become disengaged and job dissatisfaction increases (Mulder, Van Dijk, De Cremer, & Wilke, 2006). If additional extrinsic motivators are repeatedly offered, job dissatisfaction may decrease, but job satisfaction will not be

affected (Herzberg et al., 1959; Herzberg, 1966). Conversely intrinsic motivation is a natural factor, with unlimited potential, that results in job satisfaction (McGregor, 1966; Ryan & Deci, 2000). There is widespread agreement among principals that their passion for the job, the students, and the desire to inspire and advance continuous learning outcomes for students are essential to their level of career satisfaction and play an integral role in their decisions to remain in the principal position beyond five years (Nixon, 2013). This is noteworthy information for agencies designing and developing strategies to reduce principal turnover.

Intrinsic motivation. Multiple researchers have studied the correlations between the factors of intrinsic motivation and the job satisfaction (Estes & Polnick, 2012; Gaziel, 1986; Kalleberg, 1977; Larkin, Brantley-Dias, & Lokey-Vega, 2015; Maforah, 2015; Pardee, 1990; Sai, 2016; Schmidt, 1976; Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Spector, 1997). Such studies completed across the spectrum of educational facilities, grade ranges, and professional levels, have consistently found positive correlations among intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction, and employee retention (Estes & Polnick, 2012; Gaziel, 1986; Kalleberg, 1977; Larkin et al., 2015; Maforah, 2015; Pardee, 1990; Sai, 2016; Schmidt, 1976; Spreitzer, 1995). The successful use of these indicators of job satisfaction in an educational environment support the use of such models in identifying and understanding the factors associated with satisfied school principals who remain in their position.

Gaziel (1986) surveyed 250 elementary school principals selected at random from a pool of 1,100. Participation in the study was voluntary and yielded 120 usable

responses (Gaziel, 1986). Gaziel's (1986) research confirmed an earlier study conducted by Schmidt (1976) with secondary principals, by showing the primary factors attributed to principal job satisfaction aligned to intrinsic motivators. The most significant motivational factors contributing to job satisfaction for both primary and secondary principals were recognition and professional achievement; the most significant hygiene factors contributing to the dissatisfaction were interpersonal relationships with subordinates, peers, and supervisors (Gaziel, 1986; Schmidt, 1976). While Schmidt's research is dated, it was one of the first studies to apply job satisfaction theory to school level administration calling attention to the primary importance of intrinsic motivational factors as essential in principal job satisfaction.

MetLife (2013) and Maforah (2015) provide more recent evidence by finding that a principal's desire to complete the work is highly related to the personal value placed on the resulting reward. In both studies the principals expressed being strongly motivated by the opportunity and ability to develop young minds (Maforah, 2015, MetLife, 2013). The principals in both studies, as well as studies conducted by Iannone (1973) and Adamowski et al. (2007), expressed frustration with not having the autonomy to make decisions relative to the development of their students. This is significant as it demonstrates principals' frustration about autonomy has been present for more than 40 years.

Ott and Cisneros (2015) surveyed 14,708 faculty members from 51 four-year colleges and universities to determine the extent to which tenured and non-tenured faculty shared common perceptions about core indicators of job satisfaction: autonomy,

meaningfulness of the work, and feedback on completed work. The study showed that non-tenured and tenured faculty shared common views about the job itself and the working conditions (Ott & Cisneros, 2015). Both groups were satisfied with the autonomy of the position, including the opportunity, but not requirement, to participate in mentoring and professional growth experiences, and the level of feedback received about their work performance (Ott & Cisneros, 2015). For comparison, Ott and Cisneros (2015) included extrinsic motivators of job dissatisfaction in the study as well. The researchers found that tenure and non-tenured faculty had differing levels of dissatisfaction with tenure status, office space, teaching resources, and the distribution of the workload, but as Herzberg (1959) and Vroom (1964) theorized, the level of job dissatisfaction did not have an impact on the retention of either group of faculty members surveyed (Ott & Cisneros, 2015). These findings support the theory that job satisfaction and retention are the result of intrinsic, not extrinsic motivators. Ott and Cisneros (2015) specifically point to the importance of job autonomy by finding that autonomy was the most significant indicator of job satisfaction among both tenured and non-tenured faculty surveyed in the study.

Demographic characteristics. A multitude of demographic characteristics are often included in job satisfaction studies. However, only experience and gender have been found to have a statistical significance in the educational setting (Branch et al., 2012; Chang et al., 2015; Chou et al., 2010; Gaziel, 1986; Humphrey et al., 2007; Larkin et al., 2015; Maforah, 2015; MetLife, 2013; Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Schmidt, 1976). Personal and environmental demographic characteristics such as the principal's age, geographic location, level of assignment (elementary, middle, high school), size of the

school, and the socio-economic environment of the community have been found to be insignificant to a principal's level of satisfaction in studies conducted by researchers (Adamowski et al., 2007; Bobbitt et al., 1991; Davis et al., 2005; Goldring & Taie, 2014; MetLife, 2013; Sorapuru, 2012; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011). Studies conducted by Boyd et al. (2008), Clark, Martorell, and Rockoff (2009), and Seashore-Louis et al. (2010) found a principal's previous experience as an assistant principal, number of years spent as a teacher, level of education, or college or university attended, had no bearing on principals' satisfaction and success in a new school. Given such findings, the preceding demographic variables were not included in this study. This study included the cumulative years of principal experience, the number of years employed in the same school, and gender. Including these demographic categories allowed the researcher to focus on examining the differences in between the categories on identified indicators of job satisfaction.

Branch et al. (2012) and MetLife (2013) found that as principals become more experienced they tend to have higher levels of job satisfaction. In fact, Humphrey et al. (2007) and Chang et al. (2015) found that in terms of predicting job satisfaction, the number of years as a principal was the only significant demographic variable in the study. MetLife (2013) and Chang et al., (2015) found that the relationship between perceived autonomy and affective organizational commitment was stronger for principals employed for a shorter length of time. Chou et al. (2010) found that the number of years an employee was employed was positively correlated to employee satisfaction. Nguyen, Taylor, and Bradley (2003), who found that job satisfaction increases as job autonomy

increases, also found that the importance of job autonomy is slightly higher for females (.24) than males (.17).

Conceptual Framework

The larger theoretical framework for this study posits that job autonomy and social support are the key motivational factors leading to principal job satisfaction, which is positively correlated with principal retention (George, Jones, & Sharbrough, 2002; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Kalleberg, 1977; Larkin, Brantley-Dias, & Lokey-Vega, 2015; Pardee, 1990; Pinder, 2008; Porter, Bigley, Steers, & Steers, 2002 Sai, 2016; Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Spector, 1997; Vroom, 1964). In their meta-analytical review of the work design literature integrated with motivational, social, and work context characteristics, Humphrey, Nahrgang and Morgeson (2007) found the two best predictors of job satisfaction were autonomy and social support. The researchers analyzed 6,333 correlations and examined 276 relationships finding job autonomy as the only motivational characteristic with a 95 percent confidence interval that did not include zero in its correlation (Humphrey et al., 2007). Like Humphrey et al. (2007), studies conducted by Estes and Polnick (2012), Maforah (2015), and Chang et al. (2015), have consistently found that the top indicators of job satisfaction leading to retention among principals are perceptions of job autonomy and social support. Additional research has also shown that only two significant demographic factors affect job autonomy and social support; gender and experience (Branch et al., 2012; Chang et al., 2015; Chou et al., 2010; Gaziel, 1986; Humphrey et

al., 2007; Larkin et al., 2015; Maforah, 2015; MetLife, 2013; Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Schmidt, 1976).

Job Autonomy

Principal autonomy is conceptualized as the principal's ability to influence policies and make decisions related to the operation of the school (Sai, 2016). It is the degree to which the position allows the employee freedom, independence, and discretion to determine the procedures and prioritize and schedule the tasks necessary to complete the work (Lunenburg, 2011). Adamowski et al. (2007), Parker and Wall (2001), Deci and Ryan (2000), and Hackman and Oldham (1980) caution readers not to misinterpret autonomy as responsibility. As a factor of intrinsic motivation, job autonomy has been studied by business management scholars including social psychologists and human resource experts Daniel Pink (2009), Douglas McGregor (2006), and Peter Drucker (1999) who found that autonomy in a work environment that supports growth, mastery, and employee purpose will lead to increased levels of job satisfaction (Drucker, 1999; McGregor, 2006; Pink, 2009). While these researchers focus their studies in the business environment, business is a social science the findings are consistent with research conducted in the educational setting. Deci and Ryan, (2000), Nguyen et al. (2003), and Humphrey et al. (2007) postulate that job autonomy has substantial and significant influence on job satisfaction. Breaugh and Becker (1987) assert that job autonomy is the most important characteristic of job satisfaction and Tekleselassie and Villarreal (2011), Evans (2010), and Humphrey et al. (2007), found that principals' perceived levels of autonomy lead to higher rates of principal job satisfaction.

Evans (2010) confirmed these assertions in a case study analysis of six principals in the Bay Area of California; three that left the position and three that remained. The study found the sense of competence and self-worth that resulted from supported autonomy was significant in the principal's decision to remain in the position (Evans, 2010). Conversely, Evans (2010) found the principals who left their positions cited feeling isolated, disempowered, and disenchanted in the role. Specifically, the principals in the study cited a lack of control over the budget and spending, little to no choice in curriculum and curriculum related decisions, a lack of control over staffing issues, and generally low levels of district support for the principal's decision-making authority, as their primary complaints (Evans, 2010). These findings are consistent with the results of Adamowski et al. (2007) and Usdan et al. (2009). Additionally, Evans (2010) supports Deci, Connell, and Ryan (1989) and Saragih (2011) in finding that autonomy and support are the key factors of intrinsic motivation that lead to increased job satisfaction and positive employee retention outcomes.

Locus of control. Individuals have a strong desire for volition, decision making freedom, and a robust locus of control (Deci et al., 1989; Evans, 2010). Principals' locus of control refers to the degree to which principals believe they have control over what happens in their building. A large-scale study, conducted by Adamowski et al. (2007) sought to determine the locus of control, or the level of authority principals had in leading their schools to identify perceived leadership barriers and to solicit feedback from principals regarding strategies designed to foster strong school leadership in U. S. schools. Data for the study were collected using a three-step process that began with the

distribution of several Likert-scale surveys designed to solicit information from which researchers could create principal and school profiles. The profiles created were used to purposefully select a sample of 33 elementary school principals from five urban areas in three states to participate in the second step of the study which consisted of one-hour semi-structured interviews to gather additional information. All the principals included in the sample had a minimum of three years of experience in their current position (Adamowski et al., 2007). In the final step of the study, interview results were reverse mapped to a document study of each school represented in the interview phase (Adamowski et al., 2007).

A second large-scale study using a national survey was conducted by MetLife in 2012. This research is part of ongoing efforts to examine the views of teachers and principals regarding the challenges facing schools and school leaders (MetLife, 2013). Several commonalities about principals' perceived levels of autonomy emerged in Adamowski et al. (2007) and the MetLife (2013) multi-state studies, including a list of priority tasks and functions that principals believed were necessary for effective school leaders to perform. The studies also identified significant gaps in the autonomy principals perceived to be afforded to them in performing the priority tasks they identified (Adamowski et al., 2007; MetLife, 2013). Table 2.1 provides a summary of the priority level of the tasks identified by the principals in Adamowski et al. (2007) as important tasks for effective principals to complete; the principals' perceived level of autonomy in carrying out the priority tasks identified; and the difference, referred to as the autonomy

gap, between the perceived level of task importance and the perceived level of autonomy principals are granted to perform the task.

Table 2.1

The Autonomy Gap for Important Functions of Effective Principals

Priority Task	Percentage calling function important to effective school leadership	Percentage reporting a "great deal" or "some" autonomy	The difference between the importance of the function and perceived autonomy (percentage)
Hiring Teachers & Staff	100.00%	56.67%	43.33%
Dismissing Teachers & Staff	96.67%	36.67%	60.00%
Determining Number & Type of Staff	93.33%	30.00%	63.33%
Allocating Resources	100.00%	70.00%	30.00%
Curriculum Decisions	80.00%	33.33%	46.67%
Program Decisions	90.00%	50.00%	40.00%
Determining Methods & Materials	93.33%	56.67\	36.67%
Instructional Programming & Performance Standards	96.67%	66.67%	30.00%
Setting Student Discipline Policies/Procedures	100%	76.67%	23.33%

Note. Adapted from "The Autonomy Gap: Barriers to Effective School Leadership," by S. Adamowski, S. B. Therriault, A. P. Cavanna, 2007, p. 21.

Table 2.2 provides a summary of important principal tasks identified in MetLife (2013), the percentage of autonomy reported by principals in completing the tasks; and the difference between full autonomy and the principals perceived autonomy.

Table 2.2

Important Principal Tasks and Self-Reported Task Autonomy

Priority Task	Important tasks for principals to complete with autonomy	Percentage of reported self-report principal autonomy	The difference between full autonomy and granted autonomy (percentage)
Hiring Teachers & Staff	100.00%	74.00%	26.00%
Dismissing Teachers & Staff	100.00%	43.00%	57.00%
Allocating Resources	100.00%	22.00%	78.00%
Curriculum Decisions	100.00%	42.00%	58.00%
Instructional Schedules for Teachers	100.00%	79.00%	21.00%

Note. Adapted "The MetLife Survey of the American Teacher: Challenges for School Leadership," MetLife, 2013, p. 29.

The leadership priorities and autonomy constraints identified by Adamowski et al. (2007) and MetLife (2013) that lead to low levels of principal satisfaction are like the indicators identified by Boyce and Bowers (2016), Nixon (2013), Tekleselassie and Villarreal (2011), and Iannone (1973). The studies conducted by these researchers identified a lack of authority or limited freedom to control the areas of hiring and evaluation, budgeting and resource allocation, establishing curriculum, setting program standards, and determining school and disciplinary policies (Adamowski et al., 2007; Boyce & Bowers, 2016; Iannone, 1973; Nixon, 2013; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011). The findings of these primary research studies show the principals' struggle for autonomy and the perceived lack of authority necessary to effectively run the school result in low levels job satisfaction. These indicators should be carefully considered when developing retention programs designed to enrich principal satisfaction and retention.

The autonomy challenges and barriers principals are facing as they attempt to lead and improve their schools and student achievement are contradictory to the motivators substantiated as integral for job satisfaction (Chang et al., 2015). Increasing principal authority, especially in the areas identified by principals as priority functions, should be considered for inclusion when developing principal retention strategies (Evans, 2010). Tekleselassie and Villarreal (2011) found that increasing the level of autonomy by one-standard deviation point decreases the likelihood of principal departure by 9.2 percent. In their studies of satisfied principals, Boyce and Bowers (2016) found satisfied principals indicated significantly higher levels of autonomy ($p < 0.030$) in the areas of curriculum development, school performance standard setting, designing professional development for teachers, and hiring practices. Nixon (2013) found principals' job retention was greatly impacted by their level of influence in shaping school practices and establishing the culture and climate of the school. Additionally, job autonomy has been found to foster a greater sense of purpose and self-worth and has been positively associated with an intrinsic value for both the organization and the work itself (Boyce & Bowers, 2016; Iannone, 1973; Maforah, 2015; Nixon, 2013; Sorapuru, 2012; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011).

Job enrichment. Job autonomy is the degree to which an employee feels they can make decisions and influence the tasks associated with their job; job responsibility refers to the tasks an employee is charged with completing (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Parker & Wall, 2001). In the principalship this refers to the extent to which principals have control over their work and the functioning of the school they lead (Adamowski et al.,

2007; Parker & Wall, 2001). Job autonomy should be thought of as job enrichment, a vertical expansion of the position, as opposed to job enlargement, or a horizontal widening of responsibilities (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Lunenburg, 2011; Parker & Wall, 2001). Job enrichment through autonomy can foster intrinsic motivation by giving the employee higher levels of responsibility but should not be confused with isolated independence (Czapla, 2014; Evans, 2010). Job enrichment must occur in a supportive environment, not in seclusion (Czapla, 2014; Evans, 2010). In this study, autonomy specifically refers to decision making and control over those tasks, identified through primary research, that principals find most important to their role: setting performance standards; establishing the school's curriculum; evaluating teachers; hiring full-time teachers; setting discipline policy; and determining how the budget will be expended (Adamowski et al., 2007; Boyce & Bowers, 2016; Evans, 2010; MetLife, 2013; Nixon, 2013; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011; Usdan et al., 2009).

Empowerment. Job autonomy is believed to lead to goal achievement, professional recognition, and a personal value for the work, all indicators of intrinsic motivation that positively correlate to job satisfaction (Chang et al., 2015; Estes and Polnick, 2012; Gaziel, 1986; Humphrey et al., 2007; Maforah, 2015; Schmidt, 1976). Through research, Firestone and Pennell (1993) and Rosenholtz (1989) found evidence linking empowerment through task autonomy, feedback, and learning opportunities to employee retention. These researchers agree that job satisfaction increases when a supervisor displays trust in the employee by giving the employee autonomy in decision

making along with the support necessary to achieve success (Firestone & Pennell, 1993; Rosenholtz, 1989).

Psychological empowerment encompasses competence, self-determination, and the impact of the work completed (Spreitzer et al. 1997). Iannone (1973) interviewed 40 principals, 20 at the elementary school level and 20 at the secondary school level, to test Herzberg's (1959) *Two-Factor Motivation Theory of Job Satisfaction*. The study resulted in more than 2,000 pages of interview notes in which Iannone (1973) documented the inner thoughts of principals, including the finding that just two satisfying events per year were enough to cause principals to find value in the work itself. All respondents in Maforah's (2015) research study, which included 30 secondary principals, agreed that their work as the school leader was important; 93.4 percent indicated that they had a great passion for their position and that they found their job inspiring.

The psychological empowerment that accompanies job autonomy can lead to feelings of competence and make the position more meaningful for the principal (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Granting autonomy to principals underscores their feeling of self-importance in the role and could lead to a higher commitment to the position and the organization. As a no-cost indicator of job satisfaction, increasing the level of principal job autonomy could prove to be exceedingly beneficial in local efforts to increase principal retention. It is widely believed that the psychological empowerment and locus of control associated with autonomy in the principal role could have important, positive, and lasting implications on principal retention and ultimately on student achievement (Beteille et al., 2011; Branch et al., 2012; Comprehensive Center, 2015; Elmore &

Burney, 1997; Spreitzer, 1995; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). However, while identified as important, this topic has received little attention in addressing low principal retention rates in our U.S. schools.

Experience. Several researchers have found that more experienced principals are often afforded higher levels of job autonomy and thus feel more empowered to complete tasks associated with their role (Chang et al., 2015; Chou et al., 2012; Humphrey et al., 2007; MetLife, 2013; Nguyen et al., 2003). MetLife (2013) found that principals with less than five years of experience reported significantly less control over building related decisions than those with six to ten years. Additionally, MetLife (2013) and Adamowski et al., (2007) reported that principals attribute their declining job satisfaction to their lack of autonomy in making decisions pertinent to the operation of their schools.

Gender. Nguyen et al., (2003), found evidence that levels of job autonomy were more significant for females in predicting job satisfaction than males. As autonomy increases, job satisfaction increases for females by 0.24 and males by 0.17 (Nguyen et al., 2003). This was interesting given Rosener's (1990) finding that male principals were drawn more to command and control environments than their female colleagues who preferred more collaborative styles. Quinn (2005) shows that male principals in schools with a strict disciplinary culture often prefer autonomy, but do not necessarily grant it. While female principals preferred a more collaborative socially intuitive culture, with the autonomy to implement cultural change (Reynolds, White, Brayman, & Moore, 2008). Regardless of leadership style, MetLife (2013) and Chang et al. (2015) found the relationship between job autonomy and principal retention was stronger for both female

and male principals who had been employed for shorter periods of time. Given such findings, the researcher hypothesized the study would find a statistically significant difference between the levels of autonomy reported by each gender.

Social Support

The second emerging significant indicator of job satisfaction is a supportive network; social support (Adamowski et al., 2007; Evans, 2010; Firestone & Pennell, 1993; Humphrey et al., 2007; Parker and Wall, 2001; Rosenholtz, 1989; Sai, 2016; and Tekleselassie and Villarreal, 2011). Just as autonomy should not be confused with simply adding additional tasks to the principals list of work, it should also not be confused with isolated independence (Sai, 2016; Swearingen, 2014). Social support can be described as regular feedback through participation in collegial networks, mentoring, coaching, and or other collaborative projects and district initiatives (Seashore-Louis et al., 2010). It is widely believed that efforts to support and guide the growth of principals in their role could have important positive and lasting implications on principal retention (Beteille et al., 2011; Branch et al., 2012; Clifford & Chiang, 2016; Cole, 2012; Comprehensive Center, 2015; Elmore & Burney, 1997; The Wallace Foundation, 2013).

Singh and Billingsley (1998) found the largest direct effect on educator retention was from peer support. Building a social support network for principal growth, development, and sustainability includes the facilitation and allowance for principal participation in the informal networks and collaborative relationships critical to principal success (Adamowski et al. 2007). The latest National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) longitudinal study found that only two percent of principals

prioritized their own professional growth and most felt isolated in their own building (Protheroe, 2008). Chang et al. (2015) found the level of participation in a social support network was a significant predictor of principals' job satisfaction. The facilitation of principal job autonomy in a supportive environment for principals cannot be overlooked in the strategic development of effective principal retention strategies.

