

PROSPECTIVE PRINCIPALS FOR THE 21st CENTURY: FACTORS THAT MOTIVATE
AND INHIBIT THE PURSUIT OF SCHOOL LEADERSHIP FOR EDUCATIONAL
ADMINISTRATION STUDENTS

A Dissertation

Presented to

The Faculty of the School of Education

The College of William and Mary in Virginia

In Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

by

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November 30, 2010

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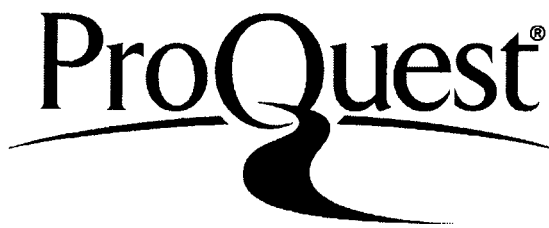
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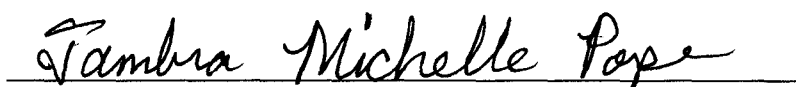


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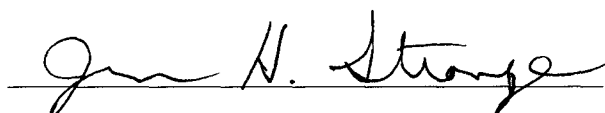
**PROSPECTIVE PRINCIPALS FOR THE 21st CENTURY: FACTORS THAT
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By

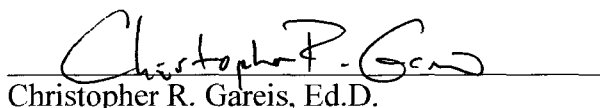
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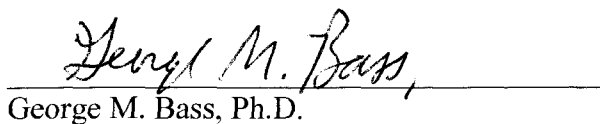
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Dedication

First and foremost, I would like to give thanks to God because without his guidance none of this would have been possible. My dissertation is dedicated to my family and friends, who never doubted that I would finish. My mother, Vivian Pope, who instilled in me at an early age that a good education is priceless, was always asking me, “Are you finished yet?” kept me on track. My aunt, Evonne Matthews, provided me with encouragement throughout my academic journey. My cousin, Bonique’a Matthews, who offered me encouragement that helped me overcome my many bouts of writer’s block. Ms. Denise Clark, a friend, never wavered in her support and belief that I could complete my dissertation.

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Last but not least, I have to thank my dissertation committee. The chair of my dissertation committee, Dr. James Stronge, was extremely helpful throughout my dissertation process. Through numerous meetings and e-mails, his advice helped me to produce a dissertation that adds to the educational research community. I would like to thank Dr. Bass and Dr. Gareis for serving on my dissertation committee. Their expertise helped me to expand my knowledge regarding my topic.

These individuals would never let me give up and knew I could achieve my goal.

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine both the motivators and the inhibitors that influence graduate education students' decisions to either pursue school building-level administration jobs or avoid applying for these positions. Across the country, educational administration programs are producing more than enough graduates to fill every principal or assistant principal position (Levine, 2005). Yet, many of the students completing these programs are not rushing to fill these vacancies. Therefore, this study provides insight on the students in the Educational Leadership Program at The College of William and Mary. The findings of this study may benefit colleges and universities that have similar programs. For this paper, Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's motivation-hygiene theory, Vroom's expectancy theory, and Behling, Labovitz, and Gainer's job choice theory were three job satisfaction theories chosen for an in-depth examination by the researcher. Additionally, the researcher gathered data by using a focus group as well as a survey.

Keywords: educational administration students, job satisfaction, motivators and inhibitors

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CHAPTER 1: THE INTRODUCTION

A principal is on call 24 hours a day, 7 days a week. For 16 years, Mrs. Spells, a retired elementary school principal from Newport News, Virginia, was always one of the first people to arrive at her school and one of the last people to leave. Her typical day was busy. Each school day, she arrived at Horace H. Epes Elementary School between 7:30 a.m. and 8:00 a.m. The first thing she did when she arrived was to inspect the school facilities, such as the grounds around the school, parking lot, bathrooms, atrium, and cafeteria. When the school buses arrived in the morning, Mrs. Spells monitored the arrival of the buses as well as the cafeteria, where many of the students were eating breakfast. As soon as the students had gone to their classes, she would return to her office and complete her numerous duties: make the morning announcements, check her phone calls, plan meetings, deal with discipline problems, attend child student meetings, meet with parents, supervise school finances, schedule students into classrooms, complete reports, and deal with unforeseen situations. In addition, she spent most of her school day in the halls.

Mrs. Spells wanted to be visible, so she could see what was actually going on in the teachers' classrooms. She attempted to do at least one observation per day. Throughout the school day, she interacted with the students regularly. When students approached Mrs. Spells, she insisted that they tell her something good about themselves. "Being able to sit down and eat my lunch was a luxury," said Mrs. Spells. After the students had been dismissed, Mrs. Spells completed her paperwork. She usually left work about 5:45 p.m.

In addition to her daily routine, Mrs. Spells devoted numerous hours working outside of the building. She spent many weekends working on school-related material because she had to complete paperwork and prepare for the upcoming week. Faculty meetings, which were held once each week, had to be planned. In addition, she made home visits if students had not come to school or if the school was unable to contact parents. Mrs. Spells felt there was not enough time for her to complete all of duties and activities. After 27 years of service, Mrs. Spells was eligible to retire, and she did. She said she was ready to leave because she had accomplished what she wanted to do.

The literature reviewed for this study revealed that while the number of school building-level administrators (i.e., principals and assistant principals) nearing retirement is steadily increasing, the number of qualified applicants to replace them has not materialized (Allen, Lutinski, & Schlanger, 2007; Bass, 2004; Conrad & Rosser, 2007; Gray, 2007; Harris, Arnold, Lowery, & Crocker, 2000; Miracle, 2006; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Southern Regional Education Board, 2006; Snyder, Dillow, & Hoffman, 2008, Versland, 2009; Werner, 2007). The U.S. Department of Labor (2004) estimated that as school leader positions will increase about 20%, at the same time roughly 40% of school leaders will prepare to retire. In 2004, 442,000 individuals worked as educational administrators at various levels: preschool, elementary, secondary, and post-secondary (U.S. Department of Labor, 2008).

It must be noted that the literature reviewed for this study was limited to elementary and secondary principals and assistant principals. “Currently, there are about 211,144 elementary and secondary principals in public and private schools in the U.S.” (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2006, p. 17). For “the 2008–2009 school year,

Virginia Public Schools employed 4,254 principals and assistant principals” (Pitts, 2009, slide 5). It is projected that a 10.4 % increase in the number of elementary and secondary principals and assistant principals will occur (U.S. Department of Labor, 2004). By 2016, the employment of school principals and assistant principals will increase to 243,000 (U.S. Department of Labor, 2008). Surprisingly, many students who completed their educational administration programs and obtained their administrative licensure did not apply for school leadership positions (Levine, 2005; Winter, Rinehart, Keedy, & Bjork, 2007). Many of these students are teachers, who have chosen not to move into administrative positions. In Virginia, 2,265 instructional personnel are employed by school divisions and have “administrative” endorsement but do not work in administrative positions (Pitts, 2009).

Between the 2007 and 2009 school years, 414 (or 10%) school building-level administrators left their positions, and only 83 of these administrators transferred to other school systems in Virginia (Pitts, 2009, slide 26). The research reviewed for this study shows that the complexity of school leadership jobs is overwhelming; not only the people currently serving in these positions but also the prospective school leaders are dissuaded by them (Bass, 2004; McNeese, Roberson, & Haines, 2009). The level of dissatisfaction among principals and assistant principals has increased significantly because of the changing nature of the principalship (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, 2003).

Is it a travesty when educational administration students decide not to pursue the principalship or the assistant principalship? Some students in educational administration programs are content with their current positions and do not want to make any career

changes. Allen et al. (2007) found that some educational administration students made conscious decisions not to pursue jobs as school building-level administrators. On the other hand, Bottoms, O'Neill, Fry, and Hill (2003) stated that traditional principal training programs have created "the questionable pool of 'self-selected' people with administrative credentials but little inclination or talent for leadership" (p.4). Thus, these people should not pursue school leadership positions. A growing number of researchers have begun to challenge the notion that everyone who completes a traditional educational program is destined to become an effective leader.

Today, about 450 to 500 educational leadership preparation programs exist in the United States (Orr, 2006). According to Glasman, Cibulka, and Ashby (2002), "those who seek entrance to leadership programs gravitate toward programs based on convenience and ease of completion; quality of program is hardly a leading criterion" (p. 262). Too many of these programs have become "cash cows" for their schools. Frequently, departments of education are encouraged by their deans or colleges' and universities' administrators to keep the money flowing into these programs. This has led to the widely accepted use of self-selection, which allows students to choose which college or university they want to attend, not vice versa. Hale and Moorman (2003) found that "educational administrator programs generally end up serving clusters of individuals operating on their own rather than serving cohorts of individuals who are developed into a learning community" (p. 6). Consequently, self-selection of students limited the number of qualified students in educational administration programs and negatively affected these programs (Phillips, Raham, & Renihan, 2003). These programs face growing competition from university and private fast-track administrative endorsement programs.

The literature also reveals a gap between theory and practice in numerous educational administration programs (Dembowski, 2006; Levine, 2005; Miracle, 2006; Versland, 2009). Several educational researchers (i.e., Bass, 2006; Hess, 2003; Levine, 2005; Versland, 2009) have criticized many colleges' and universities' educational administration programs for failing to adequately prepare their students to become effective school leaders. Too often, aspiring principals are deprived of opportunities to analyze data, increase student achievement, use instructional and assessment practices, and demonstrate their expertise in finance, school law, technology, and public relations. In order to combat these problems, many colleges' and universities' departments of education have adopted the standards established by the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC), which is a coalition of administrator organizations (such as the National Association of Elementary School Principals), education unions, education schools, and other education client groups.

ISLLC "created a set of standards for the core knowledge, dispositions, and performances for successful school leader preparation" (Seybert, 2007, p. 12). In addition, Harris (2006) stated, "universities have responded to this concern by implementing scholar-practitioner programs which ...emphasizing merging theory and practice rather than maintaining them as two separate entities" (p. 5). The decision of some students in traditional educational administration programs, which are offered by colleges and universities, not to pursue positions as principals or assistant principals, means a reduction in the number of qualified applicants for these positions. Winter, Rinehart, Keedy, and Bjork (2004) suggested, "school districts cannot assume that the

existence of even a large number of principal certified personnel assures there will be adequate pools of qualified applicants for principal vacancies” (p. 93).

Statement of the Problem

While substantial research on principal preparation programs exists, research on the students in educational administration programs who have decided not to pursue the principalship or the assistant principalship, is scarce. A need exists to examine the factors that can motivate and impede students’ intentions to pursue school building-level administrative jobs. This study examined the inhibiting and motivating factors influencing educational administration students’ intentions to pursue the principalship or the assistant principalship.

Research Questions

Question 1: *What are the differences between students who plan to pursue the principalship and those who do not?*

Question 2: *What are the differences in perceived motivational factors regarding the principalship for earning educational administration certification between students who plan to pursue the principalship and those who do not?*

Question 3: *To what degree do educational administration students who plan to pursue the principalship and those students who have little or no intentions to seek that position differ in perceived barriers regarding the principalship?*

Question 4: *To what extent does Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory explain the differences in perceived job satisfaction of the principalship between educational administration students who plan to pursue a principalship and those who do not?*

Question 5: *To what extent does Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory explain the differences in perceived barriers of the principalship between educational administration students who plan to pursue a principalship and those who do not?*

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

In the last 100 years, the training received by school principals has changed significantly (Table 1). Prior to the 1900s, no educational administration programs to train principals existed. Yet, there was a growing need for principals. "The American public school system grew from 200,000 high school students attending 2,500 schools in 1890 to 900,000 students attending 10,000 by 1910" (Bass, 2004, p. 17). In the early 1900s, "the earliest formal training in administration included some basic pedagogy and a lifelong search for the 'ideal' education" (Seybert, 2007, p. 20). During the 1920s, when the title of school principal was first used, the principal's primary goal was to connect family and social values. The principal was viewed as "a model citizen" by the community and expected to display family and moral values. "Everything, from the physical appearance and lifestyle of the principal, suffered scrutiny" (Nix, 2001, p. 26). During this time period, "the principal evaluated teachers, provided them with the curriculum, and instructed them on teaching methods and strategies" (Beck & Murphy, 1993, p. 22). By 1946, 125 educational administration training programs were operating in the United States. In the 1950s, math and science were heavily emphasized in schools because the Russians launched Sputnik and the United States wanted to remain competitive with them. In 1956, the University Council for Education Administration (UCEA), which was "a consortium of major research universities with doctoral programs in educational leadership and policy," greatly influenced the teaching in educational

administration by providing professional standards that could be implemented uniformly in departments of education across the country (University Council of Educational Administrators, 1999; Young & Kochan, 2004, p. 115). Most professors in educational administration programs were discipline-focused specialists with little or no experience in the teaching profession (Murphy, 1992). In 1983, *A Nation at Risk* was published, and principals were pressured to reform their schools to ensure their students were academically prepared to compete with students from other countries.

Table 1

History of Educational Administration Training Programs in the U.S.

Time Period	Training
1820-1899 (Ideological Era)	Little or no formal training was required to become a school leader. The responsibility was to provide guidance to teachers, students, and the public.
1900-1946 (Prescriptive Era)	Formal leadership training programs were established. During this time, professors attempted to prepare candidates for the principalship for the present.
1947-1985 (Scientific Era)	Professors focused on mainly on rigorous theory and research.
1986-present (Dialectic Era)	For principals, the federal government calls for more accountability from school systems. Standardized testing is mandatory. For educational administration students, standards have become more rigorous. The student population is more diverse. Educational administration students have more opportunities for field experiences.

Based on Joseph Murphy's *The landscape of leadership preparation: Reframing the education of school administrators*. (1992).

For many years, the traditional approach to the principalship included being a teacher, moving into an assistant principalship, and then becoming a principal. The first step was to teach in a classroom setting for several years. The next step required an

individual to teach for a specified length of time and obtain a master's degree in educational administration from a college or university. By completing this step, one would be eligible for state administrative endorsement. This step certifies the qualifications of an individual to work as an assistant principal, principal, or superintendent. The next step was to apply and be hired for an assistant principalship. After working as an assistant principal for a few years, one would be prepared to apply for principalships. The last step was to become a principal, which allowed the individual to run his or her own school.

Today, a public school principal is expected to be an instructional leader. "Instructional Leadership' is the construct describing school leaders who maintain a relentless focus on teaching and learning, lead complex change and share leadership responsibilities" (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003, p.18). However, no universal construct defines the term, *instructional leader*. For this study, an *instructional leader* will be defined as the principal, who serves as the primary source of expertise in curriculum, instruction, and assessment, and who directly affects student achievement and teacher quality. Principals are facing enormous pressures at various levels (i.e., national, state, and local) not only running the daily operations of their schools (i.e., building culture), but also ensuring that the requirements of the No Child Left Behind Act (i.e., teacher quality and student achievement) are met. Pamela Brown (2006), a principal, stated, "The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act has made a challenging job even more daunting with its requirements to achieve academic gains on a yearly basis and to provide all children with the opportunity to obtain a high-quality education" (p. 525). "One might describe the principalship as being, historically, a job role that is innately incremental; the

duties of the principals...” mandated by state and local legislature, school systems, are continually increasing but they rarely reduce these duties “making the job increasingly undoable” (Winter et al., 2007, p. 29).

As the role of school principals evolved “from being primarily grounded in relationship building to a position racked with pressures of meeting state benchmarks in an era of high-stakes testing and accountability,” colleges and universities had to shift their focus from preparing principals to become managers to training effective instructional leaders (Quenneville, 2007, p. 2). Many colleges’ and universities’ educational administration programs have adopted the new national Standards for School Leaders developed by the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium, which encompass areas necessary for instructional leadership (Gross, 2008). Therefore, these institutions are provided with a framework, the ISLLC Standards, to guide the planning, implementation, and evaluation used in the courses offered by their educational leadership programs. Today, colleges and universities recognize the need to train school administrators to “be a legal expert, health and social services coordinator, fundraiser, public relations consultant, parental involvement expert, and security officer, who is technologically savvy, diplomatic, with top-notch managerial skills, whose most important duty is the implementation of instructional programs, curricula, pedagogical practice, and assessment models” (National Association of Elementary School Principals, 2002, p. 13). The goal is for colleges and universities to prepare their educational administration students to handle these responsibilities without becoming overwhelmed.

In order to increase the number of educational administration students entering the principalship or the assistant principalship, a greater understanding is needed in the

educational field, including professors, school systems' central office staff, and state departments of education) of their students' perceived job satisfaction, and how these factors (positively or negatively) influence their job intentions. Researchers (i.e., Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman; Vroom; Behling, Labovitz, & Gaines) have spent decades studying job satisfaction. Herzberg et al. (1959) believed people work to meet lower-level needs (e.g., physiological needs, social needs) and higher-level needs (e.g., growth needs, achievement needs, recognition needs, advancement needs, etc.). Motivation and hygienes are the two factors identified by Herzberg et al. (1959) that impacted job satisfaction. Their theory became known as the motivational-hygiene theory. They posited that motivators, such as achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth are associated with good long-term performance and satisfaction. Herzberg (1968) found that "the actual accomplishment of desirable performance objectives and work outcomes leads to job satisfaction and positive job attitudes, resulting in increased worker motivation" (p. 55).

"Motivators ...are intrinsic elements of the job, encourage personal growth and development, and contribute very little to job dissatisfaction" (Bassy, 2002, p. 32). According to Herzberg's theory, educational administration students are attracted to the principalship because it provides them opportunities to meet higher-level needs at work, including positively impacting students and teachers' lives, frequently collaborating with their peers, and balancing school budgets. As a result, they will achieve high levels of satisfaction. Malone, Sharpe, and Thompson (2000) purported that the high degree of intrinsic rewards that accompany the role of the principal far outweighs the negative factors associated with the principalship. "Motivation will only be internally-fuelled

when people are allowed to fulfill their higher aspirations in the context of work” (Results Plus, 2006, p. 10). While some research supported their belief, a substantial amount of data shows sizeable numbers of qualified individuals do not seek jobs as school administrators.