Peer networks and collegial support. Research suggests that principals need a network of support outside that of the central office and supervising administrator (Willer & Recht, 2011). The participants in the Willer and Recht (2011) study indicated reluctance in seeking central office assistance out of a fear of appearing incompetent. Conversely, all participants in the same study expressed feeling at ease and confident soliciting the advice or support of a principal colleague, either within or outside of the principal's own school district (Willer & Recht, 2011). In his study, *Principals' Perceptions of Collegial Support as a Component of Administrative In-service*, Daresh (1982) found little to no systemic support or in-service activities developed for school principals. In a second study conducted by the same researcher 22 years later, Daresh (2004) found similar results in that very few beginning principals engaged in a formal mentoring program or induction process. Further, Daresh (2004) found that principals felt unsupported in their managerial efforts by their district's central office. It should also be noted that in several studies, principals described the emotional and collegial support they acquired through participation in peer networks as the most beneficial professional learning they received after assuming the principal role (Bizzell, 2011; Daresh, 1982,

2004; McManus & Kauffman, 1991; Metzke, 1998; Nixon, 2013; Rosenholtz, 1989; Sorapuru, 2012; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011; Theobald, 1989).

Research on the career intentions of principals conducted by Tekleselassie and Villarreal (2011) found that districts could reduce principal departure intentions (factor 0.83) by supporting embedded professional development, such as participation in peer networks. Sorapuru's (2012) quantitative correlation study of 220 principals produced similar results, finding that job embedded learning with collegial network support was the most significant professional development factor ($p<0.05$) associated with a principal's intent to remain in the position. The principals in several studies noted the importance of peer network support and cited such support as a critical component of job satisfaction (McManus and Kauffman, 1991; Metzke, 1998; Nixon, 2013; Rosenholtz, 1989; Theobald, 1989). The results of these studies indicate strong backing for the motivational theories developed by Herzberg (1959), Vroom (1964), and Hackman and Oldham (1976), and further substantiate the research conducted by Schmidt (1976), Gaziel (1986), Humphrey et al. (2007), Estes and Polnick (2012), Maforah (2015), and Chang et al. (2015), by finding participation in a social support network is a significant factor of principal job satisfaction. Principals play a critical role in guiding and supporting the educational community (Anthony, 2016; Beteille et al, 2012; Burkhauser et al., 2012; Fuller, 2012; Miller, 2009; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010). Providing individualized professional development and opportunities for principals to participate in peer networks could be an influential strategy to use in efforts to increase principal retention.

Principal mentoring. To become an effective leader and for job satisfaction to occur, principals need ongoing support and guidance from an experienced practitioner (Barnes, 2015; Daresh, 2004; Manna, 2015; Mulfard, 2015). In an examination of NCES *School and Staffing Survey for Principals* data, Manna (2015) found that principals reported mentoring and coaching to be the most effective form of professional development. Yet, the same researcher, along with Daresh (1982, 2004) found that very few beginning principals engaged in any type of formal mentoring program or induction process. The principals in Daresh's (2004) study clarified further, saying they felt unsupported in their managerial efforts by their district's central office. According to Mulford (2003), mentoring involves active guidance in the development of career skills, knowledge, and behaviors essential to performing the assigned role. Principal participants in mentoring programs report increased and improved confidence and competence (Barnes, 2015). Both are essential to principal job satisfaction and should be considered when examining the motivational indicators of job satisfaction for this group.

Feedback and recognition. Feedback as a motivational indicator of job satisfaction refers to an employee receiving clear and direct information about job performance in connection to work completed (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Hunter, 2006). Feedback on principals' job performance may come from supervisors, the administrative team, faculty, staff, students, or community members. It may also come from the work itself (Lunenburg, 2011). What is important is that it comes frequently (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Lunenburg, 2011). Prompt feedback ensures that an employee is aware of the success or failure of the actions performed and thus allows the

employee to reflect on mistakes and plan for improved performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Singh and Billingsley (1998) found clear expectations, communication about the vision and mission of the school and district, consistent feedback, fair evaluations, and recognition for accomplishments were of primary importance to educator job satisfaction.

Recognition is defined as acknowledgment, approval, and genuine praise for an employee's work (Luthans & Stajkovic, 2017). These findings are supported in research about educator morale conducted by Blasé, Dedrick, and Strathe (1986) and studies by Schmidt (1976), Elmore and Burney (1997) and Robinson (2011) have shown over a thirty-five-year period that one of the most important factors contributing to principal growth is continued recognition through feedback. Schmidt's (1976) study, which included 74 principal respondents from both elementary and secondary schools, and Gaziel's (1986) study, which included 126 elementary school principal respondents, both found that receiving recognition was second only to feelings of personal achievement in ranking the intrinsic factors contributing to principal satisfaction (Gaziel, 1986; Schmidt, 1976). This recognition, in the form of feedback, drives the principals toward goal achievement which often results in successful principals who are likely to remain in the position (Beteille et al., 2012; Boyce & Bowers, 2016; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011).

The research findings of Beteille et al. (2012), Boyce and Bowers (2016), Tekleselassie and Villarreal (2011), Gaziel (1986), and Schmidt (1976) align to Abraham Maslow's (1943) *Theory of Human Motivation*. The top tier of Maslow's (1943) model, self-actualization, is defined as the personal success one feels; the tier just below it is the

need for esteem, prestige, and feelings of accomplishment. It would follow then that principals cannot reach the identified top tier and greatest level of job satisfaction, self-actualization, without the support of the tier just below, recognition. Recognition has the potential to lift principals to achieve at their maximum potential and could lead to a long and satisfied tenure (Bottoms & Schmidt-Davis, 2010). Local school district officials must be aware of the principals' need to be recognized for the work they do, as well as their need for direct feedback regarding the outcomes of their efforts.

Professional growth. Professional growth in a supportive environment refers to the opportunity for employees to improve their skills and broaden their knowledge (Lipman, 2015). MetLife (2013) and Adamowski et al. (2007) suggest that a step toward closing the autonomy gap identified would be for principals to develop their skills as expert managers through ongoing social support networks and professional development. Hackman and Oldham (1980) suggest that increasing job autonomy and feedback has a significant effect on an employee's overall level of motivation and will lead to a higher level of job satisfaction, improved performance, and the likelihood of retention. Principals in the Tekleselassie and Villarreal (2011) study reported reaching a plateau of growth early in their position. The principals in the study indicated that the limited opportunities for growth increased their decision to leave the position (Tekleselassie and Villarreal, 2011).

Graen, Scandura, and Graen (1986) added growth opportunity as an essential motivator toward job satisfaction to the Hackman and Oldham's (1976) theory after conducting a study to validate the *Job Characteristics Model of Work Motivation Model*

in 1986. According to Graen, Scandura, and Graen (1986), growth opportunities must be specific to the employee's position. For principals, professional development activities must be individualized and targeted specifically to address the challenging roles they face (Adamowski et al., 2007; Nixon, 2013; Rowland, 2015; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010). In a survey study of 331 principals and assistant principals in 179 Minnesota schools designed to measure perceptions of their own leadership practices, the district's leadership practices, and district conditions and characteristics showed that 33 percent of study participants indicated a desire for differentiated principal professional development (Seashore-Louis et al., 2010). Adamowski et al. (2007) found that 40 percent of the principals surveyed and interviewed felt they needed additional professional development and training in the areas specific to their role as a building principal. Researchers agree that principal professional development should include activities and strategies that target the individual needs of principals and should be designed to promote growth, provide support, and increase job satisfaction (Adamowski et al., 2007; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010; Rowland, 2015; Daresh, 2004; Sabina, 2014). Unfortunately, most principal professional development comes from participation in professional development activities designed for teachers (Adamowski et al., 2007; Daresh, 1982; Elmore & Burney, 1997; Lettre & Campbell, 2016; Mendels, 2012; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011). A stronger emphasis must be placed on meeting the professional growth needs of the nation's current principals.

Experience. Adamowski et al. (2007); Beteille et al. (2011), Daresh (2004), MetLife (2013), Miller (2009), Nixon (2013), and Seashore-Louis et al. (2010), have

shown that ongoing support and development is necessary for all stages in a principal's career, regardless of the number of years of experience he or she has. To be effective, support for principals must be differentiated and collaborative in nature (Adamowksi et al., 2007; Beteille et al., 2012; Daresh, 2004; Seashore-Louis, Wahlstrom, Leithwood, & Anderson, 2010). Exiting principals have expressed low levels of job satisfaction in the areas of support and growth opportunities (Akiba & Reichardt, 2004; Beteille et al., 2012; Bottoms & Schmidt-Davis, 2010; Boyce & Bowers, 2016; Burkhauser et al., 2012; DeAngelis & White, 2011; Fuller & Young, 2009; Maforah, 2015; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011; Schulze & Steyn, 2003). A recent study conducted by Bayer (2016) finds that regardless of the number of years of prior experience, principals entering new positions will not remain if professional and social structures are not in place to support them in their role.

Gender. Rosener (1990) found that women preferred a more transformational leadership style than their male counterparts, who preferred more transactional leadership. Female leaders migrated toward a culture where organizational goals were mutually shared, where feelings of self-worth were valued, and there was an environment of participation in decision making and shared leadership (Rosener, 1990). Leithwood (1992) refers to this as a desire for commitment rather than control (Leithwood, 1992, p. 1). Given this information, it stands to reason that women would prefer a supportive environment and collaborative networks. McKinsey (2009) and Folkman (2012) found female leaders were apt to prefer a leadership environment with mentoring and collegial support while males were more likely to prefer an individualistic setting involving others

only in the execution of tasks. The researchers found that both groups prioritized efficient communication and feedback (Folkman, 2012; McKinsey & Company, 2009). Bottoms and Schmidt-Davis (2010) and Seashore-Louis et al. (2010) found that all groups of principals, regardless of gender and experience, believed their roles would be enhanced and their effectiveness improved, with more autonomy and strong support from the district office.

Conceptual Framework

Given the preceding research, the conceptual framework for this study examined the differences between the means of the independent variables, gender and experience, on the dependent variables, job autonomy and social support. The examination provides relevant information in identifying the differences among principal subgroups who have remained in the position. This information can be used as a basis for state and local agencies when seeking to identify those principals with the highest risk of leaving the position. Additionally, the information from this study, coupled with a compilation of the demographic composition of the principals in the state and/or local school districts, can be synthesized to allow agencies to identify differentiated principal grouping and more efficiently target limited resources to meet their needs.

The conceptual framework in Figure 2.1 depicts the model used to examine the differences between categorical groups of the independent variables gender and experience. The dependent variables in Figure 2.1, job autonomy and social support, have been shown to have significant impact on principal job satisfaction, which in turn is indicative of principal retention (Adamowski et al., 2007; Chang et al., 2015; Clifford &

Chiang, 2016; Estes and Polnick, 2012; Gaziel, 1986; Humphrey et al., 2007; Iannone, 1973; Maforah, 2015; Nixon, 2013; Schmidt, 1976; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011).

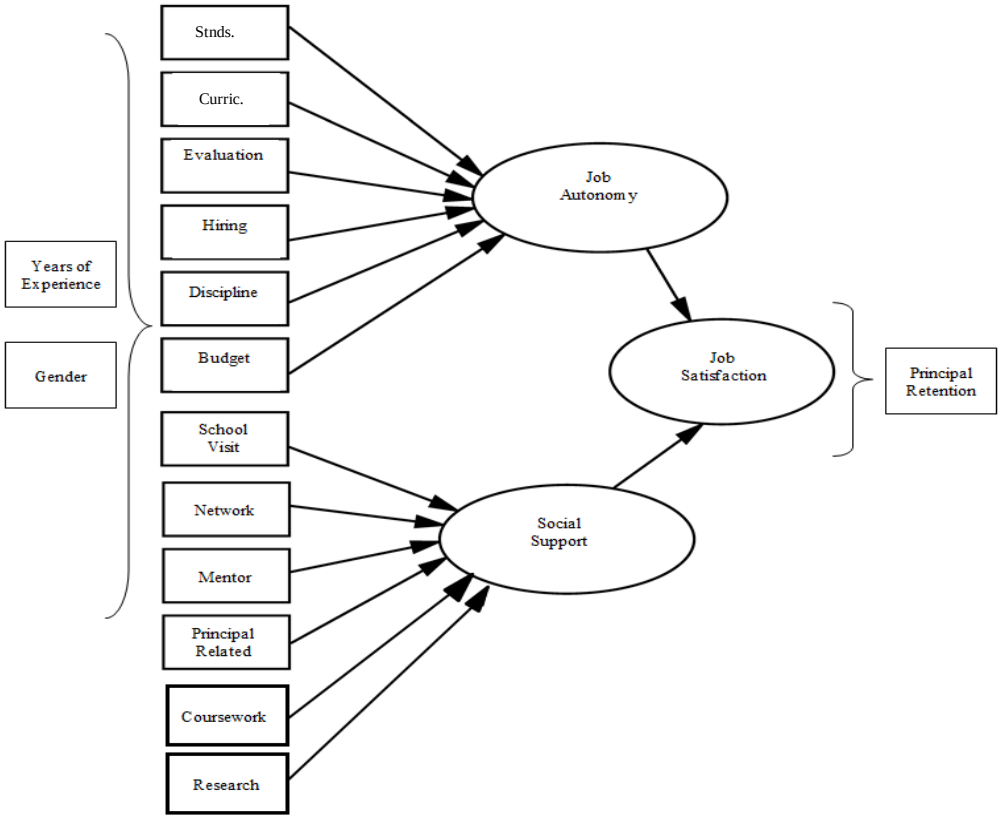

Figure 2.1. Causal-comparative framework depicting categorical groups of independent variables and the causal influence on dependent variables. The independent variables in this framework are gender and number of years of cumulative experience as a principal. The dependent variables in this framework are job autonomy and social support.

The conceptual framework in Figure 2.1 was developed to model this ex post facto study. The study was designed after the phenomena in the model had occurred and the variables could not be manipulated by the researcher (Patten, 2012; Preuss, 2003; Orcher, 2005; Rea & Parker, 2005). The findings of this study do not prove causation as a random controlled sample was not used by the researcher and the study did not meet all the requirements of a true experimental study (Hanneman & Kposowa, 2013; Orcher, 2005; Patten, 2012; Preuss, 2003; Rea & Parker, 2005).

Summary

States and school districts have a responsibility to create a model of education, including leadership support, that is built upon instructional innovation and concerted system wide efforts to provide opportunities for advancement, engagement, and self-actualization (Elmore & Burney, 1997; Robinson, 2011). Principals play a vital role in guiding and supporting this process. They have an impact on every member of the educational community, a responsibility to set the tone for learning, and the obligation to inspire the collective capacity necessary for sustainable improvement (Beteille et al., 2012; Bottoms & Schmitt-Davis, 2010; Branch et al., 2012; Elmore & Burney, 1997; Fuller & Young, 2009; McAdams, 1997; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010; Weinstein et al., 2009). To achieve such improvement in the challenging and ever-changing educational environment, principals must remain in the same school and be supported in their efforts (Anthony, 2016; Beteille et al, 2012; Burkhauser et al., 2012; Fuller, 2012; Miller, 2009; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010). Research tells us that principals must remain in the school for a minimum of five years before educational progress can begin to be realized (Beteille et al., 2012; Bottoms & Schmitt-Davis, 2010; Branch et al., 2012; Elmore & Burney, 1997; Fuller & Young, 2009; McAdams, 1997; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010; Weinstein et al., 2009). However, while research shows that principal longevity creates the collegial and supportive environment necessary for optimal student learning, principals are leaving the position at a rapid rate (Fuller, 2012; Moynihan & Pandey, 2008; NCES, 2013). The average length of a principal's retention is three years, annual turnover rates exceed 70 percent in some states, and principal job satisfaction ratings have fallen to just 32 percent

(Fuller & Young, 2009; MetLife, 2013; NCES, 2013). It is imperative that state and local agencies focus their efforts at understanding and predicting principal turnover so that effective practices can be put in place slow the rapid changes in leadership schools are experiencing.

Principal Retention

A supported and effective principal can create the conditions necessary to shape a school culture where teaching and learning can lead to a continuous improvement (Pritle & Doggett, 2013). However, efforts to address high levels of principal turnover have not been focused on the growth and support of current principals (Mendels, 2012; Usdan et al., 2009). Instead, much of the research and professional development efforts today are centered on pre-service principal preparation programs and principal replacement strategies (Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Rowland, 2015). Several states and the District of Columbia including Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, Massachusetts, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Rhode Island, and Tennessee, have developed principal leadership academies designed to prepare future leaders for the challenging role of school principal (Reform Support Network, nd). While these states and others like them should be applauded for their efforts to ensure quality principal candidates are trained and ready for employment, such efforts do not aid principals already serving nor do they offer solutions or strategies to keep serving principals in their role (Daresh, 2004; Fuller & Young, 2009; MetLife, 2013; Nicholson et al., 2005; Rowland, 2015). Preparing new leaders to assume vacated positions is not enough. State agencies, policy makers, and school district leaders must address the issue of principal turnover by focusing on strategies to retain principals,

not replace them (Daresh, 2004; Fuller & Young, 2009; MetLife, 2013; Nicholson et al., 2005; Rowland, 2015).

Job Satisfaction

Research shows that job satisfaction is a reliable predictor of employee retention (Bobbitt et al., 1991; Meek, 1998; Perrachione et al., 2008). Job satisfaction theory is built on the constructs of motivation and can be closely linked to Abraham Maslow's (1943) *Hierarchy of Needs*. The theory posits the psychological and security needs of employees are necessary for employment, but that it is the intrinsic motivation associated higher order levels of satisfaction that cause an employee to remain in the position (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Kalleberg, 1977; Larkin et al., 2015; Pardee, 1990; Sai, 2016; Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Spector, 1997; Vroom, 1964). For the past 90 years research has consistently supported this theory by showing that intrinsically motivated employees are satisfied employees who continuously strive for excellence and who remain employed with the organization (Bottoms & Schmidt-Davis, 2010; Gaziel, 1986; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Herzberg, 1966; Herzberg et al., 1959; Iannone, 1973; Ingersoll, 2001; Kalleberg, 1977; MacBeath, 2009; Maforah, 2015; Maslow A. H., 1943, 1954; McGregor, 1966; Schmidt, 1976; Vroom, 1964). The two most significant factors contributing to job satisfaction in principals have been identified through research as job autonomy and social support (Bobbitt et al., 1998; Evans, 2010; Parker & Wall, 20011; Sai, 2016; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011). This information should not be overlooked when developing strategies designed to increase

principal retention and formed the basis of the conceptual framework the researcher followed for this study.

Job Autonomy

Job autonomy is viewed by Herzberg (1959) as an intrinsic motivational factor of job satisfaction; Vroom (1964) posits that autonomy is a valued intrinsic motivational factor for enhanced employee effort; Hackman and Oldham (1976) describe autonomy as a core task characteristic that positively affects the employee's psychological state thus resulting in higher work performance, increased job satisfaction, and lower employee turnover (Pogodzinski, Youngs, Frank, & Belman, 2012). Research supports the theorists' claims that an employee's control over how a task is completed is positively correlated to the employee's level of job satisfaction (Adamowski et al., 2007; Akiba & Reichardt, 2004; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Herzberg, et al., 1959; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Maforah, 2015; Lunenburg, 2011; Parker et al., 2001; Nguyen et al., 2003; Nixon, 2013; Vroom, 1964). However, autonomy in isolation has been shown to cause frustration and lead to lower levels of job satisfaction among principals (Adamowski et al., 2007; Daresh, 2004; MetLife, 2013; Weinstein et al., 2009). Principals must have a solid social support system with consistent, individualized professional development opportunities to enhance the skills and qualities required to successfully lead our schools today (Adamowski et al., 2007; Beteille et al., 2012; Bottoms & Schmidt-Davis, 2010; Daresh, 2004; Mendels, 2012; MetLife, 2013; Moynihan & Pandey, 2008; Usdan et al., 2009; Weinstein et al., 2009).

According to Vroom (1964), Seashore and Taber (1975), and Hackman and Oldham (1976), job satisfaction exists in the perceptions of principals' experiences, and is greatly impacted by their perceived locus of control, their belief in the worthiness of the position, and their capacity to succeed. Deci and Ryan (1985) agree and emphasize that for intrinsic motivation to occur, a sense of competence and ability to complete challenging tasks must be present. The findings of these researchers are parallel to the role of job enrichment. Job enrichment, as a component of autonomy, seeks to motivate employees through challenging, yet attainable work tasks and goals that require high levels of skill, responsibility, and control (Lunenburg, 2011). The autonomy afforded through job enrichment validates the value of the work and the employees' important role in the organization (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Herzberg, 1987; Lunenburg, 2011). Supporting this concept through strategies designed to increase principal job satisfaction may significantly increase principal retention rates (Boyce & Bowers, 2016; Iannone, 1973; Maforah, 2015; Nixon, 2013; Sorapuru, 2012; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011). Such work cannot be done in isolation and requires strong support from the district office, local and state agencies, and collaborative collegial networks.

Social Support

Principals need ongoing social support and guidance from experienced practitioner, colleagues, and the central office (Barnes, 2015; Daresh, 2004; Manna, 2015; Mulfard, 2015). Social support can be described as regular feedback through participation in collegial networks, mentoring, coaching, and or other collaborative projects and district initiatives (Seashore-Louis et al., 2010). A strong social support

culture for principals facilitates growth, development, and leadership sustainability and has proven critical to principal success (Adamowski et al. 2007). In studies conducted by Daresh (1982, 2004), Manna (2015), and Nixon (2013), principals reported mentoring and coaching to be the most effective form of professional development and social support. However, Adamowski et al. (2007) and Daresh (1982; 2004) have found that very few beginning principals are engaged in any type formal mentoring program or induction process.