Herzberg et al. (1959) also theorized that hygiene factors, such as supervision, work conditions, company policies and procedures, interpersonal relationships with co-workers and supervisors, salary, job security, and personal life, only produced short-term changes in job attitudes, behaviors, and performance. Hygiene factors are related to the job context. Bassy (2002) found that “hygiene factors are extrinsic, aim to prevent job dissatisfaction, and contribute only to a minor extent to positive feelings toward the job” (p. 32). These factors do not motivate employees; however, they may reduce the extent of dissatisfaction experienced by the individuals (Herzberg et al., 1959; Bassy, 2002). For example, when positive hygiene factors are present in the workplace, workers will not experience dissatisfaction. However, these workers will view their work positively (Bassy, 2002).

Vroom’s expectancy theory (1964) is a motivational theory that one’s expectations often influence one’s job and career intentions, behavior, or motivation. This theory explains the process of how people make choices. Vroom theorizes that forces influence an individual’s work at a particular level. These forces are affected by the desirability of the outcomes associated with working at that level and by the degree to which these outcomes are seen as following the work (Behling & Starck, 1973). He found that employees’ performances are based on individual factors such as personality, skills, knowledge, experience, and abilities.

Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) is based on three concepts: valence, instrumentality, and expectancy. Valence is the emotional orientations people hold with respect to outcomes (rewards) (Behling & Starke, 1973). It is associated with job satisfaction. Valence focuses on the individual's perception of the satisfaction or dissatisfaction derived from working at a particular level (Behling & Starke, 1973). Does the individual believe that completing the task will benefit them or cause detriment? Instrumentality refers to the belief that if a worker performs well, he or she will receive a valued outcome. It is the degree to which a first level outcome will lead to the second level outcome. Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) has been updated to distinguish between the first-level and second-level outcomes. "The first-level outcome refers to the level of performance resulting from a given amount of effort, whereas the second-level outcome is defined as the reward or penalty obtained as the result of the level of performance or, as tested in some studies, as the result of the effort expended" (Reinhard & Wahba, 1975, p. 523). Caston and Braitto (1985) concluded the following:

A positive instrumentality or expectancy was defined as the probability of a positive relationship between the act and the outcome or between the first-level and the second-level outcomes. A negative instrumentality was defined as the probability of a negative relationship between the act and the outcome or between the first-level and the second-level outcomes. (p.528).

What is the probability of completing the task leading to an outcome desired by the individual?

Expectancy is the individual's belief about whether they can achieve the task. It is about the mental processes regarding choice. Does the individual believe that they can

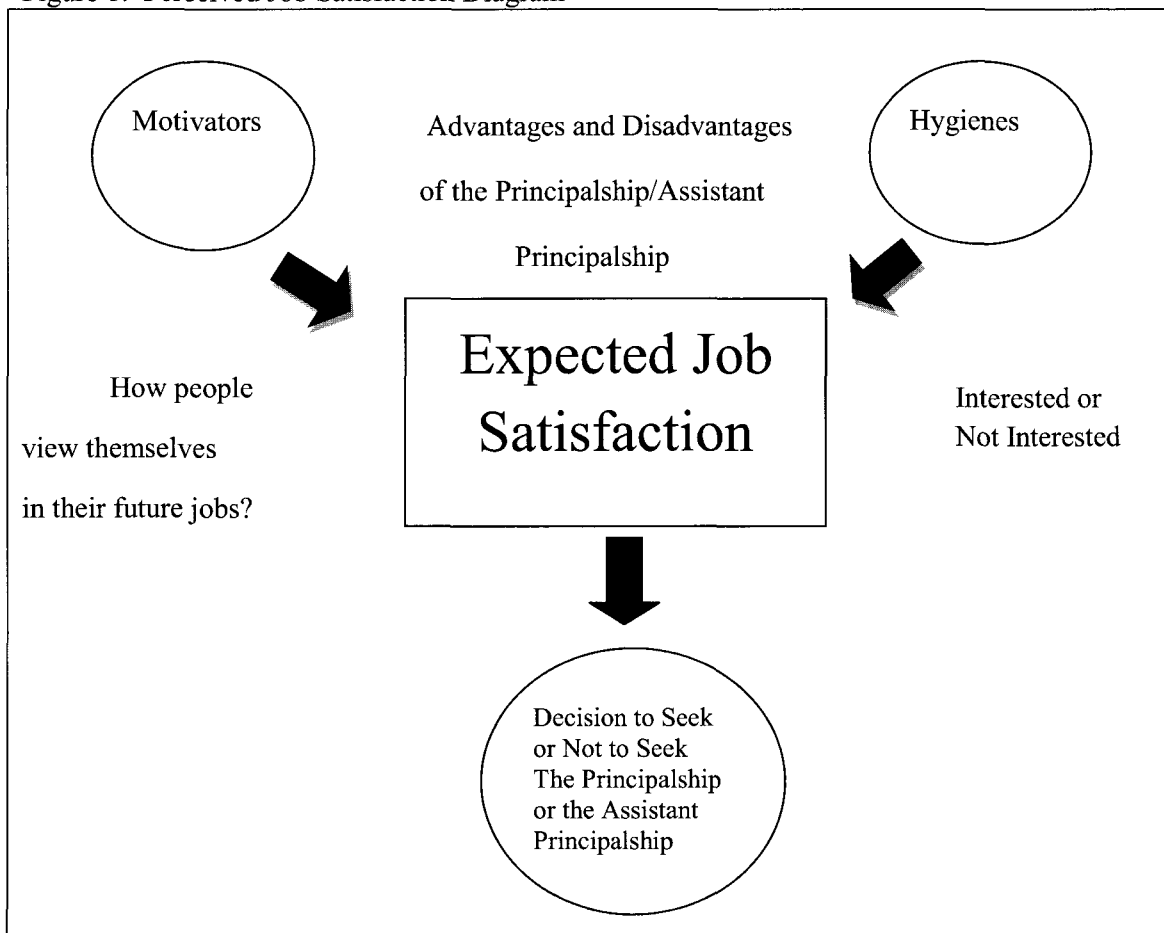
achieve the task? For example, Pounder and Merrill (2001) found that if potential candidates do not believe they can reasonably receive high school principalship job offers, there is much less motivation to seek such a job.

The focal point of Behling, Labovitz, and Gaines' job choice theory (1968) is how job applicants' organizational choices are influenced by both job and organizational attributes. The job choice theory posits three distinct theories for how candidates make decisions about jobs: objective theory, subjective theory, and critical-contact theory (Behling et al., 1968; Liu, 2005; Pounder & Merrill, 2001). Objective theory maintains that job candidates make decisions based on economic factors that are objective and measurable, such as pay, benefits, promotion, and other extrinsic rewards. The subjective theory asserts that job candidates choose the job that is most likely to meet their psychological needs. "In education, this theory suggests that educational administration students' job choices might be explained by the fit between a person's psycho-social needs and the organizational climate of a school or district" (Pounder & Merrill, 2001, p. 289). The focus of the critical contact theory falls into two scale categories: those attributes identifying the influence of others, such as a professional colleague or family member (either formal or informal), on the candidate's decision to seek the position, and those attributes that identify elements of the work itself, that is, descriptors of the work of the principal.

These three theories are intertwined (Figure 1). Herzberg et al.'s motivation-hygiene theory (1959) influenced both Vroom's expectancy theory (1964), and Behling et al.'s job choice theory (1968) because it distinguished between motivating factors and hygiene factors, which directly impacted a worker's job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction.

Vroom's theory examined the worker's behavior, which was dependent on Herzberg's motivating and hygiene factors, to accomplish his or her goal. If the worker determined it (the reward) was worth his or effort, the individual would put forth the effort to achieve the goal. If the worker believed he or she would not benefit from the goal, he or she would not attempt to reach it. Behling et. al.'s (1968) theory, which incorporated Herzberg's et al.'s motivating and hygiene factors and Vroom's valance of outcomes, instrumentality, and expectancy, found that a worker's performance is influenced by the actual physical place where he or she works as well as his or her mental state.

Figure 1: Perceived Job Satisfaction Diagram



The literature suggested that the traditional approaches to school leader preparation have not resulted in a plethora of highly qualified candidates applying for school principal positions. Many educators, even those possessing administrative certificates, are simply choosing not to enter the principalship due to the lack of compensation, stress, and time requirements of the job (Educational Research Service [ERS], 2000). What factors are preventing these graduate students from becoming principals and assistant principals? Why, after matriculating in degree programs, do some educational administration students choose not to apply for school administrator positions? These questions need to be addressed because the research the researcher reviewed for this study showed that principals play a vital role in determining the success or failure in student achievement at their schools. Therefore, it is pertinent that the professors and students in traditional educational administration programs offered by colleges and universities, central office staff in school districts, and employees in state educational licensure departments develop better understandings of the factors that support or impede educational administration students' transition into school leadership positions.

Significance of the Study

Many studies failed to address why many graduates of educational administration programs, who qualify for state endorsement as school leaders, do not apply for school administrator positions. Murphy and Vriesenga (2004) study (as cited in Levine, 2005), found that "more than 2,000 articles on preparation had been published in leading school leadership journals from 1975–2002, but less than three percent were empirical studies" (p. 46). Because of a dearth of quantitative studies on why some students enrolled in

educational administration programs demonstrate little or no attraction to school leadership positions, a need exists for more empirical research concerning this topic. However, because of the limited number of participants in this study, a mixed method research design was used. This study is designed to add to the body of research focused on increasing the applicant pool of effective school administrators. The purpose of this study is to gather both empirical data and qualitative data on the perceptions of current educational administration students about their intention of seeking school administrator positions and their expected job satisfaction.

This study has several goals. It will assist departments of education, professors, policymakers, current and prospective educational administration students, and local school districts by improving colleges' and universities' preparation and encouragement of students, so they will seek school administrator positions. It can identify the differences among the diverse groups of students enrolled in the educational administration program by analyzing the data for these participants, who are matriculating in or recent graduates of The College of William and Mary's Master of Education in Educational Leadership with a concentration in Administration and Supervision PreK–12 Program. For this study, recent graduates included those graduates who have completed the master's program in the last 5 years. Consequently, departments of education and professors that have comparable educational administration programs to The College of William and Mary can use this study to enhance the quality of their Educational Administration Program. For instance, it can influence how instructors in educational administration programs address principal job facets and the impact they have on students' decisions to forgo the principalship and the assistant principalship.

This study can assist policymakers in strengthening policies and laws affecting colleges' and universities' educational administration programs, which can be used to strengthen participants' leadership skills. Current students in educational administrative programs can determine how they feel about their current jobs and their interests in moving into an administration position. Prospective educational administration students can read this study to help them determine if they are interested in attending educational administration programs to become school principals or assistant principals. School districts' human resources offices may prepare their available school building-level administrative job postings and advertisements differently. School districts may use this study to collaborate with their local colleges and universities in training potential principals or assistant principals. "Closer partnerships between local school districts and educational administration programs at the colleges and universities are needed to link hands-on learning in leadership and collaborations with effective principals" (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2000, p. 10). By addressing this topic, this study aids in bolstering the principal and assistant principal pools in Virginia.

While some candidates still apply for the principalship and the assistant principalship, especially in the higher paying suburban school districts, the number of vacancies for qualified school leaders continues to increase steadily (Allen et al., 2007; Bass, 2004; Conrad & Rosser, 2007; Gray, 2007; Harris et al., 2000; Miracle, 2006; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Southern Regional Education Board, 2006; Versland, 2009; Werner, 2007). This study aims to expand on existing research studies by providing the most recent data that will either support or contradict their findings. Because of the diverse backgrounds of educational administration students, professors, school districts,

and policymakers need to ensure that educational administration programs increase their level of encouragement to their students, so they will be likely to pursue positions as principals and assistant principals. Therefore, after reading this study, it is hoped they will develop a “better understanding of why some certified, potential candidates decide to pursue the principalship and others do not” (Allen et al., 2007, p. 2).

Definitions of Terms

Attribute– A trait that makes an individual unique in a particular way (Allen et al., 2007, p. 5).

Educational Administration Students–Students currently in college or university based master’s degree programs that include coursework and experiences to prepare them for the principalship or assistant principalship (Versland, 2009).

Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards–A coalition of administrator organizations (like the National Association of Elementary School Principals), education unions, education schools, and other education client groups, which created a set of standards for the core knowledge, dispositions, and performances for successful school leader preparation.

Leadership– A person’s ability to encourage others to act in a certain way.

Motivational Factors–The variables that positively impact job desirability.

Online Focus Group–A professionally structured group discussion that is performed in a secure, online chat-room environment and provides in-depth insight on motivations and perceptions (Bergells, 2003, slide 2).

Outlier- A response made by one or a few of the respondents in the research study (Sproull, 2004). It is the opposite response to the majority of the responses.

Prepared– To have made oneself ready (Anges, 1999, p. 1135).

Principal– The person in control of the daily operations and supervision of a school.

Principalship– The administrative duties, such as the supervision of teachers and staff, facilities, and operations, performed by the principal.

Qualified School Administrator Applicant– Someone who has teaching experience and is in possession of or is in the process of obtaining state administrative endorsement.

Self-selection– Student chooses which educational administration program he or she is going to attend.

Traditional education administration programs– A collection of courses prepared by institutions of higher education to meet state standards for achieving endorsement in administration and supervision.

Undeclared – The three participants who chose not to identify their statuses, (i.e., current students or graduates), so their classification could not be determined.

Assumptions

Several assumptions have been made about educational administration students and their programs for this study. The data collected and analyzed for this study made accurate generalizations and inferences relative to educational administration programs that are comparable to The College of William and Mary's. From 2005–2006 to 2008–2009, 97 students earned their degrees from The College of William and Mary. This number was comparable to the educational leadership or administration programs at The George Washington University and Virginia Polytechnic Institute for the same time period (102 students for each school) (SCHEV, 2009). However, Old Dominion University, University of Virginia, and Virginia Commonwealth University had

considerably more graduates from their programs (202, 181, and 281, respectively). Thus, the findings for this study were not generalizable to other educational leadership programs, such as Old Dominion University, University of Virginia, and Virginia Commonwealth University. However, it did provide insight about the students who graduated from or were enrolled in the M.Ed. in Educational Leadership at The College of William and Mary.

There were other assumptions for this study. If these students displayed a high interest in pursuing the principalship, they were likely to be more persistent in obtaining positions as principals or assistant principals. But, if they showed little or no interest in pursuing school building-level administrator jobs, they would not seek these types of positions. In addition, the methods used for data collection and analysis produced reliable information, which could be used to further improve the process used to attract and hire potential school leaders. The researcher wanted to maximize the number of participants, so both an online focus group and an online survey were used in this study. Thus, the data collection methods were easily accessible to the participants. By administering the survey (Appendix P) used in this study, educational administration programs can be more selective in admitting students into their programs, and school divisions can choose more qualified candidates to hire as new school building-level administrators.

Limitations

As with all studies, this study had both limitations and delimitations. “Limitations are the restrictions in a study over which (the researchers) have no control” (Rudestam & Newton, 2007, p. 105). Several limitations were present in this study. It was conducted in a limited amount of time. Experimenter’s effect may have occurred in

the online focus group and on the survey because the researcher could not control for respondents' honesty and accuracy with regard to their perceptions. Surveys asking people to rank order money and other motivators do not accurately reflect the important effects that changes in pay levels or the way pay is determined actually have on people's decisions to join and leave organizations (Rynes et al., 2004). "People are likely to understate the importance of their salaries either because they misjudge how they might react to, say, an offer of a higher paying job, or due to social norms that view money as a less noble source of motivation than factors such as challenging work or work that makes a contribution to society" (Rynes et al., 2004, p. 382). Even though some of the participants in this study did not consider it to be a major motivation in their decision to pursue the principalship or not to pursue that job, they believed that by obtaining principalship or assistant principalship, their salaries would be increased.

The language used in the survey may have been confusing for the participants. For example, in Section IV- Perceived Barriers to the Principalship, the participants were asked to reply to the stem- "I would be unlikely to pursue the job of principal because...", but their responses were highly unlikely, unlikely, likely, highly likely. Thus, were the participants who chose likely or highly likely as their responses agreeing with the stem, or did they ignore the stem and just choose from the responses? The wording needed to be clarified.

A target population was used for this study to identify the diversity (i.e., age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, head of household, teaching experience, and current school level) of the participants. The population for this study should have mirrored the university's diversity, which included both male and female students from various ethnic

backgrounds will be included in this study. However, the response rate on the survey was lower than expected. Two groups, males and African Americans, could have had more participants. The generalizability of this study was questionable. Thus, the researcher had to run additional statistical tests, such as a homogeneity of respondents and chi-square tests to determine if the study's participants were representative of the population (i.e., current students and graduates) in The College of William and Mary's Educational Leadership Program.

Delimitations

Delimitations are “the limitations on the research designs that researchers have imposed deliberately in their studies” (Rudestam & Newton, 2007, p. 105). Even though the researcher could have included all of the students (i.e., M. Ed., Ed.S, Ed.D., and Ph.D.) in the Educational Policy, Planning, and Leadership Program, as part of the sample, the researcher purposely chose to use only students in the M. Ed. Program for Educational Leadership because they probably had the least experience and were more likely not to be working as school administrators. The geographical region for this study was restricted to The College of William and Mary in Williamsburg, Virginia. Therefore, only the current students and graduates of its Educational Leadership Program were invited to participate in this study. Since this study covered a limited geographic location, The Principal Certification Survey was selected because it was only administered to educational leadership students to determine their job satisfaction levels at three universities in Kentucky, and its categories addressed the same topics, such as demographics, reasons for earning administrative certification, perceived job motivators

for the principalship, perceived barriers for the principalship, and career aspirations, as this study. It was not administered on a national level.

In addition, an online focus group was conducted to probe deeper into the participants' responses. Each year, typically 15 to 30 active students are enrolled in the M.Ed. Program for Educational Leadership at The College of William and Mary (SCHEV, 2009). The researcher hoped to have about 40 to 60 participants from this program. However, the size of the respondents was small. Therefore, an online focus group interview also was included in this study to provide insight of The College of William and Mary's Educational Leadership students and their opinions about pursuing positions as principals and assistant principals. Each participant in the study had met the set admission standards and had been accepted into the educational administration program.

The timing of the online survey may have negatively impacted the response rate. Since most of the participants would be on summer vacation, the researcher chose to collect the data from the end of June through mid-July, 2010. The rationale was that more participants would participate in the survey because the participants were not as busy as they would have been during the school year. This approach worked for the online focus group, which included 7 participants. However, it did not work for the online survey.

Summary

Over the last few decades, the role of the school principal has changed. In the past, a school principal was widely viewed as a middle manager, who ensured that the building was functional, student discipline was under control, operational and organizational

procedures ran smoothly, and school personnel were compliant. The decreased attractiveness of the principalship was due in part to enormous responsibilities assigned to principals and the increased accountability for students' standardized test scores (Winter et al., 2007). But, educational administration students interested in pursuing the principalship face a job that has reduced autonomy and increased accountability (Tallerico & Blount, 2004). Because of the many challenges facing potential principals and assistant principals, fewer qualified individuals are willing to apply and accept these jobs (Bass, 2006; Conrad & Rosser, 2007; Harris et al., 2000; Winter, et al., 2004). Currently, only a limited number of research studies exist on the impact of the perceived job satisfaction of education administration students on their decisions to seek the principalship or the assistant principalship (Bass, 2004; Harris et al., 2000; McNeese et al., 2009). Therefore, a need to examine educational administration students' interests in becoming principals and assistant principals exists (McNeese et al., 2009; Stemple, 2004; Versland, 2009; Waskiewicz, 1999; Winter et al, 2007).

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This section was divided into three parts: a theoretical look at the history of the school principal, a review of existing research on traditional educational administration programs, and the examination of the theories influencing the perceptions of educational administration students concerning their expected job satisfaction and their aspirations toward the principalship or the assistant principalship. The purpose of this study was to examine the factors that motivate and/or inhibit students in educational leadership programs in their pursuit of school the principalship or the assistant principalship.

The Evolution of the Principalship and Educational Administration Programs

In the United States, both the principalship and the educational administration programs have both evolved over time. In the late 1700s, “town meetings and government of selectmen controlled every aspect of school administration, including collecting taxes, hiring, managing teachers, and managing facilities” (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2000, p. 2). Early American schools had principal teachers, who were elected or appointed by their local community, “to supervise one room schoolhouses” (Belding, 2008, p. 32). This was referred to as the *agent system* (Berry & Beach, 2006; Belding, 2008).

Murphy (1992) identified four eras of the principalship: Ideological, Prescriptive, Scientific, and Dialectic.

Ideological Era

During the Ideological Era (1820-1899), school administration was not seen as an essential part of school operations. Most school leaders received no formal training and worked in a one-room schoolhouse (Mitchell, 2009; Versland, 2009). Colleges and

universities did not offer any specialized coursework or training for principals. As a result, schools had no formal supervision and administration training in the early 1800s (Berry & Beach, 2006). In addition, they instructed teachers on the art of teaching (Werner, 2007). These school leaders were expected to learn on the job by trial and error. They had to use their on-the-job experiences and skills to perform their duties, which included handling attendance, clerical duties, and school maintenance and repairs. But, “in 1879, the University of Michigan offered the first university-based class to train school administrators” (Berry & Beach, 2006, p. 3). In 1886, Professor William H. Payne at the University of Michigan designed a curriculum to train teachers in “The Science and the Art of Teaching” (p. 3).

Prescriptive Era

In the next era, the Prescriptive Era (1900-1946), formal school leadership programs were established using business management theories and strategies. Around 1903, Columbia University established a curriculum for school leadership courses, such as School Administration, Practicum, and Seminar (Allen et al., 2007; Berry & Beach, 2006). During this time period, “the paramount hero in the larger society was corporate enterprise and its apotheosis, the CEO” (Murphy, 2005, p. 156). Consequently, “each new idea from the corporate sector was held up as a tool or framework for school administrators to adopt (e.g., management by objectives, total quality management, benchmarking, 360 degree evaluation, and so forth)” (Murphy, 2005, p. 156). Across the country, in the colleges and universities that were preparing school principals, the professors were practice-oriented generalists, and most of them had served as superintendents.

With the creation of the Department of Secondary School Principals and the Department of Elementary School Principals (in 1916 and 1920, respectively), Pierce (1935), as cited by Stemple (2004), noted that colleges and universities began offering instruction in school leadership. Pedagogical expertise was valued during this era as program instructors mainly came from the practitioner ranks. They taught technical skills to potential principals. Theories of scientific management were used in principal preparation programs. These programs viewed principals as the managerial leaders of their schools. In the 1940s, there were about 125 colleges offering principal training programs in the U.S. (Allen et al., 2007; Werner, 2007).

“In the early 1900s, as enrollment in high schools burgeoned, the need for administrators who could maintain order and manage the financial and business needs of a school” greatly increased (Versland, 2009, p. 27). In the 1920s, the principal’s role was to stress family values and pedagogy (Grogan & Andrews, 2002). Versland (2009) noted that administrators were expected to “maintain order and manage the financial and business needs of a school” (p. 27). As the role of principal evolved, the assistant principalship was created to assist the principal.

Scientific Era

The Scientific Era (1947-1985) focused “on discipline specialists with little practical experience and a strong focus on rigorous theory and research” (Gross, 2008, p. 3). During the Cold War, the federal government made math and science the top priorities for school leaders. Around the same time, in 1954, the Supreme Court’s ruling on *Brown v. The Board of Education* made equity a central focus for school leaders. In the 1960s, both The Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965

mandated that principals were responsible for implementing and evaluating programs for special education students, bilingual students, and other special groups of students (Barber & Meyerson, 2007).

The focal point of educational administration was on the behavioral sciences. In other words, the focus was on applying the knowledge of social science to the applied world of educational administration (Bass, 2004; Harris et al., 2000). Yet, Versland (2009) found that “empirically based strategies for management and instruction became the prevailing theme for principal preparation programs” (p. 28). In 1960, the American Association of School Administrators, which was founded in 1865 to support and develop effective public school leaders, recognized that admission requirements were more damaging than selection procedures to the field of educational leadership (Brown-Ferrigno & Muth, 2004). Due to financial limitations and gender and racial biases, women and minorities were often unable to meet the minimum admission requirements for graduate programs in the U.S. By the early 1980s, the expectations for the principalship increased. In 1983, *A Nation at Risk* called for school reforms by improving academics and technical skills that students needed for the workplace. Principals were trained using a more practitioner-oriented approach that emphasized more rigorous standards. According to the 1980 U.S. Census, the fourth highest rated job was educational administrators (e.g., deans, principals, and superintendents) with 68.4% reporting they were very satisfied.

Dialectic Era

During the current Dialectic Era (1986-present), preparation programs endured intense scrutiny from both inside and outside the education community. In 1987, the

National Commission on Excellence in Education Administration reported several criticisms of educational leadership programs: lack of definition of good education leadership, absence of collaboration between universities and school districts, low number of minorities and women in the field, programs devoid of modern content and clinical experiences, and poor quality of principal candidates (UCEA, 1987). While steps have been taken by colleges and universities to correct these problems, these problems still exist in many of today's principal preparation programs. Educational leadership programs throughout the country embraced the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards.

Principals had to handle standards-based reforms. Murphy (1992) noted this period for making "notable efforts to define rigorous standards for the profession" (p. 367). From the mid 1980s to the present, "heroic leaders who made all decisions and were seen as the sole source of authority and power" were no longer needed (Newman, 2005, p. 26). Twenty years ago, the Doud (1989) report predicted that "pressures for educational reform from the state and national levels will diminish as school administrators struggle to meet the mandates already imposed" (p. 141). Elmore (2003) wrote, "Pressure for increased accountability is a distinctive hallmark for the present period of educational reform" (p. 134). Accountability reform has significantly increased the pressure on both principals and assistant principals to raise student achievement and improve school quality. The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act (2001) requires schools to demonstrate Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) by using state assessments to measure it. These assessments are driven by standards set to improve student achievement. As a result of NCLB, the principalship has been described as "the job, as it has evolved, is

overwhelming for many and not one that candidates are aspiring to” (Allen et al., 2007, p. 34). Ten years ago, principals were asked to become "instructional leaders, exercising firm control by setting goals, maintaining discipline, and evaluating results” (Gross, 2008, p. 22). “The principals of the 21st century labor under enormous strain complicated by the intrusion of governmental mandates, politics, and diverse and powerful interest groups” (Allen et al., 2007, p. 14).

Over the last 100 years, the U.S. economy has evolved from being industrial to global based. Today, principals are no longer exclusively managers of schools, who “implement policy within the bureaucratic hierarchy” (Bowman & Deal, 2003, p. 123). Principals as managers differ from principals as instructional leaders because instructional leadership drives instructional improvement. Newman (2005) stated, “Instructional leadership includes all actions and functions that support the effective and successful improvement of the school which ultimately leads to student improvement” (p. 31). They must understand and lead their staff during this period of accountability. Principals must be instructional leaders, who “facilitate collaboration, build cohesion among all stakeholders, and influence student achievement” (Stevenson et al., 2008, p. 2).

In the Future

Higher education alone cannot increase the number of qualified potential principals and assistant principals. “More collaborative partnerships between colleges’ and universities,’ departments of education, and school districts are being implemented across the country”(Phillips et al., 2003, p. 25). In the future, colleges and universities, school systems, and state departments of education need to intensify their efforts to work together, so they can increase the number of qualified individuals willing to seek the

principalship and the assistant principalship. “Collaboration is essential to the transformation of principal preparation programs and their effectiveness in the 21st century” (Garcia et al., 2003, p. 1). These collaborative programs can address and meet the needs of future school building level administrators. Every time a school district works with colleges and universities, students gain valuable experience to aid them in their further leadership positions. “Aspiring...school leaders need encouragement, coaching and guidance...” (Bruckner, 2001, p. 6). Researchers, such as Levine (2005) and Miracle (2006), found the data on higher education institutions collaborating with school systems consistently to produce reliable school building level administrators, who can increase student achievement, is insufficient. More partnerships between colleges and universities, school systems, and state departments of education are needed to establish the validity and reliability of these programs.

Traditional Principal Preparation Programs

For decades, colleges’ and universities’ educational administration programs have been the primary route used by potential school leaders to enter school administration. “In 2004, the U.S. Department of Education’s Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) listed 496 administrator preparation programs” (Hess & Kelly, 2005, p. 11). Since prospective school administrators are required by most states, including Virginia, to complete traditional educational administration programs offered by colleges and universities, the number of educational administration programs can be directly linked to individuals who are seeking educational administration certification or endorsement. Virginia’s Department of Education requires all principals and assistant principals to have Administrative and Supervision PreK–12 endorsements. All principals

and assistant principals in Virginia must meet the requirements for administrative certification: candidates must hold a master's degree; three years of successful, full-time experience as a classroom teacher in an accredited public or non-public school; and completed an approved administration and supervision program. As a result, many students in traditional educational administration programs complete their programs so they can satisfy the requirements for the endorsement.

While teachers compose the broad pool of individuals recruited into a career as school administrator, educational administration programs still need to attract the most promising candidates into preparation programs (Norton, 2002; Borba, 2009). Harris (2006) believes, "A principal preparation program must attract those educators with the potential and the aspiration to lead" (p. 22). A diverse group of dynamic teachers can be recruited into leadership programs "which address supply needs, increase the diversity of the leadership workforce, and deepen the instructional knowledge of that workforce" (The Wallace Foundation, 2008, p. 21).

Today, the goals of students in educational administration programs vary. Some students are destined to be school leaders, while others will become certified as school leaders without job aspirations to become school leaders (Allen et al., 2007). In addition, a number of these students will dropout of their programs instead of finishing them. Skemp-Arlt and Toupen (2007) reviewed existing research and found that "only 20-30 percent of participants in typical administrator preparation programs become principals a few years after they graduate and fewer than half ever become principals because of time constraints, family life, accountability, and responsibility" (p. 9). If people are not attracted to the principalship and the assistant principalship, it becomes more difficult to

generate sufficient applicants for vacancies and exacerbates the shortage of qualified job applicants for these vacancies (Winter et al., 2003). Recently, scholars have begun to study motivating factors that influence educational administration students' pursuit of the principalship and the assistant principalship (McNeese et al., 2009; Stemple, 2004).

The Effectiveness of Educational Administration Programs

Currently, school administrators are under enormous pressure at various levels (i.e., national, state, and local) to focus on improving school performance and student achievement. Hence, there is much debate over the effectiveness of traditional educational administration programs in preparing students to undertake and accomplish these goals among educational researchers. Some studies (i.e., MacGregor & Watson, 2006; McNeese et al., 2009; Quenneville, 2007) were supportive of the progression of educational administration programs, while others (i.e., Allen et al., 2007; Hess & Kelly, 2005; Levine, 2005; Winter et al., 2004) were highly critical of the quality of them. For instance, the MacGregor and Watson (2006) study found several recent promising trends for better alignment between preparation programs and schools, including the ISLLC's Standards for administrator preparation, partnerships between universities and K–12 schools, and new instructional methods. They proposed improvements in educational administration programs based on Levine's critique, such as curricula cohesion, higher admission and graduation standards, strong faculty, extensive clinical instruction, appropriateness of degree, and excellence in research.

In this study, the participants' responses from the survey and the focus group provide both quantitative and qualitative data to determine if these students perceive their preparation in The College of William and Mary's Educational Administration Program

as effective, and whether or not being in the program or completing it motivated them to pursue school leadership jobs. These data provide evidence that supports the students' perceptions concerning the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the program. Also, it will provide an accurate number for the students who are willing to apply and accept school principal or assistant principal positions. These data could also be used to compare The College of William and Mary's program to other Virginia colleges' and universities' programs.

Yet, not all researchers were so optimistic about the educational administration programs. Levine (2005) was extremely vocal in his criticism of principal preparation programs. He conducted a four-year longitudinal study. His sample included 28 schools and colleges of education. It focused extensively on the problems facing potential school leaders in traditional educational administration programs, such as irrelevant curriculums, low admission and graduation standards, weak faculty, inadequate clinical instruction, inappropriate degrees, and poor research. The Allen et al. (2007) study showed that some participants complained that many educational administration classes used a "one size fits all" approach without considering students' diverse professional backgrounds. The truth may lie in the middle because the traditional principal training programs have both advantages and disadvantages. Even if Levine's belief that many of these programs are driven by money is correct, Levine still agreed with MacGregor and Watson (2006) that changes must be implemented to improve these programs. If these programs are allowed to continue in their current states, then the number of qualified candidates for school principal and assistant principal jobs will continue to dwindle at a rapid pace.

The Role of Gender in Educational Administration

Gender and cultural differences may be compounding the lack of qualified applicants for principal and assistant principal positions (Allen et al., 2007; Sanchez, Thornton, & Usinger, 2009; Stemple, 2004). Historically, administration has been viewed as a masculine job, while instructional roles were held by women because teaching jobs were associated with femininity (Barber & Meyerson, 2007; Mitchell, 2009; Sanchez et al., 2008; Stemple, 2004; Versland, 2009; Winter et al., 2004). In 2008, women made up 81.2 % of all elementary and middle school teachers and 97.5 % of all preschool and Kindergarten teachers (Department of Professional Employee, 2007). In Virginia, during the 2008–2009 school year, there were “80,765 female teachers, which was 80 %” of the state’s teacher workforce (Pitts, 2009, slide 4). “Female teachers outnumber males by four to one” (State Council of Higher Education for Virginia, 2010, p. 4). During the same time, “20,143 teachers were male, which is 20%” of Virginia’s teacher workforce (p. 4).

A sharp decline in the number of K–8 female principals occurred between 1928 to 1988. In 1928, 55% of K–8 principals were female (National Association of Elementary School Principals, 2009). By 1988, female principals represented only 18% of K–8 principals (National Association of Elementary School Principals, 2009). Both the Pounder and Merrill (2001) study and the Sherman (2005) study concluded that women are as qualified as men to be school administrators. However, they are “excluded from administration due to gender bias” (Pounder & Merrill, 2001, p. 49). Of the “226,000 school administrators in the U.S”, the majority of them are white males about 50 years old (Allen et al, 2007; U.S. Department of Labor, 2008). However, this trend has begun

to change. Sixty percent of K–8 principals are female (National Association of Elementary School Principals, 2009). In Virginia, for the 2008–2009 school year, 2,526 (59.4%) of the principals and assistant principals were females (Pitts, 2009, slide 21).

Tallerico and Blount (2004) noted that “...increased accountability, more lucrative job opportunities outside of the educational field, and deteriorating working conditions or rewards” have made careers in school leadership less attractive to a growing number of males (p. 636). From 1968 to 1988, 78% of K–8 principals were male, but by 2008 only 38% of K–8 principals were male (National Association of Elementary School Principals, 2009). In Virginia, there were “1,728, or 40.6%,” male principals and assistant principals for the 2008–2009 school year (Pitts, 2009, slide 21).

“Most ...preparation programs have...as many or more female graduates as male graduates” (Pounder & Merrill, 2001, p. 49). “Females composed about 49.8% of the participants in educational administration programs at colleges and universities” (Winter et al., 2004, p. 89). The Barksdale (2003) study had 91 or 78.4% female participants and 25 or 21.6% of the participants were male. In the Bass (2004) study, the student sample was comprised of 524 females and 336 males. In McNeese et al.’s (2009) study, “32% (n = 51)” reported they were male, while “67% (n = 108) female” (p. 8). The data from 2005–2009 for several Virginia colleges and universities support these findings (Table 5). Yet, none of these studies differentiated between the participants’ interest in pursuing positions as school building-level administrators at the elementary and secondary levels. Therefore, it is possible that most of the females in these studies were likely to pursue principal and assistant principal positions at the elementary level.

Even though education is a field dominated by women, lingering stereotypes concerning women as school administrators continue to suppress their numbers in our society. The literature reviewed for this study showed a disproportionate percentage of men to women in secondary school administrative roles nationally. “Women are more likely to be systemically ignored in the administrator hiring process by search committees and district personnel departments traditionally controlled by men” (Winter et al., 2003, p. 4). Researchers, such as Newton & Zeitoun, suggest that the perpetuation of male stereotypical behaviors has negatively impacted many female educational administration students’ decisions to pursue the principalship. Female principals comprised less than half of the percentage of male principals at the secondary level (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2006). Gross (2008) noted that 59.9% male and 40.1% female administrators took part in the study, which was consistent with state and national statistics for gender in school administration. “The typical secondary school assistant principal in this study is male, 48 years old, and has been in education 25 years” (Waskiewicz, 1999, p. 74). Thus, these males have gained experience and are well-positioned to move into the principalship.