As with mentoring, very few principals report involvement with professional development training activities specific to their role as a principal (Adamowksi et al., 2007; Nixon, 2013; Usdan et al., 2000). While researchers agree that principal professional development should include activities and strategies that target the individual needs of principals and should be designed to promote growth, provide support, and increase job satisfaction, most principal professional development comes by way of participation in professional development activities designed for teachers (Adamowski et al., 2007; Daresh, 1982, 2004; Elmore & Burney, 1997; Lettre & Campbell, 2016; Mendels, 2012; Rowland, 2015; Sabina, 2014; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011). A stronger emphasis must be placed on meeting the professional growth and social support needs of the nation's principals.

There is widespread agreement among principals that their passion for the job, the students, and the desire to inspire and advance continuous learning outcomes for students are essential to their level of job satisfaction and play an integral role in their decisions to remain in the principal position beyond five years (Nixon, 2013). However, they also

attribute a steep decline in job satisfaction to a lack of control in decision making, particularly in the areas of hiring and removing teacher's, budget and expenditures, and curriculum and instructional programs (MetLife, 2013). MetLife (2013) and Adamowski et al. (2007) suggest that a step toward closing the autonomy gap identified by would be for principals to develop their skills as expert managers through ongoing social support networks and professional development. The facilitation of principal job autonomy in a supportive environment for principals cannot be overlooked in the strategic development of effective principal retention strategies.

Closing

Given the important role principals play in shaping the educational environment, it is imperative that retention efforts are improved. State agencies, policy makers, and school district officials must develop and implement effective strategies and programs designed to keep principals in the same school long enough to gain the momentum necessary to enact a vision, build a team, and implement sustainable change. To do this they must first understand the factors that attribute to a principals' decision to remain in the position, and they must recognize the demographic indicators that may or may not impact such decisions. By examining the major factors that attribute to principal job satisfaction; job autonomy and social support, and by comparing the differences in means of the demographic variables known to affect the factors; gender and experience, this study provides information necessary for state and local agencies to use when seeking to identify those principals with the highest risk of leaving the position. The information from this study, coupled with a compilation of the demographic composition of the

principals in the state and/or local school districts, can be synthesized to allow agencies to identify differentiated principal groupings to receive targeted support and professional growth resources.

Chapter 3 – Research Design and Methodology

Introduction

The theoretical model that drove this study posits that principal retention is a function of principal job satisfaction, which is significantly related to job autonomy and a strong social support structure (Chang et al., 2015; Estes and Polnick, 2012; Gaziel, 1986; Humphrey et al., 2007; Maforah, 2015; Schmidt, 1976). Further, it has been shown that job autonomy and social support can be significantly influenced by the principal groupings, gender and the number of years of cumulative principal experience (Branch et al., 2012; Chang et al., 2015; Chou et al., 2010; Gaziel, 1986; Humphrey et al., 2007; Larkin et al., 2015; Maforah, 2015; MetLife, 2013; Schmidt, 1976; Smerek & Peterson, 2007). Therefore, it is advantageous to identify how these principal groupings can affect job autonomy and social support, especially in those principals serving during the first five years in a new school, the years identified by Fuller (2009), Fuller and Young (2009), and Miller (2009) as those when schools are most vulnerable to principal turnover. Such efforts could lead to improvement in principal retention throughout the country and decrease annual principal turnover rates that, according to Fuller (2009), Fuller and Young (2012), and Miller (2009) exceed 70 percent.

Chapter Three introduces the details of the methodology selected to conduct this study. The research rationale, sample and participant information, survey instrument, and data collection and analysis methods are presented in the chapter. The chapter closes by outlining the limitations and advantages of using the selected secondary data set used in the study.

Rationale for Research Approach

This study was conducted as an ex post facto comparative, non-experimental study. Quantitative analysis tools were used to examine principal reported levels of job autonomy and social support. Levels of job autonomy and social support were selected as they are researched based indicators of job satisfaction that could predict principal retention (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Hertzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Larkin, Brantley-Dias, & Lokey-Vega, 2015; Maforah, 2015; Schmidt, 1976; Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Vroom, 1964). The homogenous groups of principals selected for the study included groupings by gender and cumulative years of experience (Rea & Parker, 2005; Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). These categorical groups were selected as they had been found to influence factors identified as significant to principal job satisfaction; job autonomy and social support (Branch, Hanushek, & Rivkin, 2012; Chang, Leach, & Anderman, 2015; Chou, Kroger, and Lee, 2010; Gaziel, 1986; Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Larkin et al., 2015; Maforah, 2015; MetLife, 2013; Schmidt, 1976; Smerek & Peterson, 2007). The differences between the means of the independent variable categorical groups on the dependent variables, job autonomy and social support, were analyzed and compared to uncover speculations of differences between the groups that could be used by state agencies, policy makers, and school district leaders as they seek to understand principal needs and support them in their role.

The post-positivist paradigm was selected to guide this comparative study. Post-positivism endeavors to understand differences by examining causes that likely or *probably* determine or influence outcomes (Creswell, 2003; Popper, 1959; Scotland,

2012; Shadish et al., 2002). Post-positivists seek not to prove a hypothesis, but instead to show it is not rejected (Creswell, 2003; Popper, 1959; Scotland, 2012; Shadish et al., 2002). Post-positivist research is described as a process of imperfect claim refinement where differences are examined in the search for relevant and true statements (Creswell, 2003; Popper, 1959; Scotland, 2012; Shadish et al., 2002). Post-positivist researchers recognize that it is not possible to rule out all alternative interpretations of differences, but instead seek to improve understanding of general trends (Salkind, 2010; Shadish et al., 2002). This paradigm was appropriate as this study did not seek to establish definitive causation of job satisfaction, but instead to improve generalized understandings about the differences between the independent, variables groups of gender and experience and the dependent variables, job autonomy and social support. Following the post-positivist paradigm, the researcher examined participant survey data to answer the research questions and support the theory that there are significant differences in the means between genders and reported job autonomy, genders and reported social support, cumulative years of experience and reported job autonomy, and cumulative years of experience and reported social support.

This study was nonexperimental as it did not employ the use of the scientific method to establish cause-effect relationships among variables and did not attempt to control for and rule out every possible alternative interpretation of the findings (Chambliss & Schutt, 2012; Popper, 1959; Salkind, 2010; Scotland, 2012; Shadish et al., 2002). The research was ex post facto because it was designed after the situation studied had occurred and independent variables could not be manipulated by the researcher

(Chambliss & Schutt, 2012; Popper, 1959; Salkind, 2010; Scotland, 2012: Shadish et al., 2002). Ex post facto comparative research allows researchers to explore differences among variables to explain a phenomenon (Chambliss & Schutt, 2012; Patten, 2012; Scotland, 2012; Shadish et al., 2002). The design allows researchers to identify differences between targeted groupings and to test the differences between independent and dependent variables in situations that have already occurred (Chambliss & Schutt, 2012; Patten, 2012; Scotland, 2012; Shadish et al., 2002). Ex post facto was appropriate for the study as the situation being studied had already occurred and the researcher could manipulate the variables (Chambliss & Schutt, 2012; Patten, 2012; Scotland, 2012; Shadish et al., 2002).

Research Setting and Context

To conduct the study, the researcher imported and analyzed a secondary dataset collected by the U.S. Census Bureau between October 2012 and June 2013 (NCES, 2014). The de-identified dataset contained the responses to the nationally distributed 2011-2012 *School and Staffing Survey for Principals* (SASS) and the 2013 *Principal Follow-up Surve*y (PFS), both surveys had more than a 90 percent response rate (NCES, 2017). The SASS was designed to collect information about principal characteristics and demographics including, preparation, professional development, experience, salary, levels of autonomy, priority of goals, perceived barriers; and information about school characteristics, culture, climate, and governance (NCES, 2014). The PFS was designed to measure principal turnover by asking the current principal if he or she was the same school principal who completed the survey in the prior year (NCES, 2014). The

combined SASS and PFS dataset represents the largest and most extensive source of information available on U.S. elementary and secondary school principals (Goldring & Taie, 2014; U.S. Census Bureau, 2014).

Prior to distribution of the survey, the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) identified 95,610 schools or institutions that provided classroom instruction to students in grades 1-12, employed one or more teachers, and had at least one administrator or principal (NCES, 2017). A district sampling frame was applied which resulted in a total of 16,890 districts representing 50 states and the District of Columbia selected for participation in the 2011-2012 SASS (NCES, 2017). Stratified probability proportionate to size was then employed to select district schools (NCES, 2017). Multiple levels of stratification including, school size, governance structure (charter or traditional), and grade levels available in the school were applied to narrow the survey sample to 10,250 schools representing 11.4 percent of the total sampling frame (NCES, 2017). School size was determined according to square root of the number of full-time equivalent teachers reported for each school or imputed during the creation of the sample selection frame (NCES, 2017, p. 72).

Research Sample and Data Source

Participants

This study examined the SASS survey responses of those principals reported in the 2011-2013 NCES combined dataset as stayers and who were employed in their principal position for less than six years at the time of the survey. Research has shown the average occupancy of new principals is three years, but that to be effective the principal

must stay beyond five years (Anthony, 2016; Beteille, Kalogrides, & Loeb, 2012; Burkhauser, Gates, Hamilton, & Ikemoto, 2012; Fuller, 2012; Miller, 2009; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010). The narrow scope of the sample used in this study allowed the researcher to examine the levels of job autonomy and social support experienced by principals who decided to remain in their position during a critical time-period, 1-5 years, when up to 70 percent of their peers choose to leave (Fuller, 2009; Miller, 2009).

Several studies have shown that the motivational indicators of job satisfaction vary among charter and traditional public-school principals (Kirshtein, 2012; Lettre & Campbell, 2016; Ni, Sun, & Rorrer, 2015; Sai, 2016; Vickers, 2014). Such variances were not accounted for in this study. Therefore, public charter school principals were not included. This study did not include principals with ten or more years of experience as Adamowski, Therriault, and Cavanna (2007) and MetLife (2013) have shown that some more experienced principals become complacent and have a tendency to confuse such complacency for autonomy and support. Private and Bureau of Indian Education (BIE) principals were also not included in the study. BIE and private school principals were surveyed by the U.S. Census Bureau (2014) however, they received a different version of the SASS than public-school principals, with different questions, resulting in a different dataset. As such BIE and private school principal data were not included.

Data Source

Principals from 10,250 schools, identified through the NCES stratification process were contacted by the U.S. Census Bureau through regular mail, email, telephone, and field visits from Bureau staff between October 2011 and June 2012 lobbying for the

completion of the SASS (NCES, 2014). The final imputed was weighted and scaled to 89,809 (Goldring & Taie, 2014). Scaling was applied in order to adequately represent the target population sampled (NCES, 2014). The NCES (2017) documented the weighting and imputation process as follows:

1. Initial Basic Weight: The inverse of the probability of selection of the school at the time of selection.
2. Sampling Adjustment Factor: An adjustment that accounts for circumstances that affect the school's probability of selection that are identified after the data collection has begun, such as a merger, duplication, or incorrect building-level collapsing (i.e., a junior high school and a senior high school merge to become a junior/senior high school).
3. Nonresponse Adjustment Factor: An adjustment that accounts for total school nonresponse. It is the weighted (product of initial basic weight and sampling adjustment factor) ratio of the total eligible in-scope schools (interviewed schools plus non interviewed schools) to the total responding in-scope schools (interviewed schools) within cells. In the 2011–2012 SASS determined cell definitions using Chi-squared Automatic Interaction Detection.The CHAID procedure determines an optimal set of cell definitions. These cells require no further collapsing. At this stage of the weighting process, non interviewed and out-of-scope schools are assigned a weight of zero.
4. First-Stage Ratio-Adjustment Factor: A factor that adjusts the sample estimates to known final frame totals after all frame construction. For public-

schools, the first-stage ratio-adjustment factor is equal to the ratio of the total number of SASS frame schools minus out of scope sample schools to the weighted sample estimate of the total number of schools within each weighting class, or cell, defined for this step in the weighting procedure.

5. Imputation: A items with missing values are imputed for records classified as interviews using a two-stage imputation procedure.
    a. Stage 1 imputation uses a logical or deductive method, such as:
        i. Harvesting data from other items in the same questionaire;
        ii. Extracting data from a related SASS component on a different questionnaire; or
        iii. Extracting information about the sample case from the Common Core Data (CCD), which that provided the sampling frames for public-schools.
    b. Stage 2 imputation is applied to items not imputed in the first stage by extracting data from a respondent with similar characteristics to the non-respondent. If there are no observable values discovered through the stage 2 process, the value is derived from an automated algorithm. (NCES, 2017)

All 2011-2012 SASS respondents were included in the 2013 PFS. Weights were applied to the 2013 PFS data in the same manner as the 2011-2012 SASS data, but imputation was not used to adjust for non-responses (NCES, 2014).

Data access. The study involved the analysis of a de-identified secondary dataset and therefore posed minimal direct risks to the survey respondents (45 CFR 46.101(b)). To obtain the data, the researcher collaborated with the Dissertation Committee Chair, Dr. Christopher Benedetti, to solicit the support of a Senior Official with the authority to enter into a contract with the NCES, and the willingness to sponsor data access for the researcher. Although only minimal risk existed, the secondary dataset used was locked in a secure cabinet within secure project office when not in use. While the researcher was away from the project computer while the data was in use, it was be protected by locking the computer and the office in which it was located. Access to the data was limited to the researcher, the Project Officer (PPO) and the System Security Officer (SSO).

Data Collection Methods

Survey Tool

The *School and Staffing Survey for Principals* (SASS) questionnaire was designed to collect information about principal characteristics and demographics, preparation and professional development, experience, salary, levels of autonomy, priority of goals, perceived barriers, and school characteristics, culture, climate and governance (NCES, 2014). The survey distribution frame was determined using a stratified probability design to sample schools in 50 states and the District of Columbia to produce a large dataset with an increased likelihood of capturing the diversity of the U.S. principal population (Chambliss & Schutt, 2012; Hanneman & Kposowa, 2013; Patten, 2012). According to Patten (2012) it takes approximately 1,500 records to achieve precision in a national sample; the NCES dataset exceeds this standard. The first SASS survey was conducted

during the 1987-1988 school year; it was repeated every four years through 2012 (NCES, 2014).

The *Principal Follow-up Survey* (PFS) was administered 12 months after the 2011-2012 SASS to principals at the same schools sampled, thus providing an accurate measure of principal retention for a one-year period. The PFS measured principal turnover by asking the current principal if he or she was the same school principal who completed the survey in the prior year. If the response was affirmative then the principal was categorized in the dataset as a *stayer*. If the principal was no longer employed in the principal position at the school, and the respondent indicated the previous principal left the position to assume a principal role in another school, then the previous principal was categorized as a *mover*. If the respondent indicated the previous principal left the position, and was no longer employed as a principal in any school, then the previous principal was categorized as a *leaver*. This information was combined with the data from the SASS to create a secondary dataset available for research use. Table 3.1 displays the SASS questions used in this study.

Table 3.1

The 2011-2012 School and Staffing Survey for Principals questions used in the study, Principal Autonomy and Social Support: An Ex Post Facto Causal-Comparative Study.

Number	Question
1	Prior to this school year, how many years did you serve as the principal of this or any other school?
2	Prior to this school year, how many years did you serve as the principal of this school?
13	In the past 12 months, have you participated in any professional development activities related to your role as a principal?
14	In the past 12 months, have you participated in the following kinds of professional development? (a) University course related to your role as a principal. (b) Visits to other schools designed to improve your own work as a principal. (c) Individual or collaborative research on a topic of interest to you professionally. (d) Mentoring and/or peer observation and coaching of principals, as part of formal arrangement that is recognized or supported by the school or district. (e) Participating in a principal network (e.g., a group of principals organized by an outside agency or through the Internet).
16	How much actual influence do you think you have as a principal on decisions concerning the following activities? (a) Setting performance standards for students of this school. (b) Establishing curriculum at this school. (d) Evaluating teachers at this school. (e) Hiring new full time teachers at this school. (f) Setting discipline policy at this school. (g) Deciding how your school budget will be spent.
51	Are you male or female?

Note. Adapted from Documentation for the 2011-2012 *School and Staffing Survey*. U. S. Department of Education, 2011.

The 2011-2012 SASS contained only three new questions in 2011-2012 which were validated through two separate field tests conducted by an independent research and

evaluation company prior to use (NCES, 2017). All other questions were previously validated on the 2007-2008 SASS (NCES, 2014, NCES, 2017).

Survey Data Collection

This study employed the use of the *School and Staffing Survey for Principals* (SASS) and *Principal Follow-up Survey* (PFS) combined secondary data set held by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, 2014). The U.S. Census Bureau nationally distributed the SASS from October 2011 to June 2012 (NCES, 2014). The *Principal Follow-up Survey* (PFS) was distributed twelve months after the 2011-2012 SASS, from March 2013 to June 2013. The goals of the PFS were to determine the number of principals who remained in the same position in the same school, the number of principals who moved to a principalship in a different school, and the number of principals who left the position (NCES, 2017).

All SASS response data were collected by the U.S. Census Bureau between October 2011 and June 2012. Survey responses were collected through the mail and via the Internet with with telephone and in-person field based follow-up (NCES, 2014). Schools and principals were selected for participation based on a stratified probability-proportionate-to-size (PPS) sampling procedure. The stratified sample separated the full sample of schools into mutually exclusive groups called strata; random samples were then taken from each stratum to ensure the entire population was adequately represented (NCES, 2017; Rea & Parker, 2005). The U.S. Census Bureau made initial contact with selected schools by telephone to confirm school and district contact information three to six months prior to distribution (NCES, 2014, 2017). Surveys were then mailed to

schools with follow-up telephone contact if response data was not received. If the U.S. Census Bureau staff was not able to collect information via mail, Internet, or telephone, a field representative conducted an in-person meeting at the school or district to collect the response data (NCES, 2014, 2017). Table 3.2 presents the timeline for SASS survey distribution and data collection.

Table 3.2

Timeline for School and Staffing Survey for Principals data collection by the U. S. Census Bureau.

Activity	Timetable
Initial package(s) mailed to school districts requesting that they complete the School District Questionnaire	October 2011
Completed questionnaires accepted by mail	October 2011 – June 2012
Telephone follow-up of nonresponding schools	October 2011 – November 2011
Reminder letter mailed to nonresponding schools	November 2011
Telephone follow-up of nonresponding schools	December 2011 – January 2012
Reminder letter mailed to nonresponding schools	January 2012
Field follow-up with nonresponding schools	February 2012 – March 2012
Data collection closeout	June 2012

Note. Adapted from Documentation for the 2011-2012 *School and Staffing Survey*. U. S. Department of Education, 2017, *NCES 2016-817*, p.79.

The PFS data was collected between March 2013 and June 2013. This data was collected primarily by mail, with telephone and email follow-up (NCES, 2014, 2017). All public and private school principals who responded to the 2011-2012 SASS were included in the 2013 PFS survey sample (NCES, 2014, 2017). The return rate for the PFS was 90 percent (NCES, 2017). Post survey interviews were conducted by U.S. Census Bureau representatives for validation purposes (NCES, 2014, 2017). Table 3.3 presents the timeline for PFS survey distribution and data collection.

Table 3.3

Timeline for Principal Follow-up Survey (PFS) Data Collection

Activity	Timetable
Introductory letter and the Principal Status Form mailed to schools	March 2013
Second Principal Status Form mailed to nonresponding schools	March 2013
Telephone follow-up of nonresponding schools	April 2013
Email reminder to nonresponding validation study principals	April 2013-May 2013
Telephone follow-up of nonresponding validation study principals	April 2013 – June 2013
Introductory letter and the Principal Status Form mailed to principals	April 2013 – June 2013
Email reminder to nonresponding principals	May 2013
Telephone follow-up of nonresponding principals	May 2013 – June 2013
Data collection closeout	June 2013

Note. Adapted from Documentation for the 2012-2013 *School and Staffing Survey*. U.S. Department of Education, 2015, *NCES 2015-099*, p.7.

Paper versions SASS and PFS responses were received in Jefferson, Indiana and then transferred to the U.S. Census Bureau, where they were converted to an electronic format, coded, and combined with Internet based survey responses (NCES, 2017). Follow-up phone calls and field visits conducted by U.S. Census Bureau staff were recorded by the Bureau's Case Management System and subsequently combined with the paper and Internet dataset (NCES, 2017). Final datasets were reviewed and cleaned to ensure all cells contained data (NCES, 2017).

Data Analysis Methods

This study was designed to determine and compare the mean levels of job autonomy and social support experienced by principals when grouped by gender and when grouped by experience. The independent variable for each comparison included

two distinct categorical groups; gender included the categorical groups of male and female, experience included the categorical groups 1-3 years of cumulative experience and 4-9 years of cumulative experience. The dependent variables, job autonomy and social support, were both measured on interval scales and the data was normally or parametrically distributed (Hanneman & Kposowa, 2013; Martin & Bridgmon, 2012; Rea & Parker, 2005; Salkind, 2010).