Women are more likely to put their families before their careers because our society views women as the primary caregivers in their homes, which demands enormous amounts of their time. They feel they have to “...put their families first” (Allen et al., 2007, p. 213). Several studies (i.e., Allen et al., 2007; Bass, 2004; Harris et al., 2000; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Stemple, 2004; Versland, 2009) have suggested that women may struggle emotionally with taking care of their families and wanting to pursue school

building-level administration positions as a major deterrent for potential female principals and assistant principals.

In addition, male principals and assistant principals are more likely to benefit from the salary discrepancies of school building level administrators (e.g., high school principals and assistant principals are paid the most; elementary principals and assistant principals make the least) (National Association of Elementary School Principals, 2009). For the 2008–2009 school year, while the national average for elementary school principals' and assistant principals' salaries was \$88,062 and \$71,893 respectively; secondary principals and assistant principals earned average salaries of \$99,365 and \$81,083 respectively (Cooke & Licciardi, 2009). However, the weekly median earnings for women were \$706, while men made \$870 (U.S. Department of Labor, 2008).

A gender gap exists for school building-level administrators at the secondary level. Even though the number of female school principals and assistant principals has increased significantly over the last decades, the continual perpetuation of stereotypes and societal pressures will prevent them from greatly increasing their numbers as secondary principals and assistant principals.

The Role of Minorities in Educational Administration

Historical bias may be causing minorities not to seek school administration positions because they feel their ethnicity places them at a disadvantage (Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Sanchez et al., 2009; Stemple, 2004; Torres et al., 2004; Winter et al., 2004). In the past, white candidates were more likely to be encouraged to pursue the principalship and the assistant principalship than racial minority candidates (McNeese et al., 2009). The appointment of African Americans to leadership positions reached a

plateau in the 1980s but has regressed sharply in recent years (Bass, 2004; Brown, 2005; Valverde, 2003). “By 1982, the percentage of African American principals had risen to 7.7 %, or 3,320” (Brown, 2005, p. 2). In 2007, African Americans compose 13.4 % of principals (Department of Professional Employees, 2007). However, Sanchez et al. (2009) found only 10.6 % school building-level administrators were Black or African American. Virginia’s data on African American school building-level administrators contradicted Sanchez et al.’s (2009) data. In Virginia, 24.8% of the principals and assistant principals are African Americans (Pitts, 2009). In the U.S., African Americans remain severely underrepresented in leadership preparation programs and in their appointments to administrative positions.

Other racial minorities, such as Hispanics, Asians, and Native Americans, represent even smaller numbers in school leadership positions. Latinos and Hispanics make up 5.4% of the U.S. principal population (Department of Professional Employees, 2007; Sanchez et al., 2009). In Virginia, Hispanics made up only 1.4% of the principals and assistant principals for the 2007–2009 school terms. In the United States, Asians comprised 2.4% of the principal population (Department of Professional Employees, 2007; Sanchez et al., 2009). However, Asian principals and assistant principals composed 0.4% of Virginia’s school administrators for the 2008–2009 school year (Pitts, 2009, slide 22). Native Americans/Alaskan Natives, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander held less than 1% of the principal positions in the U.S. (Sanchez et al., 2009). In Virginia, other minority groups made up 0.4% of principals and assistant principals for the 2008–2009 school year (Pitts, 2009, slide 22). Racial minority students make up a very low

proportion of educational administration students given the dramatic increase in the proportion of racial minority students on the national level.

Since the percentage of students in public schools who belong to a minority group increased from 22 % in 1972 to 43% in 2006, racial minority principals and assistant principals can be positive role models for students who share the same background (Planty et al., 2008). Research shows that Black and Latino administrators are effective role models for minority students (Sanchez et al., 2008). Mitchell (2009) found that the “lack of diversity in the administrative ranks affects student achievement as well as student behavior” (p. 38). Racial minority principals can relate to racial minority students, parents, and other educational stakeholders because they share similar backgrounds and experiences. “Although principals from any background can empathize or not with students, some minority principals' understandings about students' home environments may help them determine rewards or consequences more appropriately” (Sanchez et al., 2008, p. 2). Several research studies (e.g., Magdaleno, 2006; Mitchell, 2009; Sanchez et al., 2009; Tillman, 2005) show that Black and Latino administrators are effective role models for racial minority students.

Because of their limited numbers, these groups were often overlooked in the literature reviewed for this study and were underrepresented in many school systems (Allen et al., 2007; Bass, 2004; Mitchell, 2009; Quenneville, 2007; Stemple, 2004). For instance, Bass (2004,2006) surveyed 860 educational administration students: 688 Caucasians, 68 African Americans, 62 Hispanics, 13 Asians, and 29 other ethnicities to examine the motivators and inhibitors that impacted educational administration students' decision to pursue the principalship. Because of low numbers, Bass omitted certain ethnic

groups (i.e., Asians, and other ethnicities) from the study's findings. In addition, of the 116 teachers surveyed by Barksdale (2003), 75 or 64.7% of the participants in the study were Caucasian, while African American participants made up 31% of the participants. Two groups, Asians and mixed ethnicity, were made up of two participants each (1.7% for each group). One participant was Native American (.9%). The lack of diversity in the samples of these studies directly impacted the study's result.

Enrollment of racial and ethnic groups, who are historically underrepresented in leadership preparation programs, school leadership positions, and in alternative principal preparation programs, has increased (Brown, 2005; Barber & Meyerson, 2007). "In 1976, 15.4% of college students were minorities; the number of minority students had risen to 31% by 2005" (Snyder et al., 2008, p. 270). Sanchez et al. (2009) noted that the demographics of school principals has not significantly increased over time. In 2003-2004, ethnic minorities of persons of color, both men and women combined, represented only 24% of principals at all levels with 5% being at the secondary level (Strizek, Pittsonberger, Riordan, Lyter, & Orlofsky, 2006). During the 2007-08 school year, only 17.6% of principals of all U.S. schools were from minority backgrounds (Battle & Gruber, 2009). Today, most principals continue to be middle-aged white males.

Standards for Educational Leadership

Since the 10th Amendment of the United States Constitution delegates the responsibility of education to the individual states, the states bear the responsibility of setting qualifications and certifications for school administrators. "When it comes to the design and quality of principal preparation, the state is in the driver's seat because its power to license principals can be an effective tool to ensure schools have leaders who

are focused on improving instruction” (Bottoms et al., 2003, p. 13). States must adopt standards for leadership preparation that emphasize the school’s core functions: curriculum, instruction and student achievement” (Bottoms et al., 2003, p. 7). The Wallace Foundation (2008) study concluded, “A growing number of states, districts, and universities have begun the process of reimagining leader development as a well-connected, standards-based, and career-long process” (p. 6).

Standards play a major role in the success of educational reform. In 1996, the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) created a set of standards for school leaders, which were designed to strengthen educational administration programs by targeting state licensure, recertification, and program approval. The Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) developed a framework to revamp school leadership programs. In 2002, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) aligned its accreditation standards for educational leadership training programs with the ISLLC Standards. In 2008, a revised version of The ISLLC Standards was released (Appendix A). It is widely accepted among researchers that a coherent and rigorous curriculum based on ISLLC Standards is central to strong preparation programs for future school leaders (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2000; MacGregor & Watson, 2006; Southern Regional Education Board, 2006).

The School Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA), which was created by the Educational Testing Service (ETS), assesses educational administration students' knowledge of the ISLLC Standards. The SLLA is a constructed-response test. It is a 6-hour assessment is divided into four sections: Evaluation of Actions, Evaluation of Actions II, Synthesis of Information and Problem Solving, and Analysis of Information

and Decision Making (Table 4). It includes “situational dilemmas, case studies, and document analyses” (Jensen, 2005–2006, p. 4). The student has one hour to complete the first section of the SLLA, Evaluation of Actions, which consists of 10 short vignettes covering situations a principal might encounter. The next section, Evaluation of Actions II, also lasts 1 hour. This section contains six longer vignettes pertaining to typical school issues. The third section, Synthesis of Information and Problem Solving, contains two case studies involving teaching and learning issues. The time limit for this section is 2 hours. The last section, Analysis of Information and Decision Making, also lasts 2 hours and focuses on documents that relate to teaching and learning issues. Table 4 shows an analysis of each section of the test.

The SLLA has been revised to align with the Educational Leadership Policy Standards: ISLLC 2008 (Appendix A) (Educational Testing Service, 2009). The revised SLLA is a 4-hour assessment, which is divided into two parts: Sections I and II. The students have 2 hr 20 min to answer 100 multiple-choice questions that make up Section I. Seven constructed response questions compose Section II. This section lasts 1 hr 50 min. Candidate scores are weighted on the two sections; Section I contributes 70 % of the overall *SLLA* score and Section II contributes 30 %. The total number of raw points that may be earned on the *SLLA* is 114 (80 points from the multiple choice section and approximately 34 points from the constructed-response section) (Educational Testing Service, 2009; Commonwealth of Virginia’s Board Of Education, 2009). It is scored on a scale of 100 to 200. Since the revision of the ISLLC’s Standards, on January 14, 2010, the Board of Education approved a cut score of 163, which was previously 165, for the revised version of the SLLA. California is the only state that allows potential

administrative candidates to substitute the SLLA as a stand-alone replacement for a formal principal preparation. In January 2010, the revised SLLA test was administered for the first time in Virginia, so current data is limited for this test. In addition, ETS does not release data on state-wide SLLA scores to individuals, therefore, information on Virginia's test scores were not available for this study.

The original test was 2 hours longer than the revised test and had to be handwritten. Table 2 displays the 2006–2007 national average for the percentage correct on the older version of the SLLA. But, the revised test has only been administered in Virginia since January 2010. ETS does not release data on state-wide SLLA scores to individuals, therefore, Virginia's SLLA test scores were unavailable for comparison.

Table 2:

Detailed SLLA National Average Scores 2006–2007

Test Category	National Average % correct
I. Evaluation of Actions 1	68%
II. Evaluation of Actions 2	75%
III. Synthesis of Information and Problem Solving	68%
IV. Analysis of Information and Decision Making	60%

Today, at least 40 states, including Virginia, have adopted the “ISLLC Standards (i.e., indicators of knowledge, dispositions and performances, established a new vision for thinking about standards-based policy and practice, and made a new dimension of accountability) and use them to guide policy and practice related to principal preparation”

(Hale & Moorman, 2003, p. 2). By adopting the six standards, the ISLLC, colleges and universities are attempting to revitalize their principal preparation programs (Gross, 2008). The ISLLC's Standards help preparation programs make the necessary revisions to enhance their effectiveness. These standards could be "the driving force behind the necessary changes of preparation programs well into the future" (Gross, 2008, p. 37). "The 'ISLLC's' Standards are exactly what they claim to be—what practitioners and researchers have told us are critical aspects of effective leadership" (Murphy, 2002, p. 41). The standards should be the core of productive leadership (Murphy 2002; Gross, 2008).

Liabilities of Educational Leadership Standards

The ISLLC Standards present states, colleges, and universities with unique challenges. Hess (2003) asserted that the standards "...are rooted in no systematic evidence" (p. 23). Little empirical research has been conducted on these standards. The second criticism of the ISLLC standards is their vagueness. Some analysts (e.g., Murphy, 2005; Hess, 2003) found that the standards are not sufficiently specified. Hess (2003) concluded that the ISLLC standards "represent vague ideas rather than prescriptions for practice" (p. 23). However, other analysts maintained "that the ISLLC framework is so specific that it promotes reductionism and standardization in the profession writ at large and in preparation programs in particular" (Murphy, 2005, p. 173). As a result, the ISLLC standards reinforce the status quo (English, 2000; Hale & Moorman, 2003). Another criticism is that the ISLLC standards do not cover everything. English (2000) found that educational administration programs focused on management. Also, these standards do not address technology.

Even though the ISLLC standards which have been incorporated into the curricula of many colleges' and universities' educational administration programs have changed the way these departments train future school leaders, the Levine (2005) study examined the quality of these programs and found that they vary among the schools. They may not have been effectively incorporated into the curricula of colleges and universities or in state licensure requirements. Thus, if colleges and universities are going to produce more qualified candidates for school leader positions, they need to offer their educational administration students viable and valuable coursework and field experiences.

Over the past two decades, much has changed in the educational leadership profession and much has changed in the programs that prepare education leaders (Murphy, 2001). Yet, these programs must continue to adapt to meet their students' needs, so more of these students will pursue the principalship and the assistant principalship. Effective traditional educational administration programs "train principals to develop and evaluate curricula, use data to diagnose student needs, coach teachers, plan professional development in their schools, and establish school-wide norms that support high-quality teaching and learning" (Darling-Hammond, 1988, p. 65). They are more selective of their participants. These programs are also more likely to be focused on improvement of instruction. They provide more relevant internships with hands-on leadership experience. The needs of the local school districts are closely tied to these programs. "States and districts also need to work more closely together to ensure that the policies affecting leadership standards, training and conditions" are unified, so they can attract more educational administration students to enter school leadership (The Wallace Foundation, 2008, p. 11).

Criticism of Educational Administration Programs

In our society, negative perceptions about education are widespread. From educational researchers to school superintendents, the calls for reforming traditional educational administration programs have grown louder. A number of individuals in the field of education have called for changes in colleges and universities' educational administration programs throughout the country. Arthur Levine, an educational researcher, frequently described traditional educational administration programs' attempts to train potential school leaders as "a race to the bottom" (Levine, 2005, p. 23). At the same time, urban school system superintendents, like Pittsburgh School Superintendent Mark Roosevelt, worry that university-based programs are producing ill-prepared candidates for urban schools.

Educational administration programs are not doing enough to help their participants to succeed as school building-level administrators (Hess & Kelly, 2005; Levine, 2005; Mitchell, 2009; Murphy, 2003; Southern Regional Education Board, 2006; Versland, 2009). Inconsistencies in the curriculum plague educational administration programs, and these programs have been slow to keep up with changes (Hess & Kelly, 2005). Hess and Kelly (2005) found that "preparation has not kept pace with changes in the larger world of schooling, leaving graduates of principal preparation programs ill-equipped for the challenges and opportunities posed by an era of accountability" (p. 35). Levine (2005) identified the impediments of principal preparation programs: irrelevant curriculums, low admission and graduation standards, weak faculty, inadequate clinical instruction, inappropriate degrees, and poor research.

In the United States, many school districts, including Virginia's, promote "degree for raises" for their teachers. The more degrees teachers can acquire; the higher their salaries. "For teachers who have little intention of becoming an administrator, earning an advanced degree in administration still enables them to earn a significant raise in salary" (Versland, 2009, p. 31). The goal is not to eliminate these financial incentives; they provide teachers with more financial stability without having to take on more responsibilities. Therefore, school systems need to provide incentives that promote high quality educational administration programs. For instance, the current salary scales of many school systems increases an individual's pay for taking classes and obtaining degrees.

Another criticism of educational administration programs is that historical and contemporary paradigms of educational leadership may be insufficient in preparing educational leaders to work effectively in diverse communities, as they often ignore the role of race and race relations in America (Gooden, 2002; Lopez, 2003; Sanchez et al., 2009). Sufficient research does not exist on "minority leaders, a deficiency of methods to overcome barriers, and ineffective system supports that prevents preparation programs from addressing the needs" (Sanchez et al., 2009, p. 3). In 1980, Haven, Adkinson, and Bagley identified the following barriers:

- if racial minorities perceive that the values of the educational system ignore or conflict with their community, racial minorities lower their career aspirations;
- high percentages of racial minorities major in education, but educational environments do not encourage their career aspirations;

- racial minorities need more support to achieve their aspirations but often receive less support;
- racial minorities aspiring for the principalship face conscious or unconscious resistance from the educational system;
- few role models and mentors for racial minorities exist;
- negative stereotypes persist;
- a lack of research exists on racial minority principals and their career aspirations;
- and racial minorities face more discrimination.

“Many potential candidates for leadership positions in our schools lack the resources to attend graduate school” (Sanchez et al., 2008, p. 2). McCray et al. (2007) found that White school building-level administrators were placed in all types of schools, diverse or not, while racial minority principals and assistant principals were often placed in schools with high racial minority student populations. As a result, colleges and universities attract few racial minorities into their educational administration programs. McCray et al. (2007) have concluded the following:

Unless university leadership preparation programs acknowledge the historical and current role of race in our society and the field of educational leadership, there will continue to be an underlying supposition within the field of education that minority principals should only be placed and can only lead in schools with a heavy concentration of minority students. (p. 253)

In education, many racial minorities (i.e., African-American, Hispanic, Asian, and Native American/Pacific Islander) are the first in their families to complete bachelor's

degrees. Their primary concern is securing teaching positions. Beginning teachers of color often lack the financial stability to pursue advanced degrees. Also, they may or may not be committed to having careers in the educational field. In the past, jobs for African-Americans and other racial minorities were scarce, but they could find in education. Today, colleges and universities offer racial minority students more options.

Unfortunately, more than 20 years later, the same barriers still exist for minorities who want to pursue the principalship or the assistant principalship. By drawing attention to the lack of female secondary school leaders and the miniscule number of minorities in educational leadership programs, this study can have implications on the methods used to recruit more potential candidates from diverse backgrounds to pursue jobs as principals or assistant principals, raising female educational administration students' interests in positions as secondary principals and assistant principals. Women and racial minorities currently working as principals and assistant principals can recruit and mentor others as they journey through the process needed to become school building-level administrators.

Online Focus Group

Patton (2002) defines "a focus group interview as an interview with a small group of people on a specific topic" (p. 385). Using a focus group interview offers several advantages. It is cost-effective. Participants' interaction with one another improves the quality of data. It produces "a consistent, shared view or great diversity of views that can be quickly assessed" (Patton, 2002, p. 386). However, focus group interviews have certain limitations:

- restrictions of the number of questions
- response times by participants are limited

- the complexity of facilitating and conducting a focus group interview
- racial minority perspectives may not be heard
- participants need to be strangers for the best results
- controversial and highly personal issues are poor topics
- confidentiality cannot be assured
- subtle differences will not be revealed
- focus group interviews occur outside of the natural setting (Patton, 2002, pp.386-388).