The researcher used the two-tailed independent samples *t*-test to conduct the statistical analysis for this study. The two-tailed independent samples *t*-test is a parametric test used to compare the arithmetic means of two independent samples with a dependent variable measured on an interval scale (Hanneman & Kposowa, 2013; Martin & Bridgmon, 2012; Rea & Parker, 2005; Salkind, 2010). Two-tailed *t*-tests are used when the difference between two means can occur in either directions; the mean of one sample may be either larger or smaller than the other (Hanneman & Kposowa, 2013; Martin & Bridgmon, 2012; Rea & Parker, 2005; Salkind, 2010). This method was appropriate because the study included the comparison of the arithmetic means between two distinct categories of the independent variable, the dependent variable was measured on an interval scale, the data was parametric or normally distributed, and the results were non-directional (Hanneman & Kposowa, 2013; Martin & Bridgmon, 2012; Rea & Parker, 2005; Salkind, 2010).

Data Preparation

The secondary dataset received from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) was imported by the researcher into the *Statistical Package for Social Sciences*

(SPSS) V25 program database. Once imported, all item response records not designated for use in this study were deleted.

Sample identification. The researcher reduced the dataset to include only the records for traditional public-school principals with less than ten years of experience and less than six years at their current school. The sample did not include principals from charter schools as several studies have shown that the indicators of job satisfaction vary among charter and traditional public-school principals and such variances were not included in this study (Kirshtein, 2012; Lettre & Campbell, 2016; Ni, Sun, & Rorrer, 2015; Sai, 2016; Vickers, 2014). Additionally, sample did not include principals with ten or more years of cumulative experience. Principals serving in the same position for ten or more years may become complacent and can inadvertently misrepresent such complacency as inflated levels of job autonomy and social support (Adamowski et al., 2007; MetLife, Inc., 2013). Finally, the study was conducted using U.S. Census Bureau survey data specific to traditional public-school principals. Bureau of Indian Education and private school principals did not complete the same U.S. Census Bureau survey as the one used for study, therefore data could not be accurately combined and examined (NCES, 2014).

To reduce the dataset the researcher used the *Select Cases* function in SPSS V25. The secondary dataset included a *charter school identifier* which was identified with a value of 1; traditional public-schools were identified in the dataset with a value of 2 (NCES, 2017). Using the *Select Cases* function the researcher selected all cases traditional public-school cases and then deleted unselected cases. Next, the using the

same *Select Cases* function, the researcher reduced the sample to include only principals with less than ten years of experience. Records with a numeric value of 1 through 9 in the *total years as a principal* field were selected for inclusion, all other records were deleted. Then the researcher reduced the sample to include only principals in their first five years. Using the *Select Cases* function, the researcher selected for inclusion records with numeric values of 1 through 5 in the *years as a principal in this school* field and deleted records not selected. The resulting population sizes are included in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4

Categorical Independent Variables Sample Size

Categorical Variable Group	n	Percent	N
1-3 Cumulative Years of Experience	1,290	45.9%	2,820
4-9 Cumulative Years of Experience	1,530	54.1%	2,820
Male	1,590	56.4%	2,820
Female	1,230	43.6%	2,820

Source. SASS and PFS 2011-2013 Combined Dataset.

Independent variables. The independent variables used in this study were principal groupings by gender (male or female) and cumulative years of experience as a principal (1-3 years or 4-9 years). These variables, depicted in Table 3.4, were extracted from the full dataset of traditional public-school principals collected by the NCES (2013). The variable field *total years as a principal*, which represented the number of years of cumulative experience, was coded by the researcher. Responses with numeric values between 1 and 3 were coded to 1 and responses with numeric values between 4 and 9 were coded to 2. This coding resulted in two categorical nonequivalent groups of the independent variable representing cumulative years of experience that could be compared. The variable field *gender* was coded by NCES in the original data set (NCES,

2013). The researcher did not change the gender codes. Table 3.5 presents the coding for categorical groups of the independent variables used in this study.

Table 3.5

Independent Variable Coding for SPSS Analysis

SASS Code	Question	SPSS Code	SPSS Code
A0320	Are you a male or a female?	Male = 1	Female = 2
A0025	Prior to this school year, how many years did you serve as the principal of this or any school?	1-3 = 1	4-9 = 2

Note. Adapted from 2011-20132 *School and Staffing Survey for Principals*.

Dependent variables. The dependent variables in the study, job autonomy and social support, were measured using indicator variables from the 2011-2012 (SASS). Job autonomy and social support are latent variables, meaning they are not directly observable and therefore had to be measured using measurable indicator variables (Bollen, 1989; Kline, 2016). The indicator variables used to measure job autonomy in this study were questions about the influence of principal from the 2011-2012 SASS found in Table 3.6. These items, which first appeared on the 1987-1988 SASS, have been validated multiple times over the past twenty years through both field-tests and post-test interviews conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau (NCES, 2007, 2015, 2017).

Job autonomy. The indicator variables used to measure job autonomy were coded using 5-point equally spaced Likert scale (NCES, 2013, 2017). Column three in Table 3.6 shows the interval scale coding for the indicator variables used to measure job autonomy in this study. Once the indicator variables for job autonomy were coded, the researcher combined them to form a new variable representing the total job autonomy score for each respondent.

Table 3.6

Job Autonomy Indicator Variables with Coding for SPSS Analysis

SASS Code	Question	SPSS Interval Scale
A0083	Influence setting performance standards for students	0 – Not Applicable 1 – No Influence
A0084	Influence establishing curriculum	2 – Minor Influence
A0086	Influence evaluating teachers	3 – Moderate Influence
A0087	Influence hiring new full-time teachers	4 – Major Influence
A0088	Influence setting discipline policy	
A0089	Influence deciding how the school budget will be spent	

Note. Adapted from 2011-20132 *School and Staffing Survey for Principals*.

Social support. The indicator variables used to measure the latent variable social support were principals responses to the 2011-2012 SASS questions in Table 3.7. These questions were designed to measure participation in professional development directly related to the principal role (NCES, 2017). Extensive pretesting took place prior to the inclusion of these questions on the survey (NCES, 2017). To validate the items NCES contracted with an outside vendor, ICF Macro, to conduct pre-test interviews with principals from twelve schools in eight states plus the District of Columbia (NCES, 2017). Principals from four elementary schools, four middle schools, and four high schools were included in the first round of validation interviews (NCES, 2017). Questions were revised based on their feedback and then field tested again with a new sample of nine princpals from seven states (NCES, 2017). Participants in the second round of field-test interviews included principals from two elementary schools, four middle schools, and three high schools (NCES, 2017).

The researcher coded the indicator variables used to measure social support using a 2-point scale. Column three in Table 3.7 shows the coding for the indicator variables

used to measure social support in this study. Once the indicator variables for social support were coded, the researcher combined them to form a new variable representing the total social support score for each respondent. To complete this task, the researcher used the *Transform*, *Compute,* and *Sum* functions in SPSS V25. In survey research, interval data are often collected into ordinal categories with a range of values rather than one single value (Rea and Parker, 2005, pg. 96). These closed-ended survey questions, although ordinal in measure, can be converted to interval data (Bollen, 1989; Kline, 2016; Rea and Parker, 2005)

Table 3.7

Social Support Indicator Variables and Coding for SPSS Analysis

SASS Code	Question	SPSS Interval Scale
A0059	In the past 12 months, have you participated in any professional development activities related to your role as a principal?	0 – No 1 – Yes
A0060	In the past 12 months, have you participated in a University course(s) related to your role as principal?	
A0061	In the past 12 months, have you participated in visits to other schools designed to improve your own practice?	
A0062	In the past 12 months, have you participated in individual or collaborative research on a topic of interest to you professionally?	
A0063	In the past 12 months, have you participated in mentoring and/or peer observation and coaching of principals, as part of a form arrangement that is recognized or supported by the school or district?	
A0064	In the past 12 months, have you participated in a principal network (e.g., a group of principals organized by an outside agency or through the Internet)?	

Note. Adapted from 2011-20132 *School and Staffing Survey for Principals.*

Normality. The Central Limit Theorem (CLT) states the sampling distribution of mean of any independent random variable will be normal or nearly normal if the sample size is large enough (Feller, 1968; Penn State University, 2018). If the distribution of data is symmetric then a sample size of 5 is considered large enough to invoke the CLT

(Feller, 1968; Penn State University, 2018). A skewed distribution would require a sample size of at least 30, and an extremely skewed distribution would require a sample size more than 30 (Feller, 1968; Penn State University, 2018). All the samples in this study exceeded the recommended minimum sample size for normality. The researcher also included the Levine *F* test to verify variance homogeneity (Feller, 1968; Salkind, 2010; Shadish et al., 2002).

Criterion for analysis. After testing for normality, the researcher conducted independent samples *t*-tests to test the null hypothesis for each research question. Hypotheses were stated using the formulas, H0: $\mu1-\mu2=0$ ($\mu1=\mu2$) and H1: $\mu1-\mu2\neq0$ ($\mu1\neq\mu2$). The researcher used two-tailed tests as no direction was predicted (Hanneman & Kposowa, 2013; Martin & Bridgmon, 2012; Rea & Parker, 2005; Salkind, 2010). Statistical significance was set at $p<.05$ ($\alpha=.05$). The degree of freedom was calculated using the formula df= n1+n2-2, and used determined the critical *t* value for each test and the *F* value for Levene's test for homogeneity of the variance (Hanneman & Kposowa, 2013; Martin & Bridgmon, 2012; Rea & Parker, 2005; Salkind, 2010).

With criterion set the independent samples *t*-test function of SPSS V.25 was employed to compute the arithmetic mean for the categorical independent variable groups. The means were then compared to answer the research questions:

1. Is there a difference between cumulative years of principal experience and job autonomy?
2. Is there a difference between cumulative years of principal experience and social support?

3. Is there a difference between the gender of the principal and job autonomy?
4. Is there a difference between the gender of the principal and social support?

Assumptions

The independent samples *t*-test assumes the independent variables are represented by two independent categorical groups, that do not influence each other, and the dependent variable is continuous (Hanneman & Kposowa, 2013; Martin & Bridgmon, 2012; Rea & Parker, 2005; Salkind, 2010; Scotland, 2012). In this study, the independent variable groups included female principals and male principals; and principals with 1-3 years of cumulative experience and principals with 4-9 years of cumulative experience. It was assumed that the respondents reported as female principals were not also reported as male principals; and that the principals reported with 1-3 cumulative years of experience were not also reported as principals with 4-9 cumulative years of experience. The independent samples *t*-test assumes that data is normally distributed and that the samples have homogeneity of variance (Hanneman & Kposowa, 2013; Martin & Bridgmon, 2012; Rea & Parker, 2005; Salkind, 2010; Scotland, 2012). The Levene Test was included in the analysis of data to verify homogeneity (Hanneman & Kposowa, 2013; Martin & Bridgmon, 2012; Rea & Parker, 2005; Salkind, 2010; Scotland, 2012). It was assumed that these tests were conducted correctly and that the results were accurate. Lastly, it was assumed that the principals who responded to the 2011-2012 SASS and 2013 PFS understood the questions and answered honestly, and that the secondary dataset used to conduct this study accurately reported those responses.

Issues of Trustworthiness

This ex post facto comparative study allowed the researcher to assert conclusions about the differences between the means of the independent variables on the dependent variables. However, no assurances can be made that other unidentified variables were not the true cause of any differences between the means of the independent variables on the dependent variables (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). Threats to the validity of this and all causal studies, can include, external events, cross group contamination, and misidentification causal conclusions (Chambliss & Schutt, 2012; Hanneman & Kposowa, 2013; Martin & Bridgmon, 2012; Rea & Parker, 2005).

Limitations and Delimitations

The 2011-2012 *School and Staff Survey for Principals* (SASS) and 2013 *Principal Follow-up Survey* (PFS) data are limited in that it they are not longitudinal in nature, and only represent principal retention over a one-year period. Therefore, the researcher was not able to follow principals' employment over an extended period-of-time. An additional limitation of using a secondary dataset for this study is that the indicators and data were not collected to specifically address the research questions for this study. The advantages afforded in using the 2011-2012 SASS and 2013 PFS dataset include the size of the dataset and the stratified national representation of U.S. elementary and secondary principals. If this research had been conducted on a smaller state-level scale it would not have yielded nationally generalizable results for the independent variable principal groupings included in this study.

Delimitations of the study include the decision to limit the study to traditional public-school principals who were in their first five years in the same position, and who did not have more than nine years of experience. The narrow scope does not allow the results of this study to be generalized to the entire school principal population, but instead only to those principals with these specific characteristics. Despite the limitations, the information yielded from this study are valuable for state agencies and local districts in addressing principal retention.

Summary

Elevated principal turnover rates across the U.S., some reaching as high as 70 percent annually, have sparked national conversations and prompted agencies and states to address the issues (Fuller, 2009; Fuller & Young, 2012; Miller, 2009). Efforts have largely focused on preparing new principals to fill vacated roles, which has done little to stop the revolving door of school principals throughout the country (Daresh, 2004; Fuller & Young, 2009; MetLife, 2013; Nicholson, Harris-John, & Schimmel, 2005; Rowland, 2015). Principal turnover and retention research has had a narrow focus in root cause analysis based on information obtained from principals leaving the field; very little attention has been given to principals who choose to remain in their schools and why (Boyce & Bowers, 2016; Mendels, 2012; Usdan, McCloud, & Podmostko, 2009). This study seeks to begin to fill the gap in appreciative literature focused on principals who remain in their positions.

Studies have shown that levels of principal job satisfaction are declining and have indicated a positive correlation between turnover and dissatisfaction (Fuller & Young,

2009; MetLife, 2013; NCES, 2013). Research has also shown that job satisfaction is a strong indicator of employee retention, indicating a positive correlation between job satisfaction and employee retention (Chang et al., 2015; Estes and Polnick, 2012; Gaziel, 1986; Humphrey et al., 2007; Maforah, 2015; Schmidt, 1976). Several researchers have found that job autonomy and social support are the most significant factors leading to principal job satisfaction (Bobbitt, Faupel, & Burns, 1981; Evans, 2010; Parker & Wall, 2011; Perrachione, Rosser, & Petersen, 2008; Sai, 2016; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011). Additionally, studies show two statistically significant demographic variables influence job satisfaction; experience and gender (Branch et al., 2012; Chang et al., 2015; Chou et al., 2010; Gaziel, 1986; Humphrey et al., 2007; Larkin et al., 2015; Maforah, 2015; MetLife, 2013; Schmidt, 1976; Smerek & Peterson, 2007). This study sought to explore the differences between the mean levels of the indicators of job satisfaction, job autonomy and social support, their influencing demographic variables, gender and experience (Bobbitt et al., 1981; Branch et al., 2012; Chang et al., 2015; Chou et al., 2010; Evans, 2010; Gaziel, 1986; Humphrey et al., 2007; Larkin et al., 2015; Maforah, 2015; MetLife, 2013; Parker & Wall, 2011; Perrachione et al., 2008; Sai, 2016; Schmidt, 1976; Smerek & Peterson, 2007; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011).

The researcher conducted an ex post facto comparative study to examine the differences in the mean levels of the independent variables, experience and gender, and their dependent variables, job autonomy and social support. Data for the study was harvested from the NCES secondary de-identified dataset containing 2011-2012 *School and Staffing Survey for Principals* results and the 2013 *Principal Follow-up Survey*

results. Using SPSS V.25 software, the researcher created frequency polygons and performed two-tailed independent samples *t*-tests to obtain mean scores for job autonomy and social support grouped according gender and according to the cumulative years of experience. Results were examined to determine if the means of the independent variable groups were statistically different from each other. Data from this study provide valuable information for state agencies and local districts in predicting principal turnover and in addressing principal retention.

Chapter 4 – Analysis of Data

Introduction

Chapter Four presents the results of this ex post facto comparative study. The purpose of this study was to examine the differences in the means of the independent variables, gender and experience, and their dependent variables, job autonomy and social support. The study employed the use of a secondary data set held by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) with principal responses to the 2011-2012 *School and Staffing Survey for Principals* (SASS) and the 2013 *Principal Follow-up Survey* (PFS). This combined dataset represents the largest and most extensive source of information available on U.S. elementary and secondary school principals (Goldring & Taie, 2014; U.S. Census Bureau, 2014). Quantitative analyses were conducted to examine descriptive statistics and to calculate and compare the arithmetic means between independent variable groups and their dependent variables to identify statistically significant differences. The independent variables used in the study were cumulative years of experience and gender. The dependent variables were job autonomy and social support.

This examination provides relevant information in identifying job satisfaction differences between principal subgroups. This chapter first presents demographic information about the dataset and sample frame and then presents the quantitative results related to each research question:

1. Is there a difference between cumulative years of principal experience and job autonomy?

2. Is there a difference between cumulative years of principal experience and social support?
3. Is there a difference between the gender of the principal and job autonomy?
4. Is there a difference between the gender of the principal and social support?

Results

Sample

The data for the study was extracted from the de-identified principal responses to the 2011-2012 SASS and 2013 PFS combined secondary dataset. The SASS and PFS were distributed by the U.S. Census Bureau between October 2011 and June 2012, with a 90 percent return rate (NCES, 2017). The sample frame analyzed represented 2,820 traditional public-school principals purposefully selected from a stratified sample of principal respondents to the 2011-2012 SASS and 2013 PFS (NCES, 2014). Purposeful selection was based on independent variable parameters; principals with between one and nine years of cumulative experience who had been in their current role and school for between one and five years, who belonged to either the male or female gender group and had responded to both the 2011-2012 *School and Staffing Survey for Principals* (SASS) and the 2013 *Principal Follow-up Survey* (PFS).

The independent variable grouping for experience included 1,290 principals with 1-3 cumulative years of experience as a principal in any school and 1,530 principals with 4-9 cumulative years of experience as a principal in any school. The independent variable grouping for gender included 1,590 male principals and 1,230 female principals. Independent variable grouping sizes are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Number and Percent of Principals in Independent Variable Groups

Independent Variable	Category	Number	Percent
Cumulative Years of Experience	1-3	1,290	46.0%
	4-9	1,530	54.0%
Gender	Male	1,590	56.4%
	Female	1,230	43.6%

Note. N=2,820

Demographic Information

Demographic data for the sample frame are presented in Tables 4.2-4.5. Table 4.2 displays the percentage and number of principals from each census region of the United States (U.S.); Northeast, Midwest, South, and West. Categories include the Northeast: Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Vermont; Midwest: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, and Wisconsin; South: Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia; and West: Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Hawaii, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming.

Table 4.2

Regional Representation of the Sample Frame

Demographic	Category	Number	Percent
United States Region	Northeast	500	17.7%
	Midwest	740	26.2%
	South	910	32.3%
	West	670	23.8%

Note. N=2,820

Table 4.3 displays the percentage of principals from each school level represented in the sample frame; primary, middle, secondary, and combined primary, middle, and secondary.

Table 4.3

Number and Percent of Principals in each School Level Category

Demographic	Category	Number	Percent
School Level	Primary	900	32%
	Middle	820	29%
	Secondary	890	32%
	Combined	210	.07%

Note. N=2,820

Table 4.4 displays the number percentage of principals from each urban-centric locale school category represented in the sample frame: city, suburb, town, and rural fringe. Variable descriptions were updated to incorporate 2000 Census population and geography information (U.S. Department of Education, 2013). Categories are defined by the U.S. Department of Education (2013) as:

1. City:
    - Large: Territory inside an urbanized area and inside a principal city with population of 250,000 or more;

- Midsize: Territory inside an urbanized area and inside a principal city with population less than 250,000 and greater than or equal to 100,000;
- Small: Territory inside an urbanized area and inside a principal city with population less than 100,000.

2. Suburb:
    - Large: Territory outside a principal city and inside an urbanized area with population of 250,000 or more;
    - Midsize: Territory outside a principal city and inside an urbanized area with population less than 250,000 and greater than or equal to 100,000; 23
    - Small: Territory outside a principal city and inside an urbanized area with population less than 100,000.
3. Town:
    - Fringe: Territory inside an urban cluster that is less than or equal to 10 miles from an urbanized area;
    - Distant: Territory inside an urban cluster that is more than 10 miles and less than or equal to 35 miles from an urbanized area;
    - Remote: Territory inside an urban cluster that is more than 35 miles from an urbanized area.
4. Rural:
    - Fringe: Census-defined rural territory that is less than or equal to 5 miles from an urbanized area, as well as rural territory that is less than or equal to 2.5 miles from an urban cluster;

- Distant: Census-defined rural territory that is more than 5 miles but less than or equal to 25 miles from an urbanized area, as well as rural territory that is more than 2.5 miles but less than or equal to 10 miles from an urban cluster;
- Remote: Census-defined rural territory that is more than 25 miles from an urbanized area and is also more than 10 miles from an urban cluster.

Table 4.4

Number and Percent of Principals in each Urban Level Category

Demographic	Number	Percent
City	460	16.4%
Suburb	740	26.2%
Town	490	17.3%
Rural	1130	40.1%

Note. N=2,820

Table 4.5 displays the break out of sample frame by years of experience for the independent variable groups, gender and cumulative years of experience.

Table 4.5

Sample Frame Number of Years in Current School

Years in Current School	Gender Group	Cumulative Experience Groups 1-3 Years	4-9 Years	Total
	Male	300	150	450
1	Female	250	130	380
	Total	540	280	820
	Male	210	120	330
2	Female	170	80	250
	Total	390	200	590
	Male	210	110	320
3	Female	150	80	230
	Total	370	190	560
	Male		270	270
4	Female		200	200
	Total		470	470
	Male		210	210
5	Female		170	170
	Total		380	380

Note. N=2,820

Dependent Variable Frequencies

Job autonomy. The frequency distributions of the sample frame for the dependent variable indicators for job autonomy are presented in Tables 15-20. Respondents indicated the level of influence over an indicator using a Likert scale of 1-5, with 1 representing no influence in the area and 5 representing significant influence in the area. Table 4.6 displays the Likert scoring for principal autonomy in setting performance standards.