With the popularization of the Internet, new mediums, such as online focus groups and e-mails, became available to collect primary data. “Collaborative technologies can enable people in distributed environments to work together seamlessly irrespective of location, time or functional area” (Jones & Kochtanek, 2004, p, 2). The Internet enables researchers to expand on the traditional data collection methods, which include observations, interviews, focus groups, and survey research using social network systems (i.e., Facebook, Twitter, blackboard, e-mail). Online focus groups were first used in the 1990s for market research (Jones & Soltren, 2005). The use of online focus groups for data collection by researchers has risen significantly and has expanded into other fields, such as health care and higher education. “Notably, medical sociology and health research have taken advantage of the ‘captive populations’ online, characterized by health and illness support networks” (Stewart & Williams, 2005, p. 398). Researchers in various fields, such as medicine, marketing, and education, are collecting data using Social Network Systems (SNS), such as Facebook and Twitter.

An online focus group is one type of focus group, and is a sub-set of online research methods (Exploring online research methods in a virtual training environment, 2006). Boulos and Wheelert (2007) declared that social networks “enables the collection, sharing and transferring of information and ideas for specific purposes, thus facilitating the development of stronger, reflective communities” (p. 2). There are two types of online interviews, synchronous and asynchronous. Synchronous online interviews take place in "real time" in an environment. Videoconferences and chat rooms have been used to conduct synchronous online interviews. It is similar to a traditional face-to-face interview. On the other hand, asynchronous online interviews do not take place in real time. Instant messages, e-mails, and discussion boards are two methods used to conduct asynchronous online interviews. The interviewer e-mails the interview questions to respondents to answer at their own convenience. Therefore, neither the researcher nor the participants needs to be online at the same time.

Several researchers (i.e., Burton & Goldsmith, 2002; Jones & Soltren, 2005; Rezabek, 2000; Tates et al., 2009) have concluded that online focus group methodology is an effective tool for collecting qualitative data in educational research. The Burton and Goldsmith (2002) study evaluated the development of a methodology for conducting electronic focus groups to develop an understanding of student experiences in distance learning. The sample population was composed of college students enrolled in online classes at one of the Connecticut institutions chosen to participate in the study. This study was designed to last a month and a half for two semesters. In the Fall 2001 semester, the researchers began collecting data from their 64 participants. These participants were divided into two groups, new and returning online students. Students responded to

discussion threads pertaining to their online focus group experience. For the Spring 2002 semester, the number of participants had increased to 74 and were divided into four groups based on the institutions they were attending. Attrition was an issue. By the end of the semester, eight participants withdrew from the study. Thus, 54 students out of 74 students actually participated in the study for the Spring 2002 semester focus groups. The data of the online focus group allowed the researcher to categorize the data into several categories: motives for participation, perceived barriers to participation, encouragement factors, the impact of technology on the student's motivation, and the dependency/independence of time and place for learning.

Jones and Soltren (2005) conducted a study using Facebook to collect data for their research study. They used Facebook to collect data from 413 students who attended the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Harvard University, New York University, and the University of Oklahoma. Both a paper survey on the use of Facebook's features and data from the Facebook site directly were used to collect data for the study. By using Facebook, their study provided a proof of concept to show that it is possible for an individual to automatically gather large amounts of data from Facebook. Also, they were able to produce the transcripts within 48 hours. Thirdly, the data collected from Facebook provided them with a large, nearly exhaustive and statistically significant data set, which they used to draw important conclusions on usage trends.

The Rezabek (2000) study focused on comparing the motives, enablers, and barriers reported by distance learning students as they considered enrolling in adult distance classes at a large Iowa community college to other students from across the country taking distance learning classes. A mixed methodology (i.e., online focus group,

questionnaire, and personal interviews) was used for this study. The online focus group consisted of six participants: three community college professors, two college professors, and one employee from Public Broadcasting Service's Adult Learning Service. The online focus group was used to revise and edit the research questions for the main study. Several members of the focus group felt that incentives and enablers for prospective college students are also important factors that contribute to a student's decision to enroll. The online focus group reported that word of mouth is the best marketing tool for community colleges, colleges, and universities.

The Tate et al. (2009) qualitative study focused on the methodology of the online focus groups and participants' evaluations of their participation in these groups. An asynchronous online focus group consisting of 18 survivors of childhood cancer, seven children currently battling cancer, and 11 parents, determined which research questions to include in the study. During one week, all of the participants were engaged in the discussion. "In their evaluations, adolescent patients and survivors emphasized that the anonymity experienced during online focus groups made them feel comfortable to express their views in more detail, without worrying about the immediate responses from others (Tate et al., 2009, p. 9).

The number of participants is a limitation because this study's findings cannot be generalized to a larger population. The software used did not record the dates and times that the participants were involved in the online focus groups. So, the researchers did not know when the participants responded to the posts. Attrition did occur in the sample population. Thirty-one out of 36 participants completed the evaluation questionnaire after the online focus group ended.

The findings for this study showed that online focus groups have the potential for gathering high quality data within a relatively short time period. Twenty-four participants reported the online focus group experience as productive. Eleven participants stated they would have participated in this study if it had a traditional face-to-face focus group, but 11 other participants revealed they would not have taken part in the study if a traditional focus group had been used. *Tates et. al. (2009)* found that there were no differences between responding and non-responding participants.

Based on the literature reviewed for this study, the researcher acknowledges that using an online focus group has both advantages and disadvantages. An online focus group presents several benefits for researchers. It is cost-efficient. The participants do not have to travel to a central location. The amount of time needed to conduct a focus group is reduced because the participants' responses can be printed immediately. "Recruitment is a problem associated with TFG and is likely to grow, because of the increasing difficulty of scheduling meetings for busy people," so by using online focus groups, the participants will be more likely to take part in research studies (*Rezabek, 2000, p. 2*). By using the Internet, new recruitment opportunities for ill or disabled participants, housebound respondents, marginalized populations, and socially or geographically isolated people. Online data collection has the added advantage of providing an effective format to collect sensitive or personal health information.

There are some drawbacks to using online focus groups in research studies. When researchers use online focus groups, selection bias is an issue. Some potential participants may be excluded from studies because they do not own or have access to the technology required to participate in these studies. Another disadvantage of using online

focus groups is some participants may lack proficiency in keyboarding skills. Thus, their ability to respond in a timely manner will be directly impacted because the faster typists in the group can control the topic. In addition, Rezabek (2000) suggested that older participants may have a fear of technology and be less willing to participate in online focus groups. Participants in online focus groups may provided shorter responses than participants in traditional focus groups. Researchers reviewed for this study had consensus that the main disadvantage of online focus groups is the lack of visual cues. When using online focus groups, the researcher cannot see the participants to judge their facial expression or their body language. However, no conclusive evidence exists that the Internet indeed is an impoverished or impersonal environment. Tates et al. (2009) found that the lack of visual cues was not always a disadvantage. They believed that no social biases, such as class, gender, or race, would be present in the study because the researcher and participants could not see each other.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is “the psychological disposition of people toward their work- and this involves a collection of numerous attitudes or feelings” (Schultz, 1982, p. 287). Spector (1997) defined job satisfaction as “how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs” (p. 2). Job satisfaction is a function of the difference between the amount of reward a person believes he or she should receive and the amount the person actually receives (Vroom, 1964; Reinhart & Wahba, 1975). It is the attitude of liking or disliking a job (Jepsen & Shen, 2003). Job satisfaction is important because it contributes to job performance, influences emotional and physical well-being, and ensures high

quality work performance (Jepsen & Shen, 2003). Locke (1976) identified some conditions (i.e., personal and working) that were conducive to job satisfaction:

(a) work needs to be mentally challenging; (b) the worker needs to have a personal interest in the work itself; (c) work is not too physical; (d) rewards for performance which are just, informative, and in line with the individual's physical needs and which facilitate to accomplishment of his work goals; (e) high self-esteem of the worker; (f) agents in the work place (i.e., mentors) who help the employee to attain job values, such as interesting work, pay, and promotions, whose basic values are similar to his own, and who minimize role conflicts and ambiguity (p. 1328).

Over 30 years ago, Gruneberg (1979) noted a decline in job satisfaction for all U.S. workers. Today, many Americans are becoming increasingly unhappy with their jobs (Jepsen & Shen, 2003; Job Satisfaction on Sharp Decline, 2009). "Forty-two percent of the U.S. workers are dissatisfied with their jobs" (Job Satisfaction on Sharp Decline, 2009, p. 40). This alarming trend is being echoed across the educational field, including classroom teachers, school building-level administrators, and superintendents.

Job satisfaction plays a vital role in potential candidates' perceptions of these jobs and their willingness to accept these positions (Cooley & Shen, 2000; Stemple, 2004). It is a leading determinant in turnover (McNeese et al., 2009; Winter et al., 2004). According to Jepsen and Shen (2003), job satisfaction is highly important in the workplace as it contributes to job performance, influences emotional and physical well-being, and is necessary to ensure high quality performance. By examining the aspects of perceived job satisfaction on educational administration students, the researcher can

differentiate between the factors that lead to job satisfaction as well as those factors that cause job dissatisfaction.

Theories of Job Satisfaction

Why do educational administrative students in master's degree programs choose to pursue school administration certification? What differences regarding motivating factors exist between these students and the students who do not pursue jobs as school administrators? What are the inhibitors preventing students in educational administration programs from seeking school leadership jobs? To answer these questions, it is necessary to examine the theories of job satisfaction, such as Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, Vroom's expectancy theory, and Behling, Labovitz, and Gainer's job choice theory. One can also explore how these theories influence the perceptions of students in traditional principal preparation programs concerning their expected job satisfaction and their decisions to seek the principalship and the assistant principalship (Table 2). Appendix B provides synopses of research studies that focused on job satisfaction reviewed for this study. Therefore, colleges and university leaders can develop a better understanding of how these students determine whether or not to seek school administration jobs.

There are two types of theories of job satisfaction, content and process. Content theory "gives an account of the factors that influence job satisfaction" (Stemple, 2004, p. 10). This theory focuses on the specific identity of what it is within an individual or his or her environment that energizes and sustains behavior (Stemple, 2004). In other words, what specific things motivate people. Herzberg et al.'s motivational-hygiene theory is an example of content theory. Several studies (e.g., Bass, 2004; Harris et al., 2000; Stemple, 2004) rely heavily on content theory by examining the job facets that motivate students in

educational administration students' pursuit of the principalship or the assistant principalship.

The process theory describes “the process by which variable such as expectations, needs, and values relate to the characteristics of the job to produce job satisfaction” (Stemple, 2004, p. 10). In this theory, job satisfaction is caused by the nature of the work, its context within the organization, the needs, values, and expectations that the individuals have in relation to their job (Gruneberg, 1979). It attempts to define major variables to explain and describe certain behaviors associated with work. An individual's ability to obtain job satisfaction is proportional to the degree to which they are able to implement self-concepts that they envision for themselves from that job (Jepsen & Sheu, 2003). Stemple (2004) stated, “process theories try to explain and describe the process of how behavior is energized, directed, sustained, and stopped” (p. 12). Vroom's expectancy theory is an example of process theory.

Motivational-hygiene theory.

Herzberg's et al. (1959) research, which became known as Herzberg's motivational-hygiene theory, involved a sample of 203 industrial workers, such as engineers and accountants, in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania (p. 32). The participants varied in training requirements, job requirements, and their actual jobs. By conducting semi-structured interviews, they were able to identify two factors: motivation and hygiene (Table 5). Motivators represent people's relationship to what they do, while hygienes describe people's relationships to the context or environment in which they do their jobs (McNeese et al., 2009). Herzberg et al. (1959) stated, “Motivators serve to bring about the kind of job satisfaction, and...the kind of improvement in performance that

industry is seeking from its work force” (p. 114). Achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, opportunity for advancement, and growth were motivators (satisfiers) (Herzberg, 1968). Several researchers, Gawel (1997) and Frazier (2005), supported Herzberg et al. (1959) belief that motivators were the essential method for improving workers’ overall long-term performance.

Herzberg distinguished between intrinsic and external rewards. Intrinsic motivation is the desire of an individual to perform his or her work well, in order to achieve the satisfaction of intrinsic needs (Hui & Lee, 2000). Motivation factors intrinsic to the job lead to job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979). Martin et al. (2001) believe “Intrinsic rewards are self-respect, sense of accomplishment, and personal growth” (p. 3). Herzberg argued that continual job enrichment embedded in “sufficiently challenging work designed to utilize an employee's full abilities with increasing levels of responsibilities provides the individual with opportunities that can positively impact intrinsic motivation and increase one's level of job satisfaction” (McNeese et al., 2009, p. 4). “Extrinsic rewards include salary, fringe benefits, and job security” (Martin et al., 2001, p. 3).

Hygienes are the preventive measures to significantly reduce dissatisfiers and/or poor job performance (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg et al. (1959) identified hygienes as “supervision, interpersonal relations among employees, physical plant, conditions, salary, company policies, administrative practices, benefits, and job security” (p. 113). Environment and compensation are hygiene factors that do not lead to job satisfaction but reduce the degree of dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1966). Compensation is also associated with job dissatisfaction but not to job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959; Waskiewicz,

1999). Thus, hygiene factors are related to the job context. “Hygiene factors fail to provide for positive job satisfaction because they do not provide for individuals’ sense of growth” (McNeese et al., 2009, p. 4). These factors “consistently produced only short-term changes in job attitudes and performance, which quickly fell back to its previous level” (Gawel, 1997, p. 2). “The fewer chances of motivators to appear, the greater the hygienes offered in order to make work tolerable” (Herzberg et al., 1959, p. 115). If these factors are not present, or are mismanaged, they may cause dissatisfaction on the job (Bassy, 2002; McNeese et al., 2009; Stemple, 2004).

Herzberg’s motivational-hygiene theory suggests that certain factors were capable of causing both short-term and long-term changes. “Motivators, such as challenging work, recognition, and responsibility, give employees positive satisfaction, arising from intrinsic conditions of the job itself, such as recognition, achievement, or personal growth” (Skemp-Arlt & Toupençe, 2007, p. 29). The data collected from Herzberg et al.’s (1959) study showed that “achievement (41%) was the most frequent factor” identified as a satisfier by participants, but it did not lead to a long-term job attitude change (p. 59). Herzberg et al. (1959) found that certain motivators, such as recognition, work itself, and advancement, were not unidirectional, which meant participants in the survey listed these factors as both satisfiers and dissatisfiers (Table 3). Motivators can increase participants’ long-term performance and satisfaction.

Table 3

Herzberg's motivational-hygiene theory

Motivations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Making A Difference • Personally Challenged • Professionally Challenged • Increased Salary • Support and Socialization
Hygienes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Company Policy • Working Conditions • Salary • Interpersonal relationships (i.e. administrators, colleagues, and subordinates) • Physical Plant

Several studies identified motivators that attracted potential school administrators to apply and accept jobs in this field (Bass, 2004, 2006; Harris et al., 2000; Waskiewicz, 1999; Winter et al., 2004) (Table 4; Appendix C). The Waskiewicz (1999) study found that educators are attracted to school leadership because of intrinsic rewards, such as serving others, positively influencing students and teachers, and achieving goals. Winter et al. (2004) identified reasons for becoming a school leader: expand career options, improve student learning, become qualified to be a principal, and assume a greater leadership role (p. 92). Furthermore, two studies, Bass (2004) and Harris et al. (2000), had similar findings for why people sought school leadership positions: to make a difference, to positively impact students and people, to rise to a personal challenge, to initiate change, to meet the professional challenges of the job, to achieve increased salary and benefits, and to be a teacher of teachers. They can increase participants' long-term performance and satisfaction.

Other studies have contradicted, or only weakly supported Herzberg et al.'s (1959) findings (e.g., Locke, 1976; Vroom, 1964; Reinhart & Wahba, 1975). Herzberg et al.'s used semi-structured interview questions (a single method) to measure job attitudes, which some researchers have argued prevents the study from having high generalizability and validity. Vroom (1964) believed that Herzberg et al.'s unstructured format overemphasized "the importance of self-controlled actions as sources of satisfaction and things beyond the control of the individual as sources of dissatisfaction" (Behling et al., 1968, p. 106). Herzberg et al. made little or no attempt to measure overall job satisfaction of each participant. Although Herzberg et al. successfully identified "a range of different motivational elements in the workplace that contribute to both levels of employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction, questions have arisen regarding the inability of hygiene factors to cause satisfaction and the inability of motivators to cause dissatisfaction" (The Centre for International Economics & The Ryder Self Group, 2008, p. 44). It removed any responsibility of the worker for his or her personal inadequacies. The individual can, according to Vroom, take credit for his successes and blame others for his failures by emphasizing what Herzberg et al. labeled motivators as sources of satisfaction and hygienics as sources of dissatisfaction.

Vroom's expectancy theory.

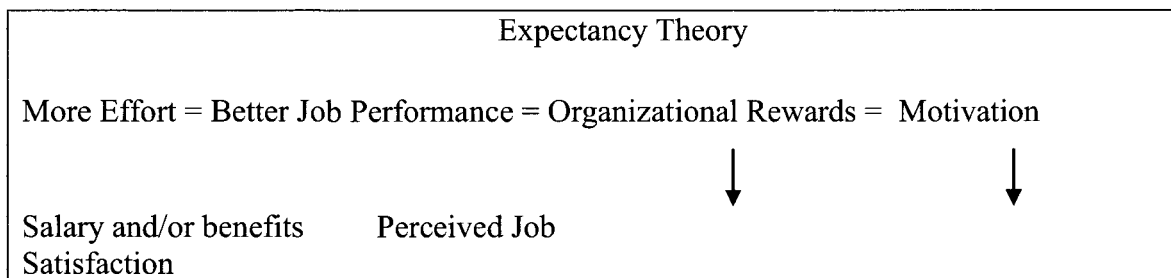
Vroom's expectancy theory, which stems from industrial and organizational psychology, assumes that "behavior results from conscious choices among alternatives whose purpose it is to maximize pleasure and minimize pain" (Mitchell, 2009, p. 58; Psychology Wiki, 2008) (Figure 2). In other words, people make job employment decisions that are based on maximizing their happiness and minimizing their pain. So, if a

potential candidate believes he or she is a good fit for an organization, he or she is more likely to apply and accept a position within the organization.

This theory was based on three concepts: instrumentality, valence of outcomes, and expectancy. Vroom (1964) defined instrumentality as the degree to which a person sees the outcome in question as leading to the attainment of other outcomes. The valence of outcomes is the preference that individuals have toward outcomes, rewards, and events are referred to as the attraction, valence, or value of rewards and outcomes. Expectancy refers to the strength of a person's belief about whether or not a particular job performance is attainable. For instance, does the individual believe that they can achieve the task? Several research studies' findings (i.e., Pounder & Merrill, 2001; McNeese et al., 2009) are consistent with the expectancy theory (Table 4).