Table 4.6

Principal Autonomy in Setting Performance Standards

Rating	Number	Percent
Not Applicable	10	.4%
No Influence	60	2.2%
Minor Influence	140	4.9%
Moderate Influence	610	21.6%
Major Influence	2000	70.9%

Note. N=2,820

Table 4.7 displays the Likert scoring for principal autonomy in establishing curriculum in the school.

Table 4.7

Principal Autonomy in Establishing Curriculum

Rating	Number	Percent
Not Applicable	30	1.0%
No Influence	100	3.6%
Minor Influence	440	15.5%
Moderate Influence	1120	39.5%
Major Influence	1140	40.4%

Note. N=2,820

Table 4.8 displays the Likert scoring for principal autonomy in evaluating teachers in the school.

Table 4.8

Principal Autonomy in Evaluating Teachers

Rating	Number	Percent
Not Applicable	30	0.9%
No Influence	<10	0.2%
Minor Influence	<10	0.3%
Moderate Influence	90	3.2%
Major Influence	270	95.4%

Note. N=2,820

Table 4.9 displays the Likert scoring for principal autonomy in hiring teachers for the school.

Table 4.9

Principal Autonomy in Hiring Teachers

Rating	Number	Percent
Not Applicable	20	0.6%
No Influence	20	0.8%
Minor Influence	60	2.3%
Moderate Influence	270	9.7%
Major Influence	2440	86.6%

Note. N=2,820

Table 4.10 displays the Likert scoring for principal autonomy in setting the discipline policies at the school.

Table 4.10

Principal Autonomy in Setting Discipline Policies

Rating	Number	Percent
Not Applicable	10	0.4%
No Influence	<10	0.3%
Minor Influence	70	2.4%
Moderate Influence	520	18.4%
Major Influence	2210	78.4%

Note. N=2,820

Table 4.11 displays the Likert scoring for principal autonomy in deciding how the budget will be spent.

Table 4.11

Principal Autonomy in Budget Spending

Rating	Number	Percent
Not Applicable	10	0.4%
No Influence	30	1.0%
Minor Influence	250	9.0%
Moderate Influence	820	28.9%
Major Influence	1710	60.7%

Note. N=2,820

Social support. Sampled principal participation rates in the professional development activities designated as indicators of the dependent variable social support are presented in Tables 4.12-4.17. Participation is inclusive of the last 12 months only. Table 4.12 displays the principal participation in principal related professional development activities.

Table 4.12

Principal Related Professional Development

Response	Number	Percent
Yes	2810	99.5%
No	10	0.5%

Note. N=2,820

Table 4.13 displays the respondent participation in coursework related to professional growth for principals.

Table 4.13

Participation in Coursework

Response	Number	Percent
Yes	820	29.2%
No	2000	70.8%

Note. N=2,820

Table 4.14 displays respondent participation in school visits.

Table 4.14

Participation in School Visits

Response	Number	Percent
Yes	2050	73.0%
No	770	27.0%

Note. N=2,820

Table 4.15 displays respondent participation in principal related research.

Table 4.15

Participation in Research

Response	Number	Percent
Yes	1910	67.8%
No	910	32.2%

Note. N=2,820

Table 4.16 displays respondent participation in principal mentor or coaching program.

Table 4.16

Participation in a Mentor or Coaching Program

Response	Number	Percent
Yes	1420	50.6%
No	1400	49.4%

Note. N=2,820

Table 4.17 displays respondent participation in principal network.

Table 4.17

Participation in Principal Network

Response	Number	Percent
Yes	1960	69.5%
No	860	30.5%

Note. N=2,820

Results

The results for each research question are presented using descriptive and inferential statistics. The sampling frame for each research question included 2,820 respondents. The parameters for each independent samples *t*-test were set with 2,818 degrees of freedom (*df*), a two-tail critical *t*-value of +/- 1.96, a significance greater than .05 ($p<.05$), and a 95% confidence interval (CI). To reject the null hypothesis by finding statistically significant differences in arithmetic means the *t*-value in each test had to be greater than +/- 1.96, the alpha had to be less than .05 ($p<.05$), and the CI could not include 0 (Chambliss & Schutt, 2012; Rea & Parker, 2005). When the confidence interval

for mean differences includes zero, the data are consistent with a population mean difference of zero (Chambliss & Schutt, 2012; Rea & Parker, 2005).

RQ1: Years of Experience and Job Autonomy

Is there a difference between cumulative years of principal experience and the level of job autonomy?

Descriptive statistics. To address this question the researcher first explored the data by examining descriptive statistics. The total sample of principals included in the analysis included 1,290 principals with 1-3 cumulative years of experience and 1,530 principals with 4-9 cumulative years of experience. All respondents had been employed in their current position for between 1 and 5 years. The mean (*M*), confidence interval range, standard deviation (*SD*), skewness for the level of autonomy reported by principals in the categorical groups 1-3 cumulative years of experience and 4-9 cumulative years of experience are reported in Table 4.18. Skewness values between -2.58 and +2.58 are considered acceptable in order to prove normal distribution in samples sizes that are larger than 200 (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996; 2003; Hoyle, 1995; Rea & Parker, 2005).

Table 4.18

Descriptive Statistics for Autonomy by Cumulative Years of Experience

Descriptive Statistics	1-3 Years	4-9 Years
Sample Size	1,290	1,530
Mean	21.6739	21.7361
95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	21.5532	21.6231
95% Confidence Interval for Mean Upper Bound	21.7945	21.8490
Std. Deviation	2.21440	2.25018
Skewness	-1.904	-2.119

Note. N=2,820

Inferential statistics. An independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the mean scores for the job autonomy level experienced by principals with 1-3 cumulative years of experience and principals with 4-9 cumulative years of experience. Principals with 1-3 cumulative years of experience (n = 1,290) were associated with a job autonomy level M = 21.67 (SD = 2.21). By comparison, principals with 4-9 cumulative years of experience (n = 1,530) were associated with a job autonomy level of M = 21.74 (SD = 2.25). To test the hypothesis that principals with 1-3 cumulative years of experience and principals with 4-9 cumulative years of experience were associated with statistically significantly different mean levels of job autonomy, an independent samples t-test was performed. As shown in Table 4.18, the distirubtions were sufficiently normal for the purposes of conducting a *t*-test (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996; George, 2003; Hoyle, 1995; Rea & Parker, 2005). Additionally, the assumption of homogeneity of varience was tested and satisfied using the Levene F test, F (2,818) = .002, p = .966.

The independent samples *t*-test was not associated with a statistically significant difference. The critical t value, t(2,818) = -.74, was not greater than +/- 1.96 thus there was no significant difference between the arithmetic means for job autonomy level in principals with 1-3 cumulative years of experience (M = 21.67, SD = 2.21) and principals with 4-9 cumulative years of experience (M = 21.74, SD = 2.25); t(2,818) = -.74, p = .46 (two-tailed), CI: 95%. The null hypothesis was not rejected. Table 4.19 summarizes the inferential statistics for Question 1.

Table 4.19

Question 1 Summary

F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% CI Lower	Upper
0.002	0.966	-0.738	2818	0.461	-0.06222	0.08435	-0.227626	0.10318

RQ2: Years of Experience and Social Support

Is there a difference between cumulative years of principal experience and social support?

Descriptive statistics. To address this research question the researcher first explored the data by examining the descriptive statistics. The total sample of principals included in the analysis of question two included 1,290 principals with 1-3 cumulative years of experience and 1,530 principals with 4-9 cumulative years of experience. All principals included in the sample had been employed in their current position for between 1 and 5 years. The mean (*M*), confidence interval range, standard deviation (*SD*), skewness for the level of social support reported by principals in the categorical groups 1-3 cumulative years of experience and 4-9 cumulative years of experience are reported in Table 4.20. Skewness values between -2.58 and +2.58 are considered acceptable in order to prove normal distribution in samples sizes that are larger than 200 (Curran, West, & Finch, 199; George D. , 2003; Hoyle, 1995; Rea & Parker, 2005).

Table 4.20

Descriptive Statistics for Social Support by Cumulative Years of Experience

Descriptive Statistics	1-3 Years	4-9 Years
Sample Size	1,290	1,530
Mean	3.8843	3.8978
95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	3.8143	3.8334
95% Confidence Interval for Mean Upper Bound	3.9544	3.9623
Std. Deviation	1.28580	1.28456
Skewness	-0.335	-0.348

Note. N=2,820

Inferential statistics. An independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the mean scores for the social support level experienced by principals with 1-3 cumulative years of experience and principals with 4-9 cumulative years of experience. Principals with 1-3 cumulative years of experience (n = 1,290) were associated with a social support level M = 3.88 (SD = 1.29). By comparison, principals with 4-9 cumulative years of experience (n = 1,530) were associated with a social support level of M = 3.90 (SD = 1.28). To test the hypothesis that principals with 1-3 cumulative years of experience and principals with 4-9 cumulative years of experience were associated with statistically significantly different mean levels of social support, an independent samples *t*-test was performed. As shown in Table 4.20, the distirubtions were sufficiently normal for the purposes of conducting a *t*-test (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996; George, 2003; Hoyle, 1995; Rea & Parker, 2005). Additionally, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and satisfied using the Levene F test, F (2,818) = .079, p = .779.

The independent samples *t*-test was not associated with a statistically significant difference. The critical *t* value, t(2,818) = -.278, was not greater than +/- 1.96 thus there was no significant difference between the arithmetic means for social support level in

principals with 1-3 cumulative years of experience (*M* = 3.88, *SD* = 1.29) and principals with 4-9 cumulative years of experience (*M* = 3.90, *SD* = 1.28); *t*(2,818) = -.278, *p* = .781 (two-tailed), CI: 95%. The null hypothesis was not rejected. Table 4.21 presents a summary of the inferential statistics for Question 2.

Table 4.21

Question 2 summary

F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% CI Lower	Upper
0.079	0.779	-0.278	2818	0.781	-0.01349	0.04853	-0.10864	0.08166

RQ3: Gender and Job Autonomy

Is there a difference between the gender of the principal and job autonomy?

Descriptive statistics. To address this question the researcher first explored the data by examining descriptive statistics. The total sample of principals included in the analysis of question three included 1,590 male principals and 1,230 female principals. All principals included in the sample had been employed in their current position for between 1 and 5 years. The mean (*M*), confidence interval range, standard deviation (*SD*), skewness for the level of autonomy reported by male principals and female principals is displayed in Table 4.22. Skewness values between -2.58 and +2.58 are considered acceptable in order to prove normal distribution in samples sizes that are larger than 200 (Curran, West, & Finch, 199; George, 2003; Hoyle, 1995; Rea & Parker, 2005).

Table 4.22

Descriptive Statistics for Job Autonomy by Gender

Descriptive Statistics	Male	Female
Sample Size	1,590	1,230
Mean	21.6981	21.7197
95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	21.5916	21.5901
95% Confidence Interval for Mean Upper Bound	21.8045	21.8494
Std. Deviation	2.16583	2.31929
Skewness	-1.978	-2.063

Note. N=2,820

Inferential statistics. An independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the mean scores for the level of job autonomy experienced by male principals and female principals. Male principals (n = 1,590) were associated with a job autonomy level of M = 21.70 (SD = 2.16). By comparison, female principals (n = 1,230) were associated with a job autonomy level of M = 21.72 (SD = 2.32). To test the hypothesis that male principals and female principals were associated with statistically significantly different mean levels of job autonomy, an independent samples *t*-test was performed. As shown in Table 4.22, the distributions were sufficiently normal for the purposes of conducting a *t*-test (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996; George D., 2003; Hoyle, 1995; Rea & Parker, 2005). Additionally, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and satisfied using the Levene F test, $F(2,818) = 3.124$, $p = .077$.

The independent samples *t*-test was not associated with a statistically significant difference. The critical t value, $t(2,818) = -.278$, was not greater than +/- 1.96 thus there was no significant difference between the arithmetic means for male principals (M = 21.70, SD = 2.17) and female (M = 21.72, SD = 2.32); $t(2,818) = -.256$, $p = .798$ (two-

tailed), CI: 95%. The null hypothesis was not rejected. Table 4.23 presents a summary of the inferential statistics for Question 3.

Table 4.23

Question 3 Summary

F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% CI Lower	Upper
3.124	0.077	-0.256	2818	0.798	-0.02169	0.084786	-0.18792	0.14455

RQ4: Gender and Social Support

Is there a difference between the gender of the principal and social support?

Descriptive statistics. To address this research question the researcher first explored the data by examining frequency distributions and descriptive statistics. The total sample of principals included in the analysis of question four included 1,590 male principals 1,230 female principals. All principals included in the sample had been employed in their current position for between 1 and 5 years. The mean (*M*), confidence interval range, standard deviation (*SD*), skewness for the levels of social support reported by male principals and female principals are reported in Table 4.24. Skewness values between -2.58 and +2.58 are considered acceptable to prove normal distribution in samples sizes that are larger than 200 (Curran, West, & Finch, 199; George, 2003; Hoyle, 1995; Rea & Parker, 2005).

Table 4.24

Descriptive Statistics for Social Support by Gender

Descriptive Statistics	Male	Female
Sample Size	1,590	1,230
Mean	3.9805	3.7766
95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	3.9197	3.7034
95% Confidence Interval for Mean Upper Bound	4.0424	3.8498
Std. Deviation	1.25924	1.31
Skewness	-0.387	-0.277

Note. N=2,820

Inferential statistics. An independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the mean scores for the social support levels experienced by male principals and female principals. Male principals (n = 1,590) were associated with a social support level M = 3.98 (SD = 1.26). By comparison, female principals (n = 1,230) were associated with a social support level of M = 3.78 (SD = 1.31). To test the hypothesis that male principals and female principals were associated with statistically significantly different mean levels of social support, an independent samples *t*-test was performed. As shown in Table 4.24, the distributions were sufficiently normal for the purposes of conducting a *t*-test (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996; George, 2003; Hoyle, 1995; Rea & Parker, 2005). Additionally, as shown in Table 4.24, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested using the Levene F test, $F(2,818) = 12.163$, $p = .000$. Equal variance could not be assumed, $p<.05$. The degree of freedom was adjusted to correct for unequal variance, df =2,590.

The independent samples *t*-test was associated with a statistically significant difference. The critical t value, $t(2,590) = 4.174$ was greater than +/- 1.96, $p< .05$. The mean difference between the reported level of social support in the sampled male principals (M = 3.98, SD = 1.26) and female principals (M = 3.78, SD = 1.31), adjusted to

correct for unequal variance, $t(2,590) = -.06$, $p = .95$ (two-tailed), CI: 95%, is .20394. The null hypothesis is rejected.

While this study found a statistically significant difference in mean level of social support experienced by male principals and female principals, the effect of the difference, |.15|, calculated using Cohen's *d,* is considered *trivial* (Bollen,1989; Chambliss & Schutt, 2012; Kline, 2016; Rea & Parker, 2005). According to Cohen's *d*, a small effect size is |.2|, a medium effect size is |.5|, and a large effect size is |.8| (Bollen,1989; Chambliss & Schutt, 2012; Kline, 2016; Rea & Parker, 2005). Table 4.25 summarizes the inferential statistics for Question 4.

Table 4.25

Question 4 Summary

F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% CI Lower	95% CI Upper
12.163	0.00	4.195	2,818	0.00	0.20394	0.04862	0.10860	0.29927
Equal Variance Not Assumed		4.174	2590	0.00	0.20394	0.04886	0.10813	0.29974

Categorical Findings

Job Autonomy. The categorical findings of this research align to the theory that satisfied principals have high levels of job autonomy (Adamowski et al., Bobbitt et al., 1998; Evans, 2010; Parker & Wall, 2011; Sai, 2016; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011). Of the 2,820 principals included in the study sample, 92.5% reported moderate to significant influence over setting performance standards, 79.9% reported moderate to significant influence over setting the curriculum, 98.6% reported moderate to significant influence in evaluating teachers, 96.3% reported moderate to significant influence in hiring new faculty, 96.8% reported moderate to significant influence in setting discipline policy, and

89.6% reported moderate to significant influence deciding how the budget would be spent at their school. Table 4.26 shows a summary of the principal respondents reported moderate to major influence on indicators of job autonomy. Prior research determined that these six areas are the most important job autonomy factors to principals (Adamowski et al., 2007; MetLife, 2013).

Table 4.26

Moderate to Major Principal Autonomy

	Setting Standards	Establishing Curriculum	Evaluating Teachers	Hiring Teachers	Setting Discipline	Budget Spending
Moderate Influence	21.6%	39.5%	3.2%	9.7%	18.4%	28.9%
Major Influence	70.9%	40.4%	95.4%	86.6%	78.4%	60.7%
Combined Moderate and Major Influence	92.5%	79.9%	98.6%	96.3%	96.8%	89.6%

Note. N=2,820

Social Support. The descriptive statistics in this study show that 99.5 percent of the principal respondents reported that they had participated in social support activities related to their role as a principal in the twelve months preceding the survey. Of the 2,280 respondents, 96 percent reported participation in at least two types of support activities included on the survey (principal coursework, school visits, principal research, principal mentor program, principal network, and principal related activities); 85 percent reported participation in at least three types of support activities; 64 percent reported participation in at least four types of support activities; and 35 percent reported participation in at least five types of support activities. A summary of this data is shown in Table 4.27. The data

aligns to the theory that satisfied principals experience high levels of social support in their positions (Bizzell, 2011; Chang, Leach, & Anderman, 2015; Daresh, 1982, 2004; McManus & Kauffman, 1991; Metzke, 1998; Nixon, 2013; Rosenholtz, 1989; Sorapuru, 2012; Tekleselassie & Villarreal, 2011; Theobald, 1989).

Table 4.27

Principal Participation in Social Support Activities

	One Activity Type	Two or More Activity Types	Three or More Activity Types	Four or More Activity Types	Five or More Activity Types	Six Activity Types
Participation Rate	99.5%	96%	85%	64%	35%	9.5%

Note. N=2,820

Table 4.28 summarizes the percentage of principal participation in each type of social support activity included in this study.

Table 4.28

Principal Participation in Social Support Activities

	Related Coursework	Mentoring Program	School Visit	Related Research Projects	Principal Network	Related Prof. Dev.
Participation Rate	29%	51%	59%	68%	70%	99.5%

Note. N=2,820

Summary

Using two-tailed independent samples *t*-tests the researcher analyzed participant survey data from the 2011-2012 *School and Staffing Survey for Principals* and the 2013 *Principal Follow-up Survey* from the combined results secondary dataset held by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) to answer the research questions

contained in this study. When testing the null hypothesis, statistical significance with an alpha level of .05 was not found in question 1, question 2, or question 3. Therefore the null hypothesis was not rejected in these questions. Statistical significance was found in question 4 and the null hypothesis was rejected.

1. Is there a difference between cumulative years of principal experience and job autonomy?

   Ho: There is no difference between cumulative years of principal experience and job autonomy.

   The null hypothesis is not rejected.

2. Is there a difference between cumulative years of principal experience and social support?

   Ho: There is no difference between cumulative years of principal experience and social support.

   The null hypothesis is not rejected.

3. Is there a difference between the gender of the principal and job autonomy?

   Ho: There is no difference between gender and job autonomy.

   The null hypothesis is not rejected.

4. Is there a difference between the gender of the principal and social support?

   Ho: There is no difference between gender and job autonomy.

   The null hypothesis is rejected.

Chapter Five includes a discussion of the results, limitations of the study, implications of the findings and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 5 – Findings, Conclusions, and Implications for Further Study

Introduction

Chapter Five presents and discusses the results of this ex post facto comparative, non-experimental study. The chapter begins with a brief overview of the purpose, research questions, and the conceptual framework used to guide the study. Research findings and their connections to prior studies are presented and discussed. Issues of trustworthiness, unanticipated results, limitations and transferability are reviewed. The chapter closes with recommendations for further study.

Summary of Purpose

The purpose of this ex post facto quantitative study was to examine the differences between the independent variable groups, gender and experience, and the dependent variables job autonomy and social support. This research was conducted in an effort to better understand factors associated with job satisfaction that may be used in predicting principal turnover.

Researchers agree that principals must remain in the same position for a minimum of five years before sustainable school change can occur (Beteille et al., 2012; Bottoms & Schmitt-Davis, 2010; Branch et al., 2012; Elmore & Burney, 1997; Fuller & Young, 2009; McAdams, 1997; Seashore-Louis, Wahlstrom, Leithwood, & Anderson, 2010; Weinstein, Jacobowitz, Ely, Landon, & Schwartz, 2009). The average retention period for school principals in the United States is three years (Goldring & Taie, 2014; Fuller & Young, 2009; MetLife, 2013; NCES, 2013). Several studies point to this low rate of retention as a leading factor in the countries delayed educational progress (Beteille et al.,

2012; Bottoms & Schmitt-Davis, 2010; Branch et al., 2012; Elmore & Burney, 1997; Fuller & Young, 2009; McAdams, 1997; Seashore-Louis et al., 2010; Weinstein et al., 2009). A great deal of the professional and research response to low principal retention rates has been to examine indicators of principal dissatisfaction and turnover (Usdan, McCloud, & Podmostko, 2000). Few studies have been conducted to examine the factors attributing to principal satisfaction and retention (Mendels, 2012; Usdan et al., 2000). This study was designed to examine indicators of principal satisfaction in principals who chose to remain in the same position. The study did not seek to establish definitive causation for retention, but to provide relevant information for state and local agencies to use when seeking to identify those principals with the highest risk of leaving the position.