Figure 2

How Expectancy Theory Works



There are several problems with the expectancy theory. In Vroom's theory, job fulfillment is directly linked to performance outcomes. Two researchers' (i.e., Mitchell, 1971; Reinhart & Wahba, 1975) findings failed to support the expectancy theory. Also, the motivation-hygiene theory suggests "that the factors involved in producing job satisfaction (and motivation) are separate and distinct from the factors that lead to job

dissatisfaction” (Herzberg et al., 1968, p. 254). The validity of the measure used in the study is questionable. The measure should reflect both content and intensity. But, it does not address content, such as what a person values. It also assumes that all outcomes are relevant and positive. Even though negative outcomes could occur, they were not addressed in Vroom’s theory (1964).

Behling, Labovitz, and Gainer’s job choice theory.

Potential job seekers make their job choice decisions based on an evaluation process, which consist of their perceptions of the job’s attributes, and “the type of decision processes used to evaluate those attributes (e.g., whether jobs are evaluated in relation to other offers, to subjective notions of ‘ideal’ jobs, or to minimal requirements for a certain standard of living” (Schwab, Rynes, & Aldag, 1987, p. 133). Behling et al. (1968) wrote, “The position selection process is based on a weighing of the advantages and disadvantages of each offer in terms of objectively measurable factors” (p. 14). The first decision made by the applicant is to apply for and accept the job if offered. The second decision made by the applicant relates more to the quality of the job...satisfaction and overall commitment to the organization” (Mitchell, 2009, p. 6). Several studies (i.e., Pounder and Merrill, 2001; Stemple 2004) examined the impact of job choice theory on educational administration students (Table 4).

Behling et al. (1968) created three theories of job choice, which was comprised of objective, subjective, and critical contact. The objective theory of job choice views candidates as “economic beings.” This theory focuses on measurable factors and how they impact the quality of life of the individual. These candidates are most likely to choose an organization “that offers the most economic benefits such as salary, benefit

packages,” and vacation time (Pounder & Merrill, 2001, p. 30). “Each of these items is weighted in terms of its relative importance to the individual, and the results are combined into some over-all index of desirability” (Behling et al., 1968, p. 15).

The subjective theory focuses on the candidates’ perceptions of the work environment and the “perceived ability of the firm to provide satisfaction for deep-seated and often unrecognized emotional needs of the candidates” is crucial to their decisions to accept a job (Behling et al., 1968, pp. 15-16). The subjective theory relates to candidates from a psychological perspective, with an emphasis on the organization’s meeting the psychological needs of the individual (Mitchell, 2009). In other words, one’s personal experiences influence the psychological aspects of the work environment. The candidate views the work environment as a place where he or she is fulfilled on an emotional or psychological level. The attributes for the subjective theory scale were developed from the personal experiences of the administrative focus group concerning the psychological aspects of the school work environment,

The critical contact theorists believe the candidates cannot differentiate between competing school systems based on objective or subjective criteria. Critical contact theory is important as it emphasizes the initial contact between the prospective employee and the employer or recruiter. Because the candidate is incapable of making a decision based on financial or psychological needs, he or she makes choices based on “the appearance and behavior of the recruiter, the nature of the physical facilities and the efficiency of processing the paperwork associated with his application” (Behling et al., 1968, p. 17). Thus, they accept jobs based on “the appearance and behavior of the recruiter, the nature of the physical facilities, and the efficiency of processing the

paperwork associated with their applications” (Behling et al., 1968, p. 17). Applicants make decisions about employment opportunities with limited information about jobs and employing organizations (Pounder & Young, 1996; Schwab, Rynes, & Aldag, 1987).

Table 4

Research Studies Influenced By Theories Of Job Satisfaction (Condensed Version)

Theories	Studies
Herzberg’s et al.’s motivation-hygiene theory (1959)	<p>Allen, L., Lutinski, E., & Schlanger, S. (2007). Characteristics, Preparation, Expectations, and Opportunities Affecting the Career Decisions of Educators with Administrative Certification.</p> <p>Bass, T. (2004). Principalship Inhibitors and Motivators: Factors Influencing Educators’ Decisions To Enter Principal Positions.</p> <p>Harris, Arnold, Lowery, & Crocker (2000). Deciding to Become a Principal: What Factors Motivate or Inhibit That Decision?</p> <p>Hess & Kelly (2005). Learning to Lead? What Gets Taught in Principal Preparation Programs.</p> <p>Waskiewicz (1999). Variables That Contribute To Job Satisfaction of Secondary School Assistant Principal.</p> <p>Werner, P. (2007). Elementary School Principals’ Perceptions of Factors That Should Be Included in Principal Preparation Programs.</p> <p>Winter, Rinehart, Keedy, & Bjork (2004, 2007 respectively). Recruiting Certified Personnel To Be Principals: A Statewide Assessment of Potential Job Applicants.</p>
Vroom’s expectancy theory (1964)	<p>Allen, L., Lutinski, E., & Schlanger, S. (2007) Characteristics, Preparation, Expectations, and Opportunities Affecting the Career Decisions of Educators with Administrative Certification.</p> <p>Quenneville, J. M. (2007). Preparing School Leaders: School Administrators’ Perception of Traditional and District Level Training Programs.</p>

- McNeese, Roberson, & Haines (2009). Motivation and Leadership: A Comparison of Motivation Factors for Pursuing a Degree in Education Administration.
- Mitchell, M. (2009). Career Aspirations of Students in Educational Leadership Programs.
- Behling, Labovitz, & Gainer's Job Choice Theory (1968)
- Pounder & Merrill (2001). Job Desirability of the High School Principalship: A Job Choice Theory Perspective.
- Stemple, J. D. (2004). Job Satisfaction of High School Principals in Virginia.
- Winter, Rinehart, Keedy, & Bjork (2004, 2007 respectively). Recruiting Certified Personnel To Be Principals: A Statewide Assessment of Potential Job Applicants.
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Motivational factors in job satisfaction.

Several studies (i.e., Barksdale, 2003; Bass, 2004; Harris et al., 2000; McNeese et al., 2009; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Stemple, 2004; Waskiewicz, 1999; Winter et al., 2004) concluded that educational administration students were motivated to pursue jobs as school administrators by these factors: positive impact on students and people, the personal challenge, the ability of the principal to initiate change, the professional challenge of the job, increased salary and benefits, and the opportunity to be a teacher of teachers (Appendix C). The Bass (2004) study expanded on this research. The data revealed differences among gender and ethnicity, and the grade levels taught. Gender differences affected the ranking of the motivational factors that attract educational administration students to school leadership (Table 5). The data strongly supported the idea that female educational administration students were more motivated by teaching teachers, making a difference, the professional challenge of the job, promotion opportunities, and making a positive impact than their male counterparts. This study will

attempt to explore if the ratings of these factors differ according to the grade level taught among female participants. If it is not possible to break down the data for this study, the researcher will explore if the ratings of these factors differ according to the grade level taught among female participants. Even if it is not possible to break down the data for this study, differences in students' perceptions based on grade level may exist.

Ethnicity influenced the ranking of some motivational factors, such as relocation, promotion, and opportunities. Relocation was more favorable to African American students in educational administration programs than Caucasians, $F(4, 855) = 4.650$, $p < .05$. Since F_{crit} was 2.32, it was lower than F_{obs} . There was variance present between the two groups, and the null hypothesis was rejected. Hispanic students were more motivated by career advancement than Caucasian students, $F(4, 855) = 4.650$, $p < .05$. Variance existed between the two groups because of the aforementioned reason. In addition, there was a disparity between African American and Caucasian students, $F(4, 855) = 4.650$, $p < .05$. Hispanic were more motivated by staffing than Caucasian educational administration students, $F(4, 855) = 3.160$. The null hypothesis was rejected, and variance was present.

The graduate students who taught elementary school were more motivated by the desire to make a difference, teaching teachers, support and encouragement from others, and personal challenges than those students who taught high school. "Making a difference" was more important to students who worked at elementary schools than middle schools or high schools, $F(3, 856) = 7.72$, $p < .05$. F_{crit} was 2.32. So, variance was present. These groups also differed in their opinions on teaching teachers. Educational administration students working at elementary schools were more motivated by being

teachers of teachers than students who were high school teachers, $F(3, 856) = 6.195$. Since F_{crit} was 2.32, variance was present between these two groups. These two groups also differed on support and encouragement from others. The students working at elementary schools perceived support and encouragement from others as a significant motivator than students working at high schools, $F(3, 856) = 5.404$. So, the H_0 was rejected and variance was assumed to be present between the groups. Another significant disparity between these two groups was their views on personal challenges. The educational administration students working at elementary schools were more motivated by personal challenges than the educational administration students groups, and the H_0 was rejected.

Table 5

Analysis of Bass (2004) Findings on the Differences Based on Gender

Women Were More Motivated By...	Findings	Explanations
Teaching teachers	$F(2, 856)=11.302, p < .05$	Since F_{crit} , 3.09, was smaller than F_{obs} , it was likely that variance was present between the two groups. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected because it was probably false.
Making a difference	$F(2, 856)=6.63, p < .05$	It was likely that variance was present between the two groups, so the H_0 was rejected.
Having a professional challenge	$F(2, 856)=22.573, p < .05$	Since F_{obs} was much larger than F_{crit} , it was likely that variance was present between the two groups. So, the H_0 was rejected.
Having promotional opportunities	$F(2, 856)=.069, p < .05$	The F_{crit} was larger than F_{obs} , so the H_0 was assumed to be true. Therefore, there is no difference between the variance of the two groups.
Making a positive impact	$F(2, 856)=13.972, p < .05$	It was likely that variance was present between the two groups, so the H_0 was rejected.

“When p value is less than .05, the result is considered statistically significant” (George & Mallery, 2007, p. 96).

Make A Difference in Education.

Educational administration students believed they could have a positive impact or make a difference in their students’ lives, assist teachers in improving their skills, and/or give back to their communities or society (Allen et al., 2007). The well-being of others was important to these participants. Lankford et al. (2002) noted that many potential candidates for school leadership make the decision to leave the classroom setting because

they have a desire to serve children in a leadership capacity. They wanted to motivate teachers. These educational administration students wanted to be role models, who demonstrate high standards, for others (i.e., students, teachers, parents, and the community) to emulate. These individuals believed they possess the tools to make them effective leaders.

Personally challenged.

The literature reviewed for this study showed these students felt “they had a calling” or a mission to become school administrators (Bass, 2004; Harris et al., 2000; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Stemple, 2004). These people had a desire to lead. The Allen et al. (2007) study found that some educational administration students were seeking school leadership positions because they had “idealistic expectations for the principalship” (p. 204). These participants accepted their working conditions in order to complete their mission. They believed being a school administrator would be “the right fit” for them. These individuals demonstrated a willingness to get things done, problem-solving skills, and good organizational skills. The goals they set for themselves were achievable.

Professionally challenged.

Because of the No Child Left Behind Act, potential administrators must be knowledgeable about ways to increase student achievement. “In an outcome-based and accountability driven era, administrators have to lead their schools in the rethinking of goals, priorities, finances, staffing, curriculum, pedagogies, learning resources, assessment methods, technology, and use of time and space” (Levine, 2005, p. 12). Allen et al. (2007) noted, “Some people wanted to be school administrators because they needed more of a challenge professionally” (p. 94). The participants in several studies

(Bass, 2004; Harris et al., 2000; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Stemple, 2004) cited professional challenge as a motivator for them to seek positions as school principals and assistant principals. They needed to promote a shared vision and build trust within their schools and communities. These individuals recognized both intellectual and cultural diversity in their school buildings. They wanted to demonstrate their instructional leadership skill, such as curriculum development, supervision, evaluation, and time management (Allen et al., 2007). Career aspirations influenced many of these participants. They viewed the opportunity to serve as a school administrator as “a stepping stone” to a higher administrative position because it allows them to gain experience.

Increased salaries.

A lack of greater monetary incentives “has led to fewer applicants for administrative vacancies” (Price, 2004, p. 36). By increasing school administrators’ salaries, school districts will be able to attract more applicants for the school leadership openings (Bass, 2004; Harris et. al., 2000; Herzberg et al., 1959; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Stemple, 2004; Waskiewicz, 1999; Winter et al., 2004). School leaders’ salaries can lure educational administration students to enter school leadership. When school administrators believed they are adequately compensated, they were more likely to remain at their positions (Allen et al., 2007). However, some research (i.e., Allen et al., 2007; Despite Tough Economy, Many Americans Happy on the Job, National Survey Finds, 2009; Job Satisfaction on Sharp Decline, 2009) shows that income does not impact general job satisfaction for the U.S. workforce directly. Three out of five people, or

“(59%), who earned less than \$25,000 per year,” reported they were happy (Job Satisfaction on Sharp Decline, 2009, p. 40).

Other motivational factors.

The current educational environment calls for school administrators to teach teachers. Many potential school administrators want to assist teachers in reaching their maximum potential in the classroom. In addition, many administrators are content with their lives. The Waskiewicz (1999) study found that 90% of respondents were either satisfied or very satisfied with their lives. Support systems, which consist of “mentoring, participating in cohort groups, and networking,” help educational administration students transition successfully into school leaders (Gray, 2007, p. 65). They can reduce isolation; increase the leaders’ authority and responsibility; and nurture a cadre of future leaders (Moore & Moore, 2000). Socialization, which allows individuals to adjust to the norms and values of the school and to take their place as valued members of the organization, provides them with ongoing support, networking and a community of peers (Foster, 1997). The research showed that socialization was influential to educational administration students’ decisions to seek and obtain jobs as school leaders (Bass, 2004; Gray, 2007; Harris et al., 2000; Herzberg et al., 1959; Levine, 2005; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Stemple, 2004; Waskiewicz, 1999). Two studies, McNeese et al. (2009) and Waskiewicz (1999), found that educational administration students cited career advancement, which is the perception the participant has of the likelihood of being promoted, as a major factor for pursuing jobs as principals and assistant principals.

Hygienes.

Hygienes consist of “company policy and administration; supervision; salary; interpersonal relations with superiors, subordinates, and peers, working conditions,” job security, and personal life (Skemp-Arlt & Toupenca, 2007, p. 30). These “hygienic needs relate to the condition of the work and only create short-term changes in...job attitudes, behaviors, and performance” (Bass, 2006, p. 20). In other words, hygiene factors describe one's relationship to the context or environment in which he or she does his or her job.

Herzberg et al. (1959) believed that people are not content with lower-order job tasks (dissatisfiers). Workers emanate from extrinsic needs. Skempt-Arlt and Toupenca (2007) found “hygiene needs can prevent dissatisfaction, but do not contribute to satisfaction and, therefore, cannot increase motivation” (p. 28). “Hygiene factors fail to provide for positive job satisfaction because they do not provide for an individual's sense of growth” (McNeese et al., 2009, p. 4). In addition, hygiene needs do not increase performance in education (Sergiovanni, 1991).

Inhibitors.

Inhibitors, or barriers, prevent participants in educational administration programs from applying and/or accepting school leadership jobs. Research supports that administrator-certified personnel are not applying for available jobs because of decreased attractiveness of an administrative career in public education. Paperwork and bureaucracy, increased time demands, potential litigation, accountability pressures, and insufficient salary are dissatisfiers, which are factors that can influence educators' decisions to enter administrative positions (Allen et al., 2007; Bass, 2004; Belding, 2008;

Harris et al., 2000; Herzberg et al., 1959; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Stemple, 2004; Walker & Qian, 2006) (Appendix D).

A comprehensive review of the literature revealed a decrease in the attractiveness of the principalship (Allen et al., 2007; Bass, 2004; Belding, 2008; Hess & Kelly, 2005; Levine, 2005; Murphy, 2006; Quenneville, 2007; Sanchez et al., 2009; Sherman, 2005; Usdan, 1976; Waskiewicz, 1999). The Bass (2006) study identified and ranked several reasons for educational administration students avoiding the school leadership: “stress, time requirements, accountability pressures, family responsibilities, excessive paperwork, bureaucracy, lack of compensation, and lack of tenure...” (p. 70). The Pounder and Merrill (2001) study cited time demands, ethical dilemmas, student discipline problems, termination of unfit employees, and union negotiations.

Several studies (i.e., Barksdale, 2003; Bass, 2004; Harris et al., 2000; McNeese et al., 2009) found that gender influenced the ranking of the inhibitors. In the literature reviewed for this study, several factors were identified as inhibitors that influence the pursuit of school principal and assistant principal positions sought by women. In addition, ethnicity also affected the ranking of the inhibitors (Bass, 2004). In the Bass (2004) study, ethnicity affected the ranking of the inhibitors. Hispanic educational administration students were more inhibited by the lack of interactions with their students than Caucasian or African Americans. Caucasian students felt more inhibited by isolation or alienation from teachers than Hispanic students. The difference between the means of Caucasian and Hispanic students regarding isolation when $F(4, 855) = 4.679, p < .05$. Since F_{crit} was equal to 2.38, a real variation existed between these groups. African American and Caucasian students differed in their mean responses to isolation when $F(4,$

855) = 6.044, $p < .05$, which was much larger than F_{crit} . A real variance existed between the groups, so there were differences between these two groups.

The grade-level teaching experience also influenced the students' ranking of the inhibitors. The educational administration students with middle-school teaching experience were more concerned about excessive paperwork and discipline problems than the students in the program with high-school or elementary-school teaching experience. These groups differed on excessive paperwork when $F(3, 856) = 2.737$, $p < .05$, which showed a real variation existed between these two groups because $F_{crit} = 2.32$. Thus, the null hypothesis was false because the variance for these two groups were not equal. However, the null hypothesis might have been true in two cases concerning students with elementary and middle school teaching experience. They differed regarding discipline problems when $F(3, 856) = 2.510$, $p < .05$, which was lower than $F_{crit} = 2.32$. In addition, the graduate students with elementary-school teaching experience were most concerned about their fear of failing than the graduate students who possessed high-school teaching experience when $F(3, 856) = 3.592$, $p < .05$, which was also lower than F_{crit} . Since F_{crit} is larger than F_{obs} , it is possible that the variation is the same for both groups.

Increased responsibilities.

“The job of school leader has been transformed by extraordinary economic, demographic, technological, and global change” (Levine, 2005, p. 11). Today's school administrators have more responsibilities than in the past. “Principals spend time supervising staff members, disciplining students, central office obligations, handling parent concerns,” building safety, managing finances, and improving student

achievement (Bass, 2004, p. 28). Many potential school administrators are less interested in seeking and obtaining school leader positions because they believe that “one person can no longer do all that needs to be done” (Tucker & Coddling, 2002, p.5).