Summary of Procedures

Data used in the study was retrieved from the secondary dataset held by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) containing responses to the 2011-2012 *School and Staffing Survey for Principals* (SASS) and the 2013 *Principal Follow-up Survey* (PFS). The sample frame included 2,820 principals extracted from a stratified sample of traditional public-school principals from 50 states and the District of Columbia contained in the NCES dataset. Respondents included in the sample frame had less than nine years of cumulative experience as a principal, had been employed in the same position for less than six years, and had completed both the 2011-2012 SASS and 2013 PFS for the same school.

The independent samples *t*-test was selected as the statistical method for the study to compute and compare the arithmetic means of the categorical independent variables on

the dependent variables. Job autonomy and social support levels were computed by combining assigned indicator variables. The level of job autonomy was determined by combing the Likert scale sub-score for six indicators variables; 1) influence in setting performance standards, 2) influence in establishing the curriculum, 3) influence over teacher evaluation, 4) influence in hiring teachers, 5) influence in setting discipline policy, and 6) influence in determine and spending the budget. The five point Likert scale for each indicator included, Not Applicable, 0 points; No Influence, 1 point; Minor Influence, 2-points; Moderate Influence, 3-points; Major Influence, 4-points. The maximum autonomy score was 24 points.

The level of social support was determined by combing the sub-score points for six indicator variables, 1) participation in principal mentor program, 2) participation in a principal network, 3) participation in school visits, 4) participation in principal related research, 5) participation in principal related coursework, and 6) participation in principal related professional development. The indicators were scored by assigned 0 points for each no response and 1 point for each yes response. The maximum social support score was 6 points.

The researcher used the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) V25 to calculate the arithmetic mean for each independent and dependent variable group. Two tailed independent samples *t*-tests were used to compare the mean levels of autonomy and social support between male and female principal groups, and between principals with 1-3 cumulative years of experience and principals with 4-9 cumulative years of experience. Statistical significance was set at .05.

The research questions that guided this study were:

1. Is there a difference between cumulative years of principal experience and job autonomy?
2. Is there a difference between cumulative years of principal experience and social support?
3. Is there a difference between the gender of the principal and job autonomy?
4. Is there a difference between the gender of the principal and social support?

Discussion of Findings

RQ1: Years of Experience and Job Autonomy

The first research question asked principals grouped by levels of cumulative years of experience to rate their level of influence over the indicators of job autonomy. Autonomy scores were calculated for principals with 1-3 cumulative years of experience and principals with 4-9 cumulative years of experience. Independent samples *t*-tests were used to calculate and compare the mean scores for each group. This study found no statistically significant difference in the mean level of job autonomy between principals with 1-3 years of experience and principals with 4-9 years of experience.

RQ2: Years of Experience and Social Support

The second research question asked principals grouped by levels of cumulative experience to rate their level of participation in social support activities. For the purpose of this study social support activities included participation in school visits, principal networks, mentoring or induction, principal related research, principal related coursework, or principal related professional development. Survey questions asked

principals if they had participated in these types of activities in the previous twelve months (NCES, 2014). Zero points were assigned to each no response and one point was assigned to each yes response. A maximum of six points were available. Independent samples *t*-tests were used to calculate and compare the mean scores for each group. High levels of participation in social support activities were reported by both principal groups. However, this study found no statistically significant difference in the mean level of social support between principals with 1-3 years of experience and principals with 4-9 years of experience.

RQ3: Gender and Job Autonomy

The third research question asked principals grouped by gender to rate their level of influence in six indicator areas of job autonomy: setting performance standards, establishing curriculum at their school, evaluating teachers, hiring new faculty, setting discipline policy, and budgeting. Autonomy scores were calculated for male and female principal participants. Independent samples *t*-test were used to calculate and compare the mean scores. The results did not find statistically significant differences in the mean levels of job autonomy between male and female principals.

RQ4: Gender and Social Support

The fourth research question asked principals grouped by gender to rate their level of participation in social support activities. In this study social support activities included participation in school visits, principal networks, mentoring or induction, principal related research, principal related coursework, or principal related professional development. Survey questions asked principals if they had participated in these types of

activities in the previous twelve months (NCES, 2014). Zero points were assigned to each no response and one point was assigned to each yes response. A maximum of six points were available. Independent samples *t*-tests were used to calculate and compare the mean scores for each group.

Implications of Findings

This study found that 90 percent of the principals included in the sample frame, regardless of the number of years of cumulative experience, reported moderate to major levels of job autonomy on the 2011-2012 Likert scaled *School and Staffing Survey for Principals* (SASS). Principals with 1-3 years of experience reported virtually the same level of autonomy as those with 4- 9 years of experience; 21.67 and 21.73 respectively. These findings provide important information about principals in their first five years in a school. Prior research studies point to significant discrepancies in the levels of autonomy reported by new and experienced principals as a primary factor for a principals decision to leave a position (Adamowski, Therriault, & Cavanna, 2007; Beteille, Kalogrides, & Loeb, 2012; MetLife, Inc., 2013). Such discrepancies were not found in this study. The results of this study did find support for the assertions made by MetLife (2013) and Adamowski et al. (2007), who claim that satisfied principals who remain in their position are afforded the autonomy necessary to accomplish tasks in the areas of performance standards, curriculum, evaluation, hiring, discipline, and budget. This is an area that should be closely examined by school district officials seeking to predict principal turnover.

More than 99 percent of the principals included in the sample frame of principal stayers report participation in social support activities. The results of this study point to social support as an ongoing and important aspect of principal retention for all principal stayers with less than 10 years of experience. A lack of social support is often cited in principal dissatisfaction and turnover studies, indicating that principals who remain in the position are supported in their role (Adamowski, Therriault, & Cavanna, 2007; Beteille, Kalogrides, & Loeb, 2012; Bottoms & Schmidt-Davis, 2010; Elmore & Burney, 1997). This study supports prior research indicating the importance of principal social support activities. The level of principal engagement in social support activities should be examined when seeking to predict principal turnover.

The results of this study found a statistically significant difference in the mean levels of social support between male and female principal groups. Interestingly, the male principals reported higher levels of social support than the female principals; 3.98 and 3.78 respectively. While statistical significance was found, such significance can be misleading because large sample sizes are often likely to produce statistically significant results. Given this information, the researcher calculated the effect size of the results using Cohen's *d*. Cohen's *d* is an effect size indicator used to determine the standardized difference between means (Bollen, 1989; Chambliss & Schutt, 2012; Kline, 2016; Rea & Parker, 2005). Effect size is used to determine how practically significant the effect is and gives an indication of how big or small the effect is. In this case the effect size was |.15|. According to Cohen's *d*, a small effect size is |.2|, a medium effect size is |.5|, and a large

effect size is |.8| (Bollen, 1989; Chambliss & Schutt, 2012; Kline, 2016; Rea & Parker, 2005). Therefore, while statistical significantly different means between the male and female principal social support groups were found, the results are considered to be of little value or practical importance (Bollen, 1989; Chambliss & Schutt, 2012; Kline, 2016; Rea & Parker, 2005).

Given the important role principals play in shaping the educational environment, it is imperative that retention efforts are improved. The results of this study provide relevant information for the public-school community, district administrators, school and state boards of education, policy makers, and organizations to use when seeking to predict principal turnover and improve principal retention. This study speculates that principal stayers in their first five years in a school experience high levels of job autonomy and social support. The study further speculates that there is no significant difference in the level of job autonomy or social support between male and female principals or principals with 1-3 cumulative years of experience or 4-9 cumulative years of experience. The results of this study indicate that further research in the areas of principal autonomy and social support could lead to significant findings in further understanding principal retention and turnover, however, such research does not necessarily need to be differentiated between genders and experience groups in principal stayers in their first five years in a school.

Unanticipated results. This study found no statistically significant differences between the mean levels of job autonomy in principals with 1-3 cumulative years of experience and principals with 4-9 cumulative years of experience. MetLife (2013) found

that principals with less than five years of experience reported significantly less control over building related decisions than those with six to ten years. The difference in the results between the research findings could be due to the limitations placed on this study. This study was limited to stayers with less than ten years of cumulative experience serving in their first five years in a school. MetLife (2013) included principal movers, leavers, and stayers, in their study and placed no limits on either the number of years a principal had been in the school or the cumulative years of experience of the principal.

The descriptive statistics examined in this study found that 99.5 percent of principals participated in role related social support activities, a percentage vastly different the NAESP (2008) research results. A 2008 National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) longitudinal study found that only two percent of principals prioritized their own professional growth and most felt isolated in their own building (Protheroe, 2008). The differences in these findings may be indicative of the delimitations placed on this studies sample frame to include only principal stayers. Had this study included movers and leavers the results could have been different.

This study did not find any significant differences between the mean levels of male and female principal autonomy. Previous studies have shown the level of job autonomy is different for male and female principals. However, many of these studies have been conducted by surveying and/or interviewing dissatisfied principals after they left a position (Mendels, 2012; Usdan, McCloud, & Podmostko, 2009). The findings in this study are limited to the reported autonomy of principal stayers, who may in general

be more satisfied with their level of autonomy as signified by their decision to remain in the position.

This research study found the mean level of participation in social support activities was statistically significantly higher for male principals than female principals. These results are inconsistent with previous research studies conducted by Folkman (2012), McKinsey and Company (2009), and Moynihan and Pandey (2008) who found that female principals were more apt to prefer an environment with collegial support and that male principals were more likely to prefer an individualistic setting (Folkman, 2012; McKinsey & Company, 2009; Moynihan & Pandey, 2008). The differences in findings between this and previous research may be due to the inclusion of only principal stayers in this study. Several researchers have found that social support is an essential component of principal retention (Beteille, Kalogrides, & Loeb, 2012; Bottoms & Schmidt-Davis, 2010; Elmore & Burney, 1997; Seashore-Louis, Wahlstrom, Leithwood, & Anderson, 2010). Because this study was limited to principal stayers, the results could be attributed to the fact both groups in the sample frame reported high levels (more than 90 percent) of social support engagement.

Trustworthiness

Conducting this ex post facto comparative study allowed the researcher to speculate conclusions about the differences in the means of the independent variables on the dependent variables. The researcher makes no assurances that other unidentified variables were not the true cause of the differences in the means between the independent variable groups (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). Threats to the validity of this study

include external events, cross group contamination of data, and misidentification of causal conclusions, such as interpreting high job autonomy as the cause for principal retention, when in fact another factor not identified in this study is the actual cause (Chambliss & Schutt, 2012; Hanneman & Kposowa, 2013; Martin & Bridgmon, 2012; Rea & Parker, 2005).

External validity. The dataset analyzed in this study was collected using stratified and random sampling (NCES, 2017). Elements of the public-school population were separated into mutually exclusive strata groups and then random samples were taken from each stratum to create the survey sample (NCES, 2017; Rea & Parker, 2005). Multiple levels of stratification including, school size, governance structure, and grade levels were included to ensure each stratum was adequately represented as part of the total population and that each could be analyzed both separately and as part of the total group (NCES, 2017). Despite these efforts, the study could contain non-sampling or coverage area errors because the dataset included only principals who responded to 2011-2012 *School and Staffing Survey for Principa*ls and the 2013 *Principal Follow-up Survey* (NCES, 2017).

Internal validity. The Central Limit Theorem (CLT) states the sampling distribution of mean of any independent random variable will be normal or nearly normal if the sample size is large enough (Feller, 1968; Penn State University, 2018). If the distribution of data is symmetric then a sample size of 5 is considered large enough to invoke the CLT (Feller, 1968; Penn State University, 2018). A skewed distribution would require a sample size of at least 30, and an extremely skewed distribution would require a

sample size more than 30 (Feller, 1968; Penn State University, 2018). Skewness values between -2.58 and +2.58 are considered acceptable in order to prove normal distribution in samples sizes that are larger than 200 (Curran, West, & Finch, 199; George, 2003; Hoyle, 1995; Rea & Parker, 2005). The sample sizes in this study exceeded 200 and fell within the acceptable skew range. Additionally, the CLT was invoked given the large sample size. The Levene *F* test of significance was used to verify homogeneity of the variables and statistical significance for the study was set at $p<.05$ ($\alpha=.05$) (Feller, 1968; Salkind, 2010; Shadish et al., 2002).

Limitations, Delimitations, and Transferability

This study is limited in that it is not longitudinal in nature and represents principal retention over only a one-year period. Additionally, this study is limited by the use of a secondary dataset in that the data were not collected to specifically address the research questions in this study. Furthermore, the findings in this study are speculated to improve generalized understandings and do not prove true causation, as the study was not a true experimental study and random controlled samples were not used to conduct analyses (Preuss, 2003; Orcher, 2005; Patten, 2012).

Delimitations include the researcher's decision to limit the study to traditional public-school principals who were in their first five years of their current position at the time of the survey, and who did not have more than nine cumulative years of experience. The narrow scope of the study did not allow for the results to be generalized to the entire school principal population. Additionally, sample bias, external events, cross group contamination, and misidentification can threaten the validity of conclusions and

generalization to an entire population (Chambliss & Schutt, 2012; Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002).

Despite the limitations and delimitations, the information and data that resulted from this study are valuable for state agencies and local districts in addressing principal retention. Additionally, the advantages afforded in using the combined 2011-2012 *School and Staffing Survey for Principals* and 2013 *Principal Follow-up Survey* dataset include the size of the dataset and the stratified national representation of U.S. elementary and secondary principals. The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) employed a broad to narrow generalization strategy and random sampling within the identified strata thus improving the validity of the study (NCES, 2017; Rea & Parker, 2005; Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). The NCES first identified 95,610 schools or institutions across 50 states and the District of Columbia that provided classroom instruction to students in grades 1-12, and employed one or more teachers and at least one administrator (Goldring & Taie, 2014). This sample size was reduced to 10,250 through the application of sampling frames and stratified probability proportionate to size; broad to narrow generalization (NCES, 2017; Rea & Parker, 2005; Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). Surveys were distributed to the principals in the identified schools (NCES, 2017). With a survey response rate of 90 percent, the final dataset included 9,230 records (NCES, 2017). If this research had been conducted on a smaller state-level scale, it would have been limited by sample size to a discussion of descriptive statistics and would not have yielded nationally generalizable results for the independent variable principal groupings included in this study.

Recommendations

Several recommendations for future research in the areas of principal job autonomy, principal social support, principal job satisfaction, and principal retention can be made based on the findings from this research study. Such studies could provide a deeper understanding of the factors of job satisfaction that lead to principal retention.

1. This study could be extended to include a qualitative component. A qualitative component would allow a researcher to gain a deeper understanding related to the components of job satisfaction discussed in this study. Data from the surveys included in this study could be examined to develop principal and school profiles, which could then be grouped to create focus groups. Focus group interviews could be conducted to gather additional information about the types of social support and the areas and levels of autonomy that were most significant to a principals' decision to remain in their position and school.
2. This study could be replicated using a sample of principal leavers from the same National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) secondary dataset used in this study. The results could then be compared to the findings from this study to measure and examine differences between principal leavers and principal stayers.
3. This study could be replicated using previous and/or future NCES School and Staffing Surveys datasets. Such replication would add a longitudinal component to this research and help to determine trends over time.
4. This study could be extended to use a structural equation model with both factor analyses and correlations designed to examine relationships between components

of principal job satisfaction and retention. A variety of independent variable groups including but not limited to gender, geographic location, school level, urban location, principal preparation, school size, community composition, could be included in the study. Relationships could be examined between independent variable groups and multiple dependent variable groups such as principal movers, principal leavers, principal stayers, and/or the number of years the principal remained in the same position.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A- School and Staffing Survey for Principals

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL CENTER FOR EDUCATION STATISTICS

OMB No. 1850-0598: Approval Expires 07/31/2014

Conducted by:
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
Economics and Statistics Administration
U.S. CENSUS BUREAU

PRINCIPAL QUESTIONNAIRE
SCHOOLS AND STAFFING SURVEY
2011-12 SCHOOL YEAR

(Please correct any errors in school name, address, and ZIP Code.)

THIS SURVEY HAS BEEN ENDORSED BY:

American Association of School Administrators
American Federation of Teachers
National Association of Elementary School Principals
National Association of Secondary School Principals
National Middle School Association

NOTICE:

This survey is authorized by the Education Sciences Reform Act of 2002, 20 U.S. Code §9541(b) and §9543(a). The results will only be produced as statistical summaries.

FORM SASS-2A
(7-13-2011)

14211023

DEAR PRINCIPAL:

The Schools and Staffing Survey is the largest sample survey of America's elementary and secondary schools. Your participation is important. Below are answers to some general questions.

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THIS SURVEY?
The purpose of this survey is to obtain information about principals, such as principals' experience and training, hours worked, and instructional priorities.

WHO IS CONDUCTING THIS SURVEY?
The U.S. Census Bureau is conducting this survey for the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) of the U.S. Department of Education.

WHY SHOULD YOU PARTICIPATE IN THIS SURVEY?
Policymakers and educational leaders rely on data from this survey to inform their decisions concerning K-12 schools. Because it is a sample survey, your responses represent the responses of many. Higher response rates give us confidence that the findings are accurate.

WILL YOUR RESPONSES BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL?
Your responses are protected from disclosure by federal statute (20 U.S.C., §9573). All responses that relate to or describe identifiable characteristics of individuals may be used only for statistical purposes and may not be disclosed, or used, in identifiable form for any other purpose, unless otherwise compelled by law.

HOW WILL YOUR INFORMATION BE REPORTED?
The information you provide will be combined with the information provided by others in statistical reports. No individually-identifiable data will be included in the statistical reports.

WHERE SHOULD YOU MAIL YOUR COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRE?
Please return your completed questionnaire in the enclosed pre-addressed, postage-paid envelope or mail it to:

U.S. CENSUS BUREAU
ATTN: DCB/PCSPU, BUILDING 61G
1201 E. 10TH STREET
JEFFERSONVILLE, IN 47132-0001

WE HOPE YOU WILL PARTICIPATE IN THIS VOLUNTARY SURVEY.

SINCERELY,

JACK BUCKLEY

COMMISSIONER FOR EDUCATION STATISTICS
NATIONAL CENTER FOR EDUCATION STATISTICS

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14211031

INSTRUCTIONS

The data you enter on this form will be captured through the use of imaging technology. Please print all information clearly in ordinary characters, using a **blue or black ballpoint pen**.

CORRECT marking example – *(Use care to keep characters in their designated spaces.)*	INCORRECT marking example –		
35	35	OR	35
1 ☒ Yes	1 ☐ Yes		1 ■ Yes
2 ☐ No	2 ☒ No		2 ☐ No

a. It is important that this questionnaire be completed by the school PRINCIPAL, not by anyone else.

b. Please do not write any comments by the answer boxes.

c. If you are unsure about how to answer a question, please give the best answer you can rather than leaving it blank.

d. If you have any questions, call the U.S. Census Bureau at 1-866-208-7437. Someone will be available to take your call Monday through Friday, between 8:00 a.m. and 8:00 p.m. (Eastern Time). The U.S. Census Bureau is also available to answer your questions via e-mail at: dsd.education.surveys@census.gov.

YOUR COMMENTS

FORM SASS-2A

14211049

I PRINCIPAL EXPERIENCE AND TRAINING

1. **PRIOR to this school year, how many years did you serve as the principal of THIS OR ANY OTHER school?**
   - *Count part of a year as 1 year.*
   - *If none, please mark (X) the box.*

   0 ☐ None or ☐ Year(s) as principal of this or any other school

2. **PRIOR to this school year, how many years did you serve as the principal of THIS school?**
   - *Count part of a year as 1 year.*
   - *If none, please mark (X) the box.*

   0 ☐ None or ☐ Year(s) as principal of this school

3. **Before you became a principal, how many years of elementary or secondary teaching experience did you have?**
   - *Count part of a year as 1 year.*
   - *If none, please mark (X) the box.*

   0 ☐ None or ☐ Year(s) of teaching before becoming a principal

4. **SINCE becoming a principal, how many years of elementary or secondary teaching experience have you had?**
   - *Count part of a year as 1 year.*
   - *If none, please mark (X) the box.*

   0 ☐ None → GO TO Item 6 on page 5

   ☐ Year(s) of teaching since becoming a principal

5. **In addition to serving as principal, are you currently teaching in this school?**

   1 ☐ Yes

   2 ☐ No

YOUR COMMENTS

14211056

6. BEFORE you became a principal, did you hold the following school positions?
Include temporary positions.

a. Department head
0030 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

b. Curriculum specialist or coordinator
0031 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

c. Assistant principal or program director
0032 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

d. Guidance counselor
0033 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

e. Library media specialist/Librarian
0034 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

f. Athletic coach/Athletic director
0035 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

g. Sponsor for student clubs, debate teams
0036 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

7. Before you became a principal, did you participate in any district or school training or development program for ASPIRING school principals?
0037 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

8. Do you currently hold a license/certificate in "school administration"?
0038 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

9. Before you became a principal, did you have any management experience outside of the field of education?
0039 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

14211064

Table 1. Major Fields of Study Codes For Questions 10c, 10e, and 11c

General Education

Elementary Education
101 Early childhood or pre-K, general
102 Elementary grades, general

Secondary Education
103 Middle grades, general
104 Secondary grades, general

Special Education
110 Special education, any

Other Education
131 Administration
132 Counseling and guidance
133 Educational psychology
134 Policy studies
135 School psychology
136 Other non-subject-matter-specific education

Subject-matter Specific

Arts and Music
141 Art or arts and crafts
142 Art history
143 Dance
144 Drama or theater
145 Music

English and Language Arts
151 Communications
152 Composition
153 English
154 Journalism
155 Language arts
156 Linguistics
157 Literature or literary criticism
158 Reading
159 Speech

English as a Second Language (ESL)
160 ESL or bilingual education: General
161 ESL or bilingual education: Spanish
162 ESL or bilingual education: Other languages

Foreign Languages
171 French
172 German
173 Latin
174 Spanish
175 Other foreign language

Health Education
181 Health education
182 Physical education

Mathematics and Computer Science
190 Mathematics
197 Computer science

Natural Sciences
211 Biology or life sciences
212 Chemistry
213 Earth sciences
214 Engineering
217 Physics
218 Other natural sciences

Social Sciences
220 Social studies, general
221 Anthropology
222 Area or ethnic studies (excluding Native American Studies)
223 Criminal justice
224 Cultural studies
225 Economics
226 Geography
227 Government or civics
228 History
229 International studies
230 Law
231 Native American studies
232 Political science
233 Psychology
234 Sociology
235 Other social sciences

Career or Technical Education
241 Agriculture and natural resources
242 Business management
243 Business support
244 Marketing and distribution
245 Healthcare occupations
246 Construction trades, engineering, or science technologies (including CADD and drafting)
247 Mechanics and repair
249 Manufacturing or precision production (electronics, metalwork, textiles, etc.)
250 Communications and related technologies (including design, graphics, or printing; not including computer science)
253 Personal and public services (including culinary arts, cosmetology, child care, social work, protective services, custodial services, and interior design)
254 Family and consumer sciences education
255 Industrial arts or technology education
256 Other career or technical education

Miscellaneous
261 Architecture
263 Humanities or liberal studies
264 Library or information science
265 Military science or ROTC
266 Philosophy
267 Religious studies, theology, or divinity

Other
268 Other

14211072

II PRINCIPAL EDUCATION AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

10a. Do you have a bachelor's degree?

0060
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No → GO TO item 12 on page 8

b. Was this degree awarded by a university's Department or College of Education, or a college's Department or School of Education?

0061
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No

c. What was your major field of study?

Record the field of study code and the field name from Table 1 on page 6.

0062 ☐☐☐ Code 5062 _____ Major

d. Did you have a second major field of study?

Do NOT report academic minors or concentrations.

0063
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No → GO TO item 11a below

e. What was your second major field of study?

Record the field of study code and the field name from Table 1 on page 6.

Do NOT report academic minors or concentrations.

0064 ☐☐☐ Code 5064 _____ Major

11a. Do you have a master's degree?

0065
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No → GO TO item 12 on page 8

b. Was this degree awarded by a university's Department or College of Education, or a college's Department or School of Education?

0066
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No

c. What was your major field of study?

Record the field of study code and the field name from Table 1 on page 6.

0067 ☐☐☐ Code 5067 _____ Major

14211080

12. What is the highest degree you have earned?
Mark (X) only one box.

0058
- 1 ☐ Associate's degree
- 2 ☐ Bachelor's degree (B.A., B.S., etc.)
- 3 ☐ Master's degree (M.A., M.A.T., M.B.A., M.Ed., M.S., etc.)
- 4 ☐ Educational specialist or professional diploma (at least one year beyond master's level)
- 5 ☐ Doctorate or first professional degree (Ph.D., Ed.D., M.D., L.L.B., J.D., D.D.S.)
- 6 ☐ Do not have a degree

13. In the past 12 months, have you participated in any professional development activities related to your role as a principal?

0059
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No

14. In the past 12 months, have YOU participated in the following kinds of professional development?

a. University course(s) related to your role as principal

0060
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No

b. Visits to other schools designed to improve your own work as principal

0061
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No

c. Individual or collaborative research on a topic of interest to you professionally

0062
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No

d. Mentoring and/or peer observation and coaching of principals, as part of a formal arrangement that is recognized or supported by the school or district

0063
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No

e. Participating in a principal network (e.g., a group of principals organized by an outside agency or through the Internet)

0064
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No

f. Workshops, conferences, or training in which you were a presenter

0065
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No

g. Other workshops or conferences in which you were not a presenter

0066
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No

14211098

III GOALS AND DECISION MAKING

15. **We are interested in the importance you place on various educational goals. From the following ten goals, which do you consider the most important, the second most important, and the third most important?**

1 - Building basic literacy skills (reading, math, writing, speaking)
2 - Encouraging academic excellence
3 - Preparing students for postsecondary education
4 - Promoting occupational or vocational skills
5 - Promoting good work habits and self-discipline
6 - Promoting personal growth (self-esteem, self-knowledge, etc.)
7 - Promoting human relations skills
8 - Promoting specific moral values
9 - Promoting multicultural awareness or understanding
10 - Fostering religious or spiritual development

0080 ☐ Most important

0081 ☐ Second most important

0082 ☐ Third most important

16. **How much ACTUAL influence do you think you have as a principal on decisions concerning the following activities?**

		Mark (X) one box on each line.				
		No influence	Minor influence	Moderate influence	Major influence	Not applicable
a. Setting performance standards for students of this school	0083	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
b. Establishing curriculum at this school	0084	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
c. Determining the content of in-service professional development programs for teachers of this school	0085	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
d. Evaluating teachers of this school	0086	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
e. Hiring new full-time teachers of this school	0087	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
f. Setting discipline policy at this school	0088	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
g. Deciding how your school budget will be spent	0089	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐

14211106

IV TEACHER AND AIDE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

17. Does this school provide TEACHERS with time for professional development during regular contract hours?

D100
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No → GO TO item 19 on page 11.

18. Are the following used to provide teachers in this school with time for professional development during regular contract hours?

a. Substitute teachers to cover teachers' classes

D101
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

b. Early dismissal or late start for students

D102
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

c. Professional days built in before the beginning of the students' school year

D103
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

d. Professional days built in during the students' school year

D104
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

e. Professional days built in after the students' school year

D105
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

f. Common planning time for teachers for professional development

D106
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

g. Reduced teacher work loads (less time in the classroom with students or less time on assigned non-instructional duties) for professional development

D107
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

14211114

19. How often is professional development for teachers at this school –

		Mark (X) one box on each line.				
		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
a. Designed or chosen to support the school's improvement goals?	0108	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
b. Designed or chosen to support the district's improvement goals?	0109	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
c. Designed or chosen to support the implementation of state or local standards?	0110	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
d. Evaluated for evidence of improvement in student achievement?	0111	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
e. Considered part of teachers' regular work?	0112	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
f. Planned by teachers in this school or district?	0113	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
g. Presented by teachers in this school or district?	0114	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
h. Accompanied by the resources that teachers need (e.g., time and materials) to make changes in the classroom?	0115	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐

20. Does this school provide INSTRUCTIONAL AIDES with time for professional development during regular contract hours?
(Instructional aides assist teachers in the classroom and are sometimes called paraprofessionals.)

0116
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No
3 ☐ No instructional aides in this school

YOUR COMMENTS

14211122

V SCHOOL CLIMATE AND SAFETY

21. **LAST school year (2010-11), how many students were expelled from this school, that is, removed or transferred for at least the remainder of the school year?**
If none, please mark (X) the box.

0130 0 ☐ None or ☐ Students

22. **What was the total number of suspensions during the LAST school year (2010-11)?**
(Out-of-school suspensions include student removal from the school for disciplinary purposes temporarily, for the remainder of the school year, or longer according to policy.)
Include in-school and out-of-school suspensions.
If none, please mark (X) the box.

0131 0 ☐ None or ☐ Suspensions

23. **THIS school year (2011-12), is it the practice of this school to do the following?**

a. **Control access to school buildings during school hours (e.g., locked or monitored doors)**

0132 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

b. **Control access to school grounds during school hours (e.g., locked or monitored gates)**

0133 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

c. **Require students to pass through metal detectors each day**

0134 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

d. **Perform one or more random metal detector checks on students**

0135 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

e. **Close the campus for most or all students during lunch**

0136 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

f. **Use one or more random dog sniffs to check for drugs**

0137 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

14211130

23. *Continued* – **THIS school year (2011-12), is it the practice of this school to do the following?**

g. Perform one or more random sweeps for contraband (e.g., drugs or weapons), but not including dog sniffs

0138
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

h. Require students to wear uniforms

0139
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

i. Enforce a strict dress code

0140
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

j. Require clear book bags or ban book bags on school grounds

0141
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

k. Require students to wear badges or picture IDs

0142
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

l. Use one or more security cameras to monitor the school

0143
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

m. Maintain a daily presence of police or security personnel

0144
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

YOUR COMMENTS

14211148

24. THIS school year (2011-12), does this school have any of the following?

a. Programs or activities where students participate in the community during or after normal school hours (e.g., service learning and community service projects)

D145
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

b. Programs to acknowledge student achievement (e.g., assemblies, principal list/honor roll, or student of the week/month)

D146
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

c. An incentive/reward program that encourages students' academic success (e.g., pizza parties, cash for grades)

D147
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

d. A program designed to help students prepare for the next grade or college

D148
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

YOUR COMMENTS

14211155

25. To the best of your knowledge, how often do the following types of problems occur at this school?

		Mark (X) one box on each line.				
		Happens daily	Happens at least once a week	Happens at least once a month	Happens on occasion	Never happens
a. Physical conflicts among students	0149	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
b. Robbery or theft	0150	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
c. Vandalism	0151	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
d. Student use of alcohol	0152	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
e. Student use of illegal drugs	0153	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
f. Student possession of weapons	0154	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
g. Physical abuse of teachers	0155	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
h. Student racial tensions	0156	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
i. Student bullying	0157	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
j. Student verbal abuse of teachers	0158	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
k. Widespread disorder in classrooms	0159	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
l. Student acts of disrespect for teachers	0160	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
m. Gang activities	0161	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐

YOUR COMMENTS

14211163

26. LAST SCHOOL YEAR (2010-11), what percentage of students had at least one parent or guardian participating in the following events?

		Mark (X) one box on each line.				
		0-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%	Not applicable
a. Open house or back-to-school night	0180	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
b. All regularly scheduled schoolwide parent-teacher conferences	0181	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
c. Special subject-area events (e.g., science fair, concerts)	0182	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
d. Parent education workshops or courses	0183	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
e. Signing of a school-parent compact (This is an agreement between school community members [e.g., parents, principals, teachers, and students] that acknowledges the shared responsibility for student learning and/or the school's policies)	0184	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
f. Volunteer in the school as needed or on a regular basis	0185	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
g. Involvement in school instructional issues (e.g., planning classroom learning activities, providing feedback on curriculum)	0186	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
h. Involvement in governance (e.g., PTA or PTO meetings, school board, parent booster clubs)	0187	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
i. Involvement in budget decisions	0188	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐

27. THIS school year (2011-12), does this school have the following?

a. A staff member assigned to work on parent involvement — 0189
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No

b. Workshops or courses for parents or guardians — 0190
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No

c. Services to support parent participation, such as providing child care or transportation — 0191
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No

d. A parent drop-in center or lounge — 0192
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No

14211171

VI INSTRUCTIONAL TIME

28. Does this school have students enrolled in the THIRD GRADE?

0210
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No → GO TO Item 31 on page 19

29. How long is the TYPICAL FULL WEEK of school for THIRD GRADE students?
Report BOTH hours and minutes, e.g., 30 hours and 0 minutes, 32 hours and 54 minutes, etc.

0211 ☐ Hours per week AND 0212 ☐ Minutes per week

YOUR COMMENTS

14211189

30. **During a TYPICAL FULL WEEK of school, approximately how many minutes do most THIRD GRADE students spend on the following activities at this school?**

- *Please use your best estimate for the planned time spent for most regular students in the typical third grade classroom.*
- *If most third grade students have courses taught on a rotational schedule, calculate typical course time based on the following example: For a course taught 60 minutes a week for half the year, respond with 30 minutes per week.*
- *Do NOT include time spent on additional tutoring or remedial instruction for students receiving special services.*
- *Total should not exceed the number of minutes calculated from your response to question 29. For example, if the typical school week is 35 hours, the total should not exceed 2100 minutes (35 hours x 60 minutes).*
- *If your school does not offer a particular activity for third grade students during the typical week, mark (X) the "None" box.*

a. Combined TOTAL of English, reading, or language arts

0213 ☐ None or ____ Minutes per week

(1) Of these minutes, how many were designated for reading instruction?
- *Record response, then GO TO item 30b below.*

0214 ☐ None or ____ Minutes per week

b. Arithmetic or mathematics

0215 ☐ None or ____ Minutes per week

c. Social studies or history

0216 ☐ None or ____ Minutes per week

d. Science

0217 ☐ None or ____ Minutes per week

e. Foreign language (Not English as a Second Language [ESL])

0218 ☐ None or ____ Minutes per week

f. Physical education

0219 ☐ None or ____ Minutes per week

g. Music

0220 ☐ None or ____ Minutes per week

h. Art

0221 ☐ None or ____ Minutes per week

i. Recess
- *Do NOT include time allocated for lunch.*

0222 ☐ None or ____ Minutes per week

14211197

31. Does this school have students enrolled in the EIGHTH GRADE?

0223
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No → GO TO Section VII on page 20

32. How long is the TYPICAL FULL WEEK of school for EIGHTH GRADE students?

- *Report BOTH hours and minutes, e.g., 30 hours and 0 minutes, 32 hours and 54 minutes, etc.*

0224 ____ Hours per week AND 0225 ____ Minutes per week

33. During a TYPICAL FULL WEEK of school, approximately how many minutes do most EIGHTH GRADE students spend on the following activities at this school?

- *Please use your best estimate for the planned time spent for most regular students in the typical eighth grade classroom.*
- *If most eighth grade students have courses taught on a rotational schedule, calculate typical course time based on the following example: For a course taught 60 minutes a week for half the year, respond with 30 minutes per week.*
- *Do NOT include time spent on additional tutoring or remedial instruction for students receiving special services.*
- *Total should not exceed the number of minutes calculated from your response to question 32. For example, if the typical school week is 35 hours, the total should not exceed 2100 minutes (35 hours x 60 minutes).*
- *If your school does not offer a particular activity for eighth grade students during the typical week, mark (X) the "None" box.*

a. Combined TOTAL of English, reading, or language arts

0226
0 ☐ None or ____ Minutes per week

1. **Of these minutes, how many were designated for reading instruction only?**
   - *Record response, then GO TO item 33b below.*

   0227 0 ☐ None or ____ Minutes per week

b. Arithmetic or mathematics

0228
0 ☐ None or ____ Minutes per week

c. Social studies or history

0229
0 ☐ None or ____ Minutes per week

d. Science

0230
0 ☐ None or ____ Minutes per week

YOUR COMMENTS

14211205

VII WORKING CONDITIONS AND PRINCIPAL PERCEPTIONS

34. **Including hours spent during the school day, before and after school, and on the weekends, how many hours do you spend on ALL school-related activities during a typical FULL WEEK at THIS school?**

0240 ☐☐☐ Total WEEKLY hours spent on school-related activities

35. **How many total hours do you spend interacting with students during a typical FULL WEEK at this school?**
- *Include both formal and informal interactions.*

0241 ☐☐☐ Total WEEKLY hours

36. **On average throughout the school year, what percentage of time do you estimate that you spend on the following tasks in this school?**
- *Rough estimates are sufficient.*
- *Please write a percentage in each row. Write 0 if none.*
- *Responses should add up to 100%.*

a.	Internal administrative tasks, including human resource/personnel issues, regulations, reports, school budget	0242 ☐☐☐ %
b.	Curriculum and teaching-related tasks, including teaching, lesson preparation, classroom observations, mentoring teachers	0243 ☐☐☐ %
c.	Student interactions, including discipline and academic guidance	0244 ☐☐☐ %
d.	Parent interactions, including formal and informal interactions	0245 ☐☐☐ %
e.	Other – *please specify* 5246 ☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐	0246 ☐☐☐ %
		100% TOTAL

37. **How many days per year are you required to work under your current contract?**
- *Include professional development, student contact days, and any other days covered by your contract.*

0247 ☐☐☐ Days per contract year

38. **Are you represented under a meet-and-confer agreement or a collective bargaining agreement?** ("Meet-and-confer" discussions are for the purpose of reaching non-legally-binding agreements. Collective bargaining agreements are legally-binding agreements.)
- *Mark (X) only one box.*

0248
1 ☐ Yes, meet-and-confer
2 ☐ Yes, collective bargaining
3 ☐ No

14211213

39a. **Were you, or are you going to be, rated in a FORMAL evaluation this school year?**
Consider only formal evaluations in your answer to this question.

0249
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No → *GO TO item 39c below*

b. **Are student test score outcomes or test score growth included as an evaluation criterion in your FORMAL evaluation this school year?**

0250
- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ No

c. **How often are you rated in a FORMAL evaluation?**
Mark (X) only one box.

0251
- 1 ☐ Two or more times per year
- 2 ☐ Once a year
- 3 ☐ Once every 2 years
- 4 ☐ Once every 3 years
- 5 ☐ Once every 4 years
- 6 ☐ Once every 5 or more years
- 7 ☐ No formal evaluations are conducted

40. **How long do you plan to remain a principal?**
Mark (X) only one box.

0252
- 1 ☐ As long as I am able
- 2 ☐ Until I am eligible for retirement benefits from this job
- 3 ☐ Until I am eligible for retirement benefits from a previous job
- 4 ☐ Until I am eligible for Social Security benefits
- 5 ☐ Until a specific life event occurs (e.g., children graduate from college, relocation)
- 6 ☐ Until a more desirable job opportunity comes along
- 7 ☐ Definitely plan to leave as soon as I can
- 8 ☐ Undecided at this time

14211221

VIII TEACHER AND SCHOOL PERFORMANCE

41. In your opinion, are the following considered barriers to the dismissal of poor-performing or incompetent teachers in this school?

a. Personnel policies
0260
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

b. Termination decisions not upheld
0261
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

c. Length of time required for termination process
0262
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

d. Effort required for documentation
0263
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

e. Tight deadlines for completing documentation
0264
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

f. Tenure
0265
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

g. Teacher associations or unions
0266
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

h. Dismissal is too stressful and/or uncomfortable for you
0267
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

i. Difficulty in obtaining suitable replacements
0268
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

j. Resistance from parents
0269
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

14211239

42a. **How often are INFORMAL classroom observations typically conducted on TENURED OR EXPERIENCED TEACHERS of grades K-12 or comparable ungraded levels?**

Mark (X) only one box.

0270
- 1 ☐ At least once a week
- 2 ☐ Once or twice a month
- 3 ☐ A few times a year
- 4 ☐ No informal observations are typically conducted

b. **How often are INFORMAL classroom observations typically conducted on NON-TENURED OR NEW TEACHERS of grades K-12 or comparable ungraded levels?**

Mark (X) only one box.

0271
- 1 ☐ At least once a week
- 2 ☐ Once or twice a month
- 3 ☐ A few times a year
- 4 ☐ No informal observations are typically conducted

43a. **How many FORMAL classroom observations are typically conducted prior to completing an evaluation on a TENURED OR EXPERIENCED TEACHER of grades K-12 or comparable ungraded levels?**

If none, please mark (X) the box.

0272
- 0 ☐ None or ☐☐ Total observations

b. **How many FORMAL classroom observations are typically conducted prior to completing an evaluation on a NON-TENURED OR NEW TEACHER of grades K-12 or comparable ungraded levels?**

If none, please mark (X) the box.

0273
- 0 ☐ None or ☐☐ Total observations

44a. **How long is the typical FORMAL classroom observation that occurs prior to completing an evaluation on a TENURED OR EXPERIENCED TEACHER of grades K-12 or comparable ungraded levels?**

If none, please mark (X) the box.

0274
- 0 ☐ None or ☐☐☐ Minutes per classroom observation

b. **How long is the typical FORMAL classroom observation that occurs prior to completing an evaluation on a NON-TENURED OR NEW TEACHER of grades K-12 or comparable ungraded levels?**

If none, please mark (X) the box.

0275
- 0 ☐ None or ☐☐☐ Minutes per classroom observation

14211247

45a. For TENURED OR EXPERIENCED K-12 TEACHERS, how often are teachers rated in FORMAL evaluations?

- *Consider only formal evaluations in your answer to this question, not informal evaluations or number of times observations are conducted. If tenured or experienced K-12 teachers in your school do not receive formal evaluations, select "No formal evaluations are conducted."*
- *Mark (X) only one box.*

0276

- 1 ☐ Two or more times per year
- 2 ☐ Once a year
- 3 ☐ Once every 2 years
- 4 ☐ Once every 3 years
- 5 ☐ Once every 4 years
- 6 ☐ Once every 5 or more years
- 7 ☐ No formal evaluations are conducted

b. For NON-TENURED OR NEW K-12 TEACHERS, how often are teachers rated in FORMAL evaluations?