Paperwork.

The excessive amount of paperwork has become a major deterrent for educational administration students, who are interested in entering school leadership (Bass, 2004; Harris et al., 2000; Winter et al., 2004). “The ever-growing paperwork created by state and district mandates” (Winter & Morgenthal, 2004, p. 320). Budget forms have to be reviewed, completed, and given to the bookkeeper. Data has to be collected, reviewed, and analyzed, so the findings can be reported to central office. Memos and parent letters have to be written and edited before they can be sent home. Also, school administrators have to accept or decline staff professional leave forms. They have to approve all field trips. Every teacher evaluation form must be signed by the principal. Excessive paperwork created by state and district mandates has limited the potential pools of principals and assistant principals across the country (Bass, 2004; Harris et al., 2000).

Time constraints.

Excessive time commitments was one of the top reasons for not pursuing an administrative position (Allen et al., 2007; Bass, 2004; Harris et al., 2000; Hewitt & Stambuck, 2008; McNeese et al., 2009). At least 25% of superintendents surveyed across the nation indicated that excessive time commitments were a deterrent to teachers wanting to pursue a career as a principal (Guterman, 2007). The day-to-day operations require a significant amount of time from school leaders. In a typical work week, they can work from 60 to 80 hours (Bass, 2004; Pounder & Merrill, 2001). The principal is

constantly being asked to take on new administrative responsibilities, but tending to these additional responsibilities often fragments the principal's time (Educational Research Services, 2000). Many school administrators arrive before daylight at their jobs and leave long after the sun has set. On weekends, they complete school-related work. McNeese et al. (2009) found that if principals are overwhelmed by their work and do not have enough time or take enough time to involve themselves in satisfying leisure activities to decrease their stress from work, physical or psychological health issues as well as burnout that may occur and affect job satisfaction and performance.

Insufficient salaries.

Compensation is an important issue for educational administration students (Allen et al., 2007; Belding, 2008; Guterman, 2007; McNeese et al., 2009; Stemple, 2004; Vroom, 1982; Waskiewicz, 1999). Guterman (2007) found that 58% of superintendents indicated teachers were discouraged from becoming principals because compensation was insufficient for the responsibilities assumed as principal. In the Stemple (2004) study, the respondents were least satisfied with the amount of pay they received for the work they do from among the choices offered on this survey. "New principals still tend to make less or only slightly greater salaries than many experienced teachers" (Allen et al., 2007, p. 44). Fewer people are willing to pursue a career in school leadership because of the insufficient pay for school administrators. "Teachers balk at giving up their job security to leave the classroom for a modest salary increase, a longer school day, and a heck of a lot more stress" (Million, 1998, p. 1). "Many teachers feel the higher pay of administrators is not high enough to compensate for the greater responsibilities and choose not to become administrators" (Sanchez et al., 2009, p. 1). On average, the 2008–

2009 salaries for assistant principals “ranged from \$71,893 at the elementary school level to \$81,083 at the high school level, while classroom teachers averaged \$52,900” (Cooke & Licciardi, 2009, p. 27). However, new school administrators make less than the average principal. Therefore, many experienced teachers make higher salaries than most new school administrators (Allen et al., 2007). Bass (2004) stated, “the pay difference between the most experienced teacher who typically works regular hours 180 to 190 days per year, and the principal who typically works long hours, 240 days per year, was minimal...” (p. 26).

School building-level administrators face increased responsibilities, stress, and long hours worked, but their pay is not comparable for what they do. For 12 months a year, principals face more stress and work longer hours than experienced teachers (Archer, 2002). The reviewed research showed on average, assistant principals indicated that they were less than satisfied that they received an equitable salary. In the educational field, older assistant principals are expected to have higher salaries than younger assistant principals. “Older assistant principals may feel that their compensation is not fair given the many years spent performing the job, or they may feel their salaries are not sufficiently higher than those of younger, less-experienced assistant principals” (Waskiewicz, 1999, p. 24). Gilman and Lanman-Givens (2001) state, “Principals’ salaries must increase to a level that is appropriate for their efforts and responsibilities” (p. 73). In addition, “school districts need to offer generous vacation policies and allocate time for professional renewal” (p. 73).

Lack of tenure.

Virginia, like many other states, does not grant school administrators tenure. School administrators are given yearly contracts. Often, they are moved around to various schools around their districts. In addition, possibilities for advancement are few. Many educational administration students are tenured teachers and may not want to gamble on non-tenured leadership positions. When school administrators have demonstrated their proficiency to perform their duties, they should be given tenure. This would lower their anxiety levels because they would not have to worry about their jobs for the upcoming school year.

Other inhibitor factors.

Accountability pressures are too demanding for many potential school leaders. Belding (2008) stated, "In the standards-based reform era, sophisticated skills have been required for educational administrators to be successful in closing educational gaps" (p. 22). Another inhibitor occurs when employees perceived they had little or no career advancement opportunities; thus, they viewed their work and their environment negatively. Discipline is an inhibitor that can put off potential school administrators. Gray (2007) found that "too much time is spent on handling discipline" (p. 57). The lack of community and parent support as well as negative media attention has deterred some potential candidates from seeking the principalship and the assistant principalship. Pounder and Merrill (2001) noted that the lack of support deter potential candidates from seeking principal positions, and the lack of parental support was cited as a contributing factor in why principals leave their jobs. Stress caused by the growing demands of being a school administrator can lead to burnout. Support was another inhibiting factor cited by

the participants. They did not want to be isolated from others in their buildings. A sense of belonging was important to them.

Herzberg et al. (1959) theorized that age has a curvilinear (U-shaped) relationship to job satisfaction. When people are newly hired in positions, they are extremely satisfied with their jobs. As time goes on, they become less enamored with their positions. But, eventually, their job satisfaction level rises again. The Waskiewicz study (1999) hypothesized that “age has a positive relationship to job satisfaction, a negative relationship to career aspirations and opportunity for advancement, and a positive relationship to compensation and feelings of compensation fairness” (pp. 11–12). However, after the data was collected and analyzed, the Waskiewicz study (1999) contradicted Herzberg et al.’s theory by concluding that no curvilinear relationship between age and job satisfaction existed.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This section describes the research methods used to examine the connection between educational administration students' perceptions about their perceived job satisfaction as principals and assistant principals and their decisions whether to become school administrators. This study used a descriptive research design and a mixed methodology. An accessible population composed of The College of William and Mary's students in the Master's of Education Educational Policy, Planning, and Leadership's General Education Administration K-12 Program was used for this study. A survey questionnaire, *The Principal Certification Survey*, was used to collect quantitative data. Qualitative data also were collected from a focus group to provide more depth of students' opinions and views regarding their pursuit of the principalship and the assistant principalship. The research objective for this study examined motivating and inhibiting factors to measure students' levels of attraction to school principal and assistant principal positions.

Method of Inquiry

“Multiple tools are often needed to research a topic thoroughly and to provide results that can be used” (Bassy, 2002, p. 9). Therefore, this study used a mixed methodology. “The purpose of mixed methods research is to build on the synergy and strength that exists between quantitative and qualitative research methods in order to understand a phenomenon more fully than is possible using either quantitative or qualitative methods alone” (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006, p. 490). Denzin and Lincoln (2005) promoted the use of mixed methods research because “by combining multiple observers, theories, methods and data sources, researchers can hope to overcome the

intrinsic bias that comes from single-methods, single-observer and single-theory studies” (p. 309).

For quantitative data, descriptive statistics were collected on the demographics of the participants. Data were collected on gender, age, ethnicity, current occupation, and years of experience in education. Independent sample t-tests, where applicable, were calculated for this study. The independent variables were age, gender, marital status, head of household, credit hours completed, years of experience, and ethnicity. The dependent variable was the intention of educational administration students to pursue the principalship or assistant principalship.

In order to collect qualitative data, an online focus group was conducted via Facebook. Participants went to the designated web site and posted their responses to the researcher’s questions as well as responded to other participants’ responses. They were free to choose where they wanted to answer the questions (i.e., home or work). Their Facebook responses served as the qualitative data for this study. The goal of using Facebook to conduct the online focus group was to attract more participants because the researcher assumed that many of these students had access to Facebook.

By using a mixed methodology, several drawbacks needed to be addressed (Creswell, 2002). First of all, mixed methodology can require a lengthy process. Therefore, a timeline was created and followed to complete this study. Second, the feasibility of resources impacted how the data were collected and analyzed. Third, quantitative results did not show many significant differences. Thus, steps were taken to overcome these problems.

Restatement of the Problem

Why do some students in educational administration programs choose not to pursue jobs as assistant principals or principals? This study sought to determine if a link exists between traditional educational administration students' perceptions regarding perceived job satisfaction as principals and assistant principals and their intentions to pursue principal and assistant principal positions.

Research Questions

Question 1: *What are the differences between students who plan to pursue the principalship and those who do not?*

Question 2: *What are the differences in perceived motivational factors regarding the principalship for earning educational administration certification between students who plan to pursue the principalship and those who do not?*

Question 3: *To what degree do educational administration students who plan to pursue the principalship and those students who have little or no intentions to seek that position differ in perceived barriers regarding the principalship?*

Question 4: *To what extent does Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory explain the differences in perceived job satisfaction of the principalship between educational administration students who plan to pursue a principalship and those who do not?*

Question 5: *To what extent does Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory explain the differences in perceived barriers of the principalship between educational administration students who plan to pursue a principalship and those who do not?*

Research Design

The method used for this study was descriptive. This study sought to determine if educational administration students in various stages of the graduate program plan to become school building-level administrators. This study used a modified field survey questionnaire, containing a demographics section (i.e., age, gender, ethnicity, etc.) and 4-point Likert scales to rate motivators and inhibitors influencing these students' decisions, to collect data. An online focus group also was conducted, which gathered data on students' opinions of motivators and barriers of school administrators and the likelihood of becoming school principals or assistant principals. These students were asked to self-report on their perceived job satisfaction as principals and assistant principals and their intentions to pursue school administrator jobs.

Population for the Study

The accessible population for this study was current students and graduates of the last five years from the M.Ed. in Educational Leadership with a concentration in K-12 General Education Administration Program at the College of William and Mary ($N = 88$). For the Spring 2010 semester, there were 21 active students in the program. These Master's of Education (M.Ed.) candidates were matriculating towards the 36 credit hours required for a master's degree. In addition, about 67 recent graduates who had completed their M.Ed. degrees in the previous 5 years were invited to participate in this study. Even though Old Dominion University, University of Virginia, and Virginia Commonwealth University had significantly more graduates from their programs (202, 181, and 281, respectively) from 2005 to 2009, both Virginia Tech's and The George Washington University's educational leadership programs had comparable numbers of graduates to

The College of William and Mary's (Table 6). Twenty-nine participants completed the survey out of 88 eligible respondents..

Table 6:

Current Students and Graduates of The College of William and Mary's Educational Leadership Program

College or University	Broad Family	Master's Degrees Awarded	Current Students	Total # of Students In Educational Leadership Program
The College of William and Mary	Educational Leadership and Administration - General	67	21	88

Note. Based on data retrieved from The Department of Education at The College of William and Mary (2010).

Since admittance into The College of William and Mary's General Education Administration K–12 Program required a minimum of 3 years teaching experience, all of the participants in this study had met the required 3 years of teaching experience required for administrative endorsement in Virginia. In addition, they were currently working towards or had completed a M.Ed. degree in the General Education Administration K–12 Program required by Virginia's Department of Education for administrative endorsement. These students worked in public and private school settings. Their teaching experience was at the elementary, middle, and/or high school levels. For this study, elementary school level served students in kindergarten through fifth grade. Middle school level housed students in sixth grade through eighth grade. High school level served students in ninth grade through twelfth grade.

Instrumentation

A cross-sectional survey, which allowed “information to be collected from one or more samples or populations at one time,” was used for this study (McMillan, 1996, p. 182). After reviewing several surveys (i.e., The Wallace/Stanford’s Principal Survey; The Principal Preparation Programs Survey; The Principal Aspiration Survey), the researcher chose The Principal Certification Survey created by Winter et al. (2004) because it was the most compatible with the intent of this study. Then, permission was obtained by the researcher to use and modify the Winter et al.’s (2004) survey (Appendices E, F, G, & H). In addition, an online focus group interview protocol was designed to gather more detailed data.

Online Survey

Winter et al. (2007) used a power analysis developed by Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (1996) to determine a minimum sample size of 175 was needed for their study. By conducting a power analysis, certain “specifications, such as $\alpha = .05$, $R^2 = .13$, power = .90, were established for this study” (p. 35). Thus, a sample of 516 principal certification students from nine universities in Kentucky was used for the study. Power was 99%.

“A panel of six experts,” who were knowledgeable about the principalship and procedures for developing job descriptors, developed a field questionnaire survey (Winter et al., 2007, p. 37). Twenty job facet ratings comprised a principal component analysis.

In the Winter et al. (2004) study, a pilot group of teachers, who were either enrolled in educational administration programs or those who were not ($N = 71$), with characteristics similar to those of the participants in the actual study, completed the research instruments. The objectives of the pilot test were to perform a manipulation

check for the job attributes variable, check the clarity of the instrument, and assess the reliability of the composite score serving as the dependent variable (job rating). A composite score served as the dependent variable (job rating). Based on the pilot results, the instrument was adopted for use in the actual study without further modification (Winter et al., 2004). In order to measure the level of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, Herzberg et al.'s (1959) job attitudes were incorporated into the original survey. It has been administered several times to large samples, 466 and 516, respectively (Winter et al., 2004, 2007). The composite score for "the coefficient alpha was .93" (Winter et al., 2004, p. 87). Alpha scores of .70 or above suggest a high degree of reliability and internal consistency among variables (Nunnally, 1978). The response rates were 41% and 46%, respectively (Winter et al., 2004, 2007). Females composed 59.3% of the participants in the study. Caucasians made up 93.8% of the participants (Winter et al., 2007). Teachers made up 82.9% of the participants.

Several changes were made to the original survey to adapt the instrument for this study. Therefore, the modified survey has been examined by several qualified individuals. Dr. Shelley Norwacek, who holds an Ed.D. from The College of William and Mary's EPPL's General Education Administration K-12 Program, examined the modified version and supplied input for the researcher. Dr. Valiya Rose, who holds a Ph.D. in Gifted Education from The College of William and Mary, reviewed the survey and suggested some improvements. The professors on the dissertation committee, Dr. Stronge, Dr. Bass, and Dr. Gareis, suggested several revisions that needed to be made to the survey. Dr. Keedy, a professor at the University of Louisville who created the original survey, received a copy of the modified survey via e-mail and postal service, to provide

input and give permission for the survey to be used for this project (Appendix E, F, G, and H).

The modified version of the Principal Certification Survey contained several parts: demographics, expected job characteristics, and the barriers in pursuit of school leadership positions (Appendix P). The first section of the survey was the Demographics section, which was modified to include age; ethnicity (one race: Caucasian, African American, Hispanic American, Asian American, Native American/Pacific Islander, other; two or more races); gender (male or female); marital status; number of dependents; primary wage earner; career switcher; total years of teaching experience, including the current year; school level of current teaching position (elementary teacher, middle school teacher, high school teacher, not a teacher); current status in M.Ed. program (beginning – completed 12 or less credit hours, middle – completed 13 to 24 credit hours, near completion – completed 25 or more credit hours, or graduate of the program); administrative endorsement (yes or no). These categories were consistent with the demographic sections of various studies, such as Barksdale (2003), Bass (2004), and McNeese et al. (2009).

To better meet the needs of this study, several modifications were made to the demographic section of the Principal Certification Survey (Appendix P). Head of household was added to the survey to identify the number of educational administration students who are their families' breadwinner. The educational level (Bachelor's, Master's, Specialist, and Doctor's) was replaced by the completion of credit hours in the M.Ed. program (beginning – completed 12 credit hours or less, middle – completed 13 to 24 credit hours, near completion – 25 credit hours or more, and graduate of the program).

For this survey, current students represent the students who are currently taking classes, while graduates of The College of William and Mary's EPPL General Education K–12 Program are the students who have completed their Master's degree within the last five years. In order to distinguish between the school levels of current students or recent graduates of the General Education K–12 Program, the participants in this study were asked to identify their current position in the educational field (elementary, middle school, and high school).

Section Two, *Reasons for Earning School Administration Certification*, used a rating scale to measure students' motives for obtaining certification as school administrators. It contained seven items. I redesigned the 5-point Likert scale used in the original survey for this section to a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 4 (Strongly Agree). Since Likert-type rating scales was used to gather the data for this study, it must be noted that there is much debate among educational researchers pertaining to the use of these types of scales. "Some researchers have argued that the aforementioned use of Likert scales may lead to error in interpreting data and the relations inferred from data" (Wu & Tsai, 2007, p. 123). Still, other researchers believe that this threat is overexaggerated (Wu & Tsai, 2007). The Winter et al. (2004) study adopted the Likert scale from previous research (e.g., Aiken, 1996) and was found to have reliable measures.

The third section, *Perceived Job Satisfaction (Motivators)*, inquired about the motivators attracting educational administration students' pursuit of school principal and assistant principal jobs. It consisted of 20 motivating factors. This section asked "the participants to look into the future, so they can rate their degrees of expected job

satisfaction in the job of principal or assistant principal” (Winter et al., 2007, p. 41).

Section Four, *Barriers to Becoming a Principal* (Inhibitors) was made up of 16 inhibiting statements to measure the barriers that prevent educational administration students from pursuing positions as principals or assistant principals. Educational administration students were asked to assess these statements on a 4-point scale, in which they were asked to respond with (1) Highly Satisfied, (2) Dissatisfied, (3) Satisfied, and (4) Highly Satisfied.

The fifth section, *Career Aspirations*, consisted of two composite items. The first question sought to determine whether students would pursue a job interview for a principalship or an assistant principalship. This question is important because it provided data regarding whether the M. Ed. program is effectively preparing its students to assume assistant principalships or principalships. By having the actual number of students in this program who are planning to pursue jobs, any changes, if needed, can be made to assist these students and to increase more of the students in the program to pursue school administration positions. The second question asked students if they would accept a school building-level administrator job if offered one. If colleges and universities offer educational leadership programs, they have a responsibility to encourage their students to actually become school leaders. Thus, they need to track the number of students who complete their programs and become school leaders. The participants’ self-reported responses will provide insight to their decision to seek principal and assistant principal positions.