- *Consider only formal evaluations in your answer to this question, not informal evaluations or number of times observations are conducted. If non-tenured K-12 teachers in your school do not receive formal evaluations, select "No formal evaluations are conducted."*
- *Mark (X) only one box.*

0277

- 1 ☐ Two or more times per year
- 2 ☐ Once a year
- 3 ☐ Once every 2 years
- 4 ☐ Once every 3 or more years
- 5 ☐ No formal evaluations are conducted

46. Did you answer "No formal evaluations are conducted" to both item 45a AND 45b?

0278

- 1 ☐ Yes → GO TO item 49 on page 26
- 2 ☐ No

47. Are any of the following types of information included in the formal evaluation of any regular classroom teachers of grades K-12 and comparable ungraded levels?

a. Evaluation by the principal

0279

- 1 ☐ Yes → **(1) Which best describes the type of evaluation:**

  0280
  - 1 ☐ Checklist evaluation (Evaluation is based on satisfactory or unsatisfactory ratings of teacher competencies and behaviors.)
  - 2 ☐ Standards-based evaluation (Evaluation is based on a certain standard that is established by district or school policy-makers as being essential to effective teaching.)
  - 3 ☐ Both

- 2 ☐ No → GO TO item 47b on page 25

14211254

47. *Continued* – Are any of the following types of information included in the formal evaluation of any regular classroom teachers of grades K-12 and comparable ungraded levels?

b. Evaluation by peers

0281 1 ☐ Yes → (1) Which best describes the type of evaluation:

0282 1 ☐ Checklist evaluation (Evaluation is based on satisfactory or unsatisfactory ratings of teacher competencies and behaviors.)

2 ☐ Standards-based evaluation (Evaluation is based on a certain standard that is established by district or school policy-makers as being essential to effective teaching.)

3 ☐ Both

2 ☐ No

c. Evaluation by the vice principal or assistant principal

0283 1 ☐ Yes

2 ☐ No

d. Evaluation by an outside group (e.g., consultant)

0284 1 ☐ Yes

2 ☐ No

e. Conference with the principal

0285 1 ☐ Yes

2 ☐ No

f. Teacher self-evaluation

0286 1 ☐ Yes

2 ☐ No

g. Students' test score outcomes or test score growth

0287 1 ☐ Yes

2 ☐ No

h. Student ratings of the teacher

0288 1 ☐ Yes

2 ☐ No

i. Teacher's portfolio of examples of student learning (e.g., student essays, lab reports)

0289 1 ☐ Yes

2 ☐ No

14211262

47. *Continued* – Are any of the following types of information included in the formal evaluation of any regular classroom teachers of grades K-12 and comparable ungraded levels?

j. Completion of professional development activities

0250
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

k. Other

0251
1 ☐ Yes – *please specify* →
5251
2 ☐ No

48. Are teachers' evaluations used, at least in part, to determine a teacher's compensation?

0252
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

49. At the end of the LAST school year (2010-11), did this school make Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP)?
(Adequate Yearly Progress is your state's measure of yearly progress toward achieving state academic standards.)

0253
1 ☐ Yes → GO TO Section IX on page 27.
2 ☐ No

50. At the end of the LAST school year (2010-11), was this school identified for improvement due to Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) requirements?
(A school is identified for improvement if it does not make Adequate Yearly Progress for two consecutive years or more in the same content area.)

0254
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

YOUR COMMENTS

14211270

IX DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

51. Are you male or female?

0320
1 ☐ Male
2 ☐ Female

52. Are you of Hispanic or Latino origin?

0321
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

53a. What is your race?

Mark (X) one or more races to indicate what you consider yourself to be.

0322 1 ☐ White
0323 1 ☐ Black or African-American
0324 1 ☐ Asian
0325 1 ☐ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
0326 1 ☐ American Indian or Alaska Native

GO TO item 54 below

b. Are you enrolled in a state- or federally-recognized tribe?

0327
1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

54. What is your year of birth?

0330 1 9 Year of birth

55. What is your current ANNUAL salary for your position in this school before taxes and deductions?

If your position includes multiple duties (e.g., you teach a class and serve as principal at this school), please include your entire salary before taxes and deductions.
Please report in whole dollars.

0335 $ .00 per year

YOUR COMMENTS

FORM SASS-2A

14211288

X CONTACT INFORMATION

56. The survey you have completed may involve a brief follow-up next school year in order to gain information on principals' movements in the labor force. The following information would assist us in contacting you if you have moved or changed jobs. Please keep in mind that all information provided here is strictly confidential and will only be used in the event that we need to contact you for follow-up. Your responses are protected from disclosure by federal statute (20 U.S.C., §9543). All responses that relate to or describe identifiable characteristics of individuals may be used only for statistical purposes and may not be disclosed, or used, in identifiable form for any other purpose, unless otherwise compelled by law.

Please PRINT your name, home address, your work, cell, and home telephone numbers, and your work and home e-mail addresses.

a. First name

9025

Middle name

9026

Last name

9027

Suffix

9028

b. Street address

9029

c. City

9030

d. State

9031

e. ZIP Code + 4

9032 -

f. Work phone number

AREA CODE TELEPHONE NUMBER

9033 - -

g. Cell phone number

AREA CODE TELEPHONE NUMBER

9034 - -

h. Home phone number

AREA CODE TELEPHONE NUMBER

9035 - -

i. Work e-mail address

9036

j. Home e-mail address

9037

14211296

57. **Please enter the date you completed this questionnaire.**
Report month as a number, that is, 01 for January, 02 for February, etc.

0006 Month | 0007 Day | 0008 Year 2 0 1

58. **Please indicate how much time it took you to complete this form, not counting interruptions.**
Please record the time in minutes, e.g., 50 minutes, 65 minutes, etc.

0009 Minutes

YOUR COMMENTS

FORM SASS-2A

14211304

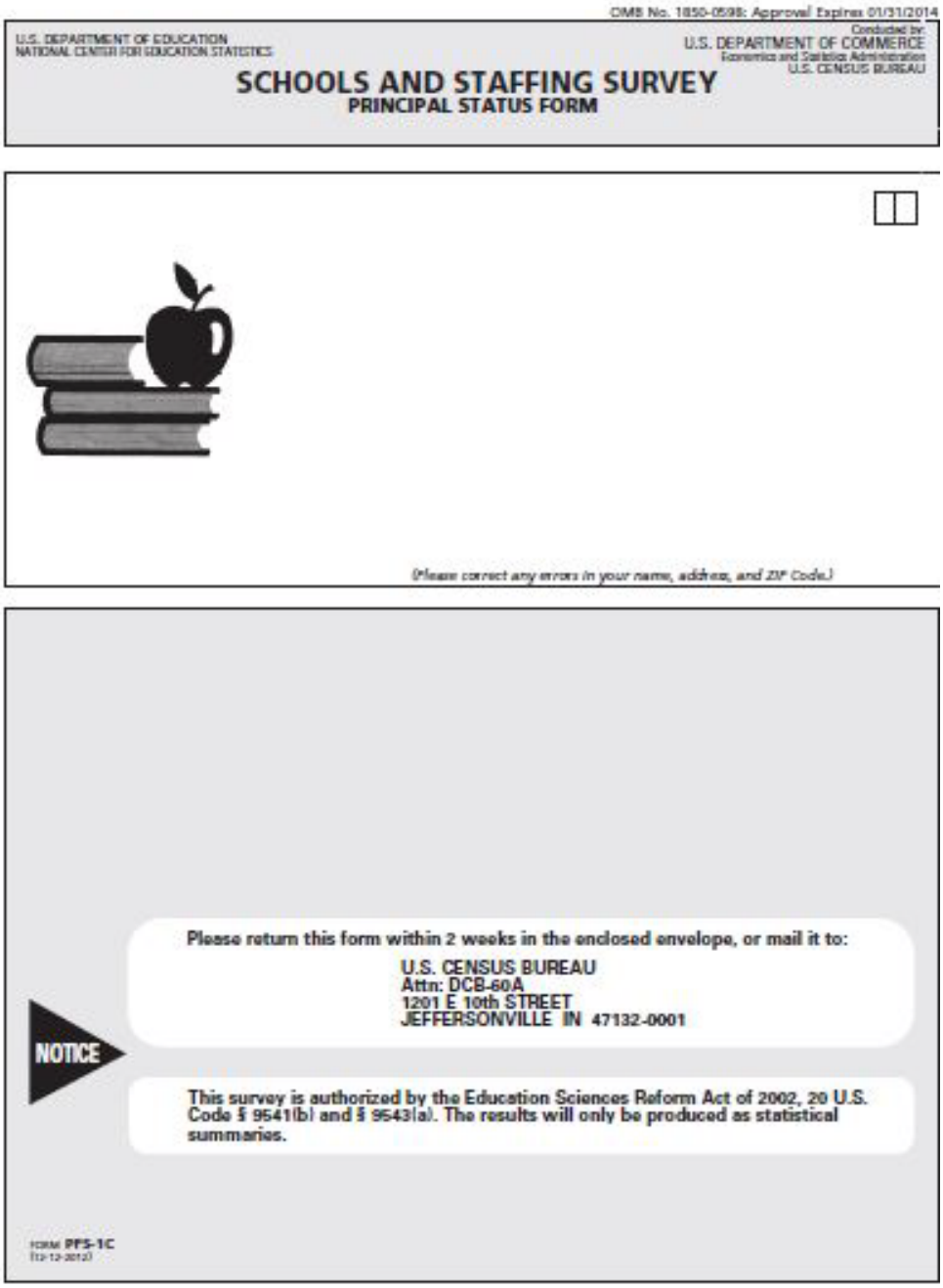
Thank you very much for your participation in this survey. If you have any questions, please contact us, toll-free, at: 1-866-208-7437 or by e-mail at: dsd.education.surveys@census.gov.

To learn more about this survey and to access reports from earlier collections, see the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) website at: http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/sass

Additional data collected by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) on a variety of topics in elementary, secondary, postsecondary, and international education are available from NCES' website at: http://nces.ed.gov

For additional data collected by various Federal agencies, including the Department of Education, visit the Federal Statistics clearinghouse at: http://www.fedstats.gov

Appendix B - Principal Follow-up Survey



OMB No. 1850-0598: Approval Expires 01/31/2014

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL CENTER FOR EDUCATION STATISTICS

Conducted by:
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
Economics and Statistics Administration
U.S. CENSUS BUREAU

SCHOOLS AND STAFFING SURVEY
PRINCIPAL STATUS FORM

(Please correct any errors in your name, address, and ZIP Code.)

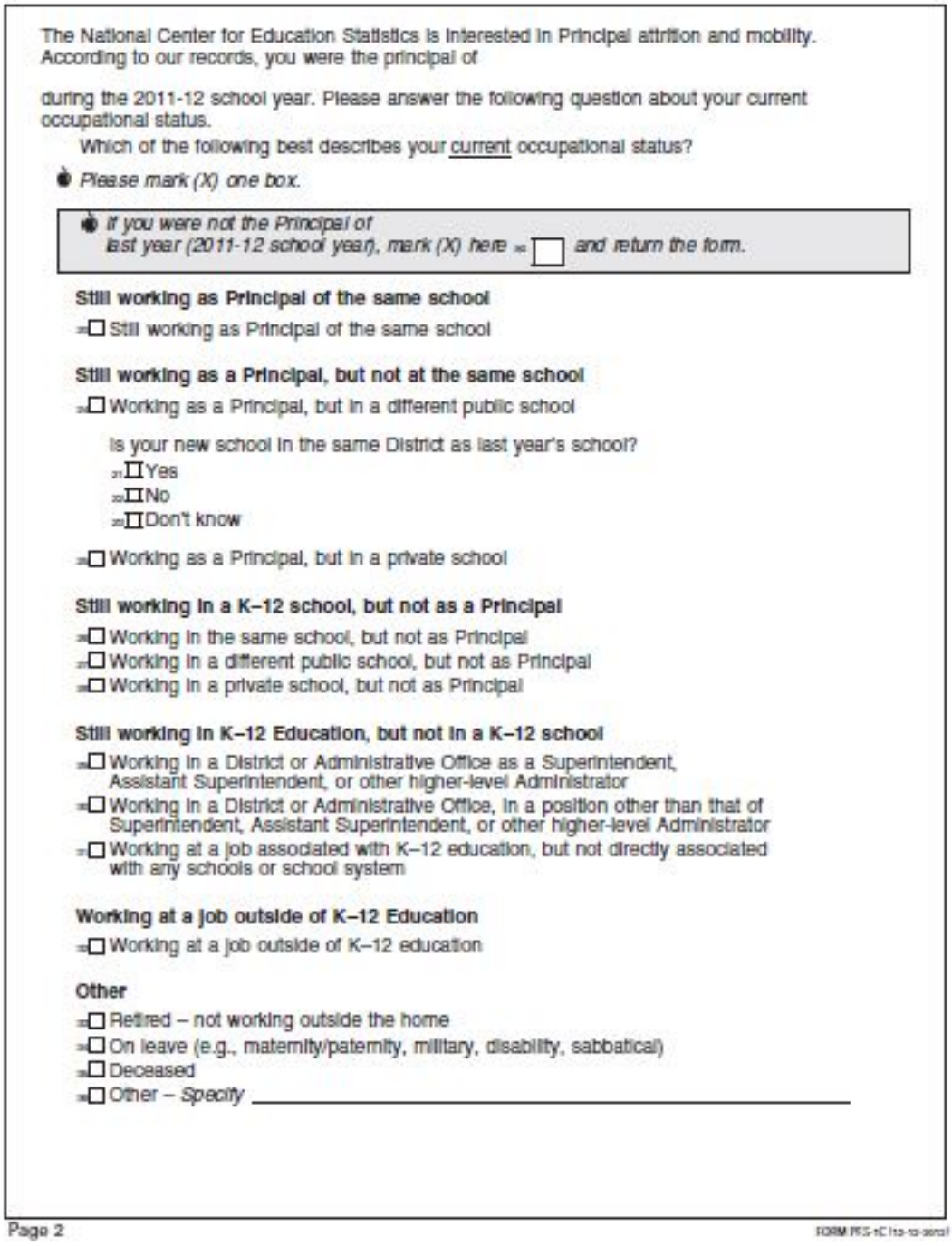
Please return this form within 2 weeks in the enclosed envelope, or mail it to:

U.S. CENSUS BUREAU
Attn: DCB-60A
1201 E 10th STREET
JEFFERSONVILLE IN 47132-0001

NOTICE

This survey is authorized by the Education Sciences Reform Act of 2002, 20 U.S. Code § 9541(b) and § 9543(a). The results will only be produced as statistical summaries.

FORM PFS-1C



The National Center for Education Statistics is interested in Principal attrition and mobility. According to our records, you were the principal of

during the 2011-12 school year. Please answer the following question about your current occupational status.

Which of the following best describes your current occupational status?

Please mark (X) one box.

If you were not the Principal of last year (2011-12 school year), mark (X) here ☐ *and return the form.*

Still working as Principal of the same school

☐ Still working as Principal of the same school

Still working as a Principal, but not at the same school

☐ Working as a Principal, but in a different public school

Is your new school in the same District as last year's school?

☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ Don't know

☐ Working as a Principal, but in a private school

Still working in a K–12 school, but not as a Principal

☐ Working in the same school, but not as Principal
☐ Working in a different public school, but not as Principal
☐ Working in a private school, but not as Principal

Still working in K–12 Education, but not in a K–12 school

☐ Working in a District or Administrative Office as a Superintendent, Assistant Superintendent, or other higher-level Administrator
☐ Working in a District or Administrative Office, in a position other than that of Superintendent, Assistant Superintendent, or other higher-level Administrator
☐ Working at a job associated with K–12 education, but not directly associated with any schools or school system

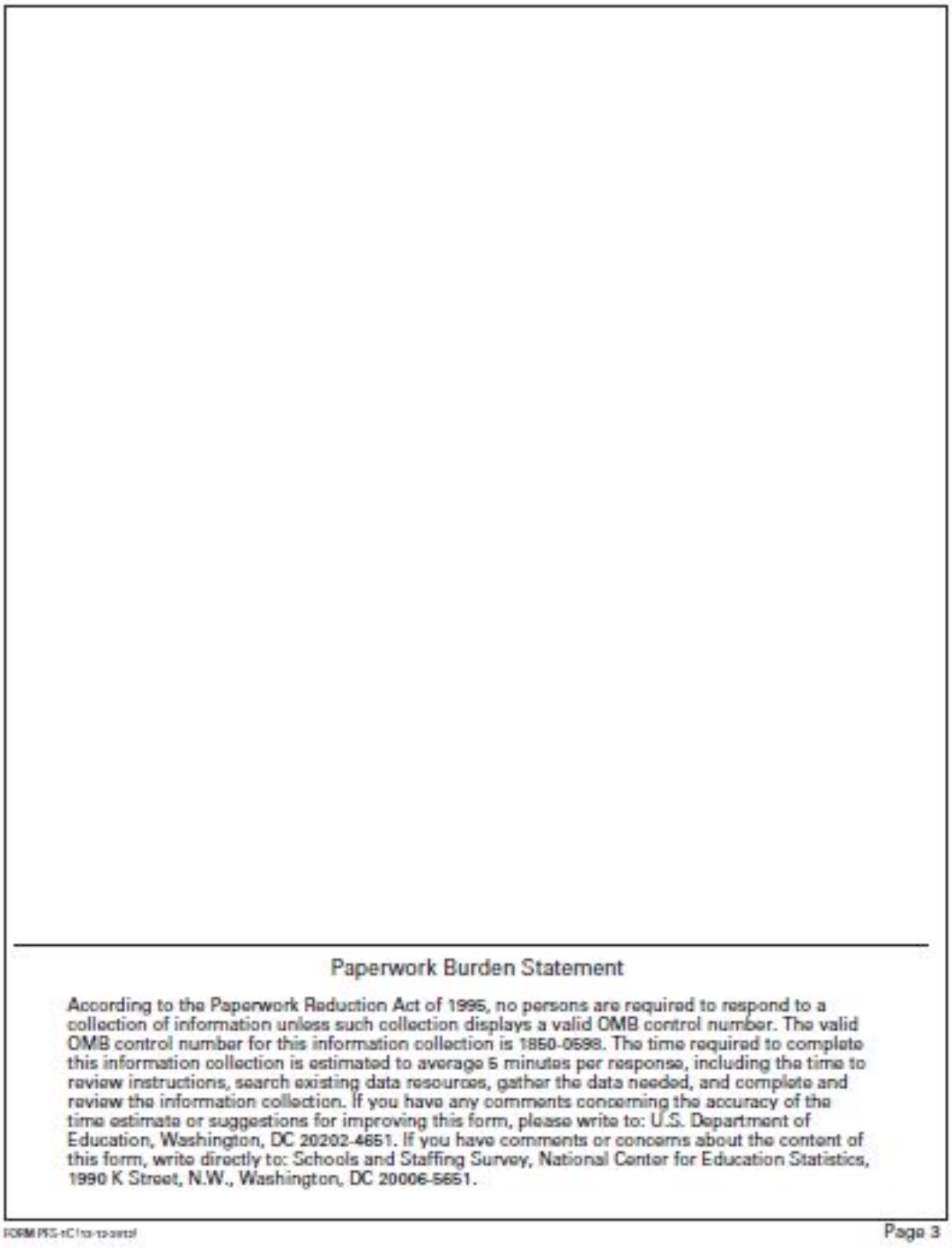
Working at a job outside of K–12 Education

☐ Working at a job outside of K–12 education

Other

☐ Retired – not working outside the home
☐ On leave (e.g., maternity/paternity, military, disability, sabbatical)
☐ Deceased
☐ Other – *Specify* _____

Page 2



Paperwork Burden Statement

According to the Paperwork Reduction Act of 1995, no persons are required to respond to a collection of information unless such collection displays a valid OMB control number. The valid OMB control number for this information collection is 1850-0598. The time required to complete this information collection is estimated to average 5 minutes per response, including the time to review instructions, search existing data resources, gather the data needed, and complete and review the information collection. If you have any comments concerning the accuracy of the time estimate or suggestions for improving this form, please write to: U.S. Department of Education, Washington, DC 20202-4651. If you have comments or concerns about the content of this form, write directly to: Schools and Staffing Survey, National Center for Education Statistics, 1990 K Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20006-5651.

Appendix C - Institutional Review Board Approval

Plymouth State University Institutional Review Board

November 16, 2017

Greetings:

On behalf of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Plymouth State University, your project entitled A Comparison between Gender and Years of Experience on School Principal's Job Autonomy and Social Support has been granted approval for one year effective November 16, 2017.

If, during the course of your project you intend to make changes that may significantly affect the human subjects involved (particularly methodological changes), you must obtain IRB approval prior to implementing these changes. Any unanticipated problems related to your use of human subjects must be promptly reported to the IRB. The IRB may be contacted through Dr. Stephen Flynn, Chair of the IRB. This is required so that the IRB can update or revise protective measures for human subjects as may be necessary.

You are expected to maintain as an essential part of your project records, any records pertaining to the use of humans as subjects in your research. This includes any information or materials conveyed to and received from the subjects as well as any executed forms, data and analysis results. If this is a funded project (federal, state, private, other organization), you should be aware that these records are subject to inspection and review by authorized representatives of the University, State of New Hampshire, and/or the federal government.

Please note that IRB approval cannot exceed one year. If you expect your project to continue beyond this approval period, you must submit a request for continuance to the IRB for renewal of IRB approval. IRB approval must be obtained and maintained for the entire term of your project or award.

Please notify the IRB in writing when the project is completed. We may ask that you provide information regarding your experiences with human subjects and with the IRB review process. Upon notification we will close our files pertaining to your project. Any subsequent reactivation of the project will require a new IRB application. I have attached the Project Completion Form for your convenience.

Please do not hesitate to contact the IRB if you have any questions or require assistance. We will be happy to assist you in any way we can. Thank you for your cooperation and efforts throughout this review process. We wish you success in this endeavor.

Sincerely,

Stephen V. Flynn,
Chair Institutional
Review Board
Plymouth State
University