Online Focus Group

Since the potential participants were from various parts of Virginia, I considered their availability and willingness to take part in an online focus group session. Thus, the convenience of using an online focus group ensured that most of them would participate in the online focus group session. Some of the potential participants were familiar with Facebook and its settings.

Because of the small sample used in this study, an online focus group also provided in-depth perspectives of the students and their intentions to pursue the principalship or assistant principalship. By using an online focus group consisting of six to 10 students who were currently enrolled in the M.Ed. program for General Education Administration, students' could share their in-depth perspectives concerning their perceived job satisfaction as principals and assistant principals and their intentions to become school building-level administrators. The interview questions for the focus group were semi-structured to provide a framework for the meeting, while also allowing students the flexibility to freely provide feedback (Appendix M). The focus group questions were reviewed by Mrs. Mary Spells, Dr. Nowacek, and Dr. Rose. Then, these questions were field tested with a panel of three retired school building level administrators (two principals and one assistant principal) to gain feedback. Their suggestions, such as wording for open-ended questions, sequencing of interview questions, and aligning the interview questions with the research questions for the study, were helpful in editing and revising the interview questions for the focus group.

Procedure

The first step was to obtain permission from several sources. After reviewing several existing surveys, the Principal Certification Survey by Winter, Rinehart, Keedy, and Bjork (2004) was chosen to collect data for this study. Thus, I contacted the authors of the study via e-mail to obtain permission to use their survey. Dr. Keedy gave his permission for the survey to be used for this study (Appendices E, F, G, and H). Then, I contacted Dr. Ward, Associate Dean of Academic Affairs for the School of Education at The College of William and Mary, via e-mail to seek permission to have access to student information. Dr. Ward responded favorably to the request, but this proposal needed to be submitted and approved by IRB before releasing any information.

The second step was to submit this proposal's survey and focus group interview questions to the IRB Committee for their approval. Once they granted their approval, an online version of the Principal Certification Survey was set up using Survey Monkey, an online survey tool. Educational administration students were able to easily access the survey using their computers. With the assistance of an online service, the survey was posted and housed on their website. The survey was active for 3 weeks. During this time, the participants were allowed to complete the survey once.

In order to get the highest response rate possible, two e-mails were sent out. On July 2, 2010, I emailed the initial invitations to participate in the online survey, The Principal Certification Survey (Appendix N). Then, a second e-mail invitation was sent to the participants on July 13, 2010 (Appendix O). At the same time, I contacted three professors in the M.Ed. Educational Leadership Program at The College of William and Mary via e-mail and asked them to inform their summer school students about the survey.

On July 15, 2010, one of the professors sent her students an e-mail with the survey link, which increased the number of participants who had taken the survey. Another professor's summer school class had concluded in June, so it was not possible to contact the students. It was hoped that these steps would encourage maximum student participation because they chose when they wanted to complete the survey. This study had twenty-nine participants out of 88 potential participants.

There were several advantages for using an online survey. Both the delivery and response time were reduced. First of all, by bypassing the postal service, no surveys were misplaced or lost in the mail system. Second, it was cost-effective because the researcher did not have to pay for postage. Third, it was more convenient for the participants because they chose when and where they wanted to complete the survey. Simultaneously, a focus group was conducted using semi-structured interview questions that allowed participants to offer their insights. For this study, the research questions were posted and the participants accessed the discussion wall to read and post their responses. They had unlimited access for one week to the group. There were seven participants: six females and one male.

Online focus groups have several disadvantages. The researcher can post invitations to participate in a survey using community bulletin boards, discussion groups, or chat rooms may be ignored by potential participants. These invitations could be deleted as unwanted posts, or the researcher may receive complaints for contacting people who are not interested in participating in the online focus group. "The online population is not representative" of a larger population because of the self-selection of the participants (Sweets & Walkowski, 2000, ¶ 3). "In online research, it is harder to

screen out ‘bogus’ or unqualified respondents who would be obvious if they appeared in person” (Harrington, 2009, ¶17). The accessibility of online focus groups may be limited to individuals who are computer literate and have computer access. Age and socio-economic bias may occur because Baby Boomers and people from low socio-economic status, may be routinely omitted from participating in online focus groups. The technical limitations of the software used for online focus groups only allows the respondents a finite number of lines to type their answers (Sweets & Walkowski, 2000). In addition, or some software will not let the participants respond in real time. The number of participants may be an issue. The body language of the participants cannot be observed. The responses of the participants in the online focus group may lack depth. The researcher has to ensure that every participant has contributed his or her viewpoint, which will prevent the participant from accessing and reading the discussions but not posting any responses (lurking).

Appendix I shows content validity for the focus group instrument. I first matched the research questions with the items on the survey. Next, I matched the job satisfaction theories (e.g., motivational-hygiene, expectancy, and job choice) with both the items on the survey and the focus group questions were matched by the researcher to the research questions.

For this study, an online focus group was used to collect qualitative data. The researcher/moderator invited prescreened applicants, who met the specific qualifications (i.e., current educational administration students in the master’s degree program and graduates of The College of William and Mary) for this study. Most of these students had access to Facebook, a social network system, and were proficient in using the site.

Data Collection

This study used a cross-sectional strategy to collect data because the participants had completed various stages of educational administration programs. Since a mixed methodology was used for this study, both an online survey and a focus group collected data (Appendices L and P, respectively). The Principal Certification Survey, created by Winter, Rinehart, Keedy, and Bjork (2004), was used to collect empirical data (Appendix P). In addition, a focus group was conducted via Facebook to collect data. Students had to self-report about their perceptions regarding their perceived job satisfaction and their intentions to pursue school building level administrator positions. The researcher took responsibility for coding the data.

Quantitative Research

Since this survey was administered only once to each participant, Survey Monkey, an internet survey design and data collection service, was used to provide students with an accessible and convenient way to complete the survey. Although this study sought to build on current research concerning why some educational administrative students were resistant to becoming school administrators, steps were taken to control for threats to validity and reliability. Even though the survey used for this study had been administered previously, I implemented the changes recommended by the doctoral committee. The Likert scale used in the original survey was changed from 1–5 to 1–4. The directions, stems, and responses for each section were modified to eliminate any ambiguous language. The demographic section was expanded to include head of household, number of dependents, career switchers, total years of teaching experience, and current grade level of teaching.

In addition, a panel of experts, which consisted of two individuals who had doctoral degrees in education and one retired school principal, was convened to examine the modifications made to the survey. An online survey was used for this study, so the participants completed the survey at their convenience. This step was intended to maximize the number of participants who completed the survey. Sampling errors may have occurred. Since non-respondents may have impacted the external validity of the study, e-mails were sent to the participants as reminders to complete the electronic survey.

Qualitative Research

Trustworthiness occurs when the findings and representations are grounded in the data. Thus, the “trustworthiness of the data is tied directly to the trustworthiness of the person who collects and analyzes the data” (Patton, 2002, p. 570). It can be used to establish validity. Credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability are the four criteria Lincoln and Guba (1985) developed to evaluate the trustworthiness of qualitative research. “Credibility is the extent to which the data, data analysis, and conclusions are believable and trustworthy” (McMillan, 1996, p. 250). It depends on three inquiry elements: rigorous methods for conducting fieldwork, the credibility of the researcher, and philosophical belief in the value of qualitative inquiry (Patton, 2002). To ensure credibility, member checking, triangulation, and peer debriefer were conducted for the data collected from the focus group. Member checking was used in this study, so each participant in the focus group received a transcript of the online focus group’s comments to check for accuracy and get feedback. Triangulation occurs when validity can be checked by comparing data from multiple sources (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). Patton

(2002) stated, “A study can...be designed to cut across inquiry approaches and achieve triangulation by combining qualitative and quantitative methods” (p. 248).

A peer debriefer “serves as a consultant for the purpose of exploring those aspects of the methodology and data collection that may have been held implicit by the researcher due to prolonged engagement in the study” (Quenneville, 2007, p. 32). For this study, Mrs. Mary Spells, a faculty member at Hampton University, served as a peer debriefer. Credibility is used to establish internal validity in qualitative research. In qualitative research, internal validity “refers to the match between the researcher’s categories and interpretations and what is actually true” (McMillan, 1996, p. 251). The researcher was assisted with the data analysis by an individual who was knowledgeable about qualitative research.

The researcher was an instrument; I was a fifth year doctoral candidate in the Educational Policy, Planning, and Leadership’s General Education Administration K–12 Program at The College of William and Mary at the time of the data analysis. I had 15 years of teaching experience, which include teaching various types of classes: at-risk, mainstreamed, hearing impaired, and advanced English. I had completed EDUC 663 – The Principles of Educational Research, EDUC 664 – Qualitative Research Methods, and EDUC 665 – Intermediate Statistics in Education courses. Therefore, I had experience in conducting both qualitative and quantitative research studies and projects. In addition, I was knowledgeable about organizational and systems planning, logic models, and human resources. I held an administrative endorsement in both Virginia and Maryland.

It was my responsibility to ensure that everyone had the opportunity to voice their opinions. Therefore, no particular individual monopolized the conversation or responses

for the focus group's questions. By using Facebook to conduct an online focus group, I was able to monitor the participants as they posted their comments. The interview questions were posted on the group discussion wall of my Facebook page. Students posted their responses and responded to others' comments. Each participant in the focus group had the opportunity to express his or her opinions.

After consulting with the dissertation committee, the researcher added an alternative plan in case unforeseen complications arose from the online focus group. If the online focus group session did not yield sufficient data, a traditional focus group would have been conducted with the same participants using the same research questions. One traditional focus group session would have been held on campus. Their responses would have been tape recorded. This was disclosed in an introductory e-mail to potential participants.

Qualitative research has some limitations. Among these limitations are small samples make it difficult to generalize findings to larger groups. Also, data are subject to the researcher's interpretation. Although qualitative data is not measured numerically, it must be organized and analyzed in such a way that allows valid conclusions to be drawn.

Data Analysis

Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to collect and analyze the data. For quantitative data, descriptive statistics were collected and analyzed to answer selected research questions (Table 7). Measures of central tendency (means) and measures of variability (standard deviations) were used to compare and rank motivators' and inhibitors' influence on educational administration students' decisions whether to

become school leaders. In addition, independent samples t-tests were used, as needed, to analyze data.

For qualitative data, the focus group interview was conducted using Facebook, so a transcript was created from the participants' posts. A "thick description" was provided regarding the differences among educational administration students' intentions to pursue the principalship or the assistant principalship (Patton, 2002, p. 437). Categorization was the method of data analysis. It "organizes qualitative data obtained from interviews into definitive dimensions and categories" (Johnson, 2004, p. 58). For this study, the focus group's interview responses were color-coded, so themes would be identified.

"Transcribed interviews allow researchers to be confident of both accuracy of interview data and to facilitate independent analysis of the transcripts and discussions among the co-researchers" (Schweinle, Reisetter, & Stokes, 2009, p. 78). An independent researcher, Dr. Valiya Rose, who has experience in transcribing and coding qualitative data, and I coded the transcript. Axial coding, which requires categories to be systematically developed and related to subcategories in order to form more precise and complete explanations of the phenomena being examined, brought the data together in a coherent whole, link categories to subcategories. I electronically cut and pasted each participant's responses relative to the individual aspects into the second column.

Table 7

Research Questions with Variables and Data Analyses

Research Questions	Variables	Data Analysis Tools
<i>1. What are the differences between students who plan to pursue the principalship and those who do not?</i>	Demographics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Descriptive statistics
<i>2. What are the differences in perceived motivational factors regarding the principalship for earning educational administration certification between students who plan to pursue the principalship and those who do not?</i>	Motivating factors for earning principal certification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Descriptive Statistics • Focus Group Interview Question 2
<i>3. To what degree do educational administration students who plan to pursue the principalship and those students who have little or no intentions to seek that position differ in perceived barriers regarding the principalship?</i>	Barriers (inhibiting factors) to the Principalship	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Descriptive Statistics • Focus Group Interview Question 5a, b, c
<i>4. To what extent does Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory explain the differences in perceived job satisfaction of the principalship between educational administration students who plan to pursue a principalship and those who</i>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Descriptive statistics • Focus Group Interview Question 3

do not?

5. To what extent does Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory explain the differences in perceived barriers of the principalship between educational administration students who plan to pursue a principalship and those who do not?

- Descriptive Statistics
- Focus Group
- Interview Questions 4 and 5

Question 1: *What are the differences between students who plan to pursue the principalship and those who do not?*

The quantitative data collected from Section I, *Demographics*, of the survey was used to answer this question. By calculating descriptive statistics (i.e., means and standard deviations), the reasons that impact students' decisions to pursue school leadership were ranked to identify the characteristics and underlying reasons for seeking their administration certification.

Qualitative data also were collected from five focus group interview questions:

1. Why did you choose the EPPL's General Administration (K-12) Program at The College of William and Mary?
2. When did you receive your Virginia's Administration and Supervision PreK-12 endorsement?
3. If you have not received your endorsement, when do you plan to apply? (I gauged the interest of the participants in obtaining administrative endorsement), and by completing this program, you will likely meet the requirements necessary for an endorsement in Administration and Supervision PreK-12.)
4. Will you still seek this endorsement?

5. If you are interested in becoming a principal or assistant principal, when do you plan to start applying for principalship or assistant principalship?

Some of these students were not interested in pursuing jobs as principals or assistant principals, but they were still willing to qualify and obtain their administrative endorsements. These questions were analyzed to identify which reasons impacted the decisions of The College of William and Mary's educational administration students to obtain their administration and supervision endorsement, which was required for their pursuit of the principalship and the assistant principalship. The data would either support the descriptive statistics collected for this question or contradict it.

Question 2: What are the differences in perceived motivational factors regarding the principalship for earning educational administration certification between students who plan to pursue the principalship and those who do not?

Both quantitative and qualitative data were used to answer this question. The data collected from Section Two, *Reasons for Earning Principal Certification*, were descriptive statistics to rank the participants' reasons for earning their principal certifications. Qualitative data were collected to answer this question. The data was analyzed from question two, At this point in the educational administration program, describe your abilities to perform the job of principal or assistant principal:

- (a) What factors do you possess to be effective for this position? (b) If you had to choose one of these factors, which one would be the most helpful to your pursuit of becoming a principal or assistant principal? Why? Therefore, the researcher was able to determine if job satisfaction factors impact these students' pursuit of the principalship or the assistant principalship.

Question 3: *To what degree do educational administration students who plan to pursue the principalship and those students who have little or no intentions to seek that position differ in perceived barriers regarding the principalship?*

In order to collect quantitative data, descriptive statistics were used to answer this question. Descriptive statistics were run to establish means and standard deviations for the inhibitors (barriers) that prevent educational administration students from seeking school leadership jobs. For qualitative data, questions 3a-c were used to analyze the inhibitors for these students' decisions to pursue jobs as principals and assistant principals: (3a) What impact does your family life have on your pursuit of the principalship or the assistant principalship? (3b) What other factors deter you from pursuing the principalship or the assistant principalship? (3c) Can you be specific? Themes should emerge from this data.

Question 4: *To what extent does Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory explain the differences in perceived job satisfaction of the principalship between educational administration students who plan to pursue a principalship and those who do not?*

Section III, *Perceived Job Satisfaction for the Principalship/Assistant Principalship*, which consists of numbers 15 through 38, was used to quantitatively collect data. The descriptive statistics were collected/ analyzed and compared to Herzberg et al.'s motivating and inhibiting factors for this study. For qualitative data, the participants' responses to question four from the online focus group were analyzed to answer this question.

Question 5. To what extent does Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory explain the differences in perceived barriers of the principalship between educational administration students who plan to pursue a principalship and those who do not?

For quantitative data, the data from questions 39 and 59 from Section IV, *Barriers in the Pursuit of Principalship/Assistant Principalship Positions*, of the Principal Certification Survey were used to run descriptive statistics. In addition, the qualitative data from questions 5a-c of the focus group interview questions were used to answer this question: (5a) What are the perceived barriers that would impact your pursuit of the principalship or the assistant principalship? (5b) How likely would these perceived barriers prevent you from pursuing jobs as principals and assistant principals? (5c) What changes need to occur for you to pursue these jobs?

Ethical Safeguards and Considerations

Several precautions were taken to protect the participants in this study. The survey questionnaire used for this study was based on an existing survey that has been administered several times. The interview questions were reviewed and field tested to ensure the appropriateness of the question. No invasive questions or objectionable language were used. The survey was submitted to Internal Review Board (IRB) for the College of William and Mary's School of Education for approval. Another safeguard was the participants in this study had anonymity, which hopefully encouraged honest responses. Even though participants in the focus group did not see each other, steps were taken to ensure the confidentiality of the participants. Since the transcripts were also reviewed by an independent reviewer, the researcher replaced each participant's name

with a number. Therefore, the transcripts did not contain the participants' names. E-mails and consent forms used in this study were only viewed by the researcher.

Chapter 4: Results

Chapter four of this mixed methodology study presents the results of the data analyses addressing the research questions for this study. This section is arranged in several sections: response rate for the survey, demographics, and findings to research questions.

Response Rate for Survey

On October 08, 2010, the researcher had contacted 88 prospective participants, of which only 29 participated in this study. Thus, the participation rate for this study was 33% of The College of William and Mary's total student population (i.e., current students and graduates) in the Educational Leadership Program during 2005 – 2010. There could be several reasons for the low participation rate for the survey. The survey was only accessible in the summer. For some of the graduates of the program, who could have been potential participants, e-mail addresses were incorrect or no longer in service, so my attempts to reach them were unsuccessful. These individuals no longer used their school email accounts; and unfortunately, these were the only e-mail addresses available. Other potential participants may have chosen not to participate in this study. The survey's directions and stems may have been confusing for potential participants.

The Homogeneity of Respondents

Because of the small number of respondents for this study, a homogeneity of respondents was completed to determine if the study's participants were representative of the current students and graduates of The College of William and Mary's Educational Leadership Program. Several demographics, such as age, gender, ethnicity, and status

were used to compare the participants in this study to the current students and graduates in The College of William and Mary's Educational Leadership Program (Table 8).

In Table 8, *Homogeneity of Respondents*, the participants in this study were compared to the current students and graduates of the Educational Leadership Program at The College of William and Mary. Similarities existed between the two groups in several demographics, such as age, gender, ethnicity, and status. The ages of the participants in both groups were almost identical. The average (M) age of participants in this study was 37.3 years, while the mean age for students and graduates of The College of William and Mary was 37.7 (Table 8). Therefore, the ages of the participants in this study were similar to the ages of the current students and graduates of the program.

The number of women in this study (6 females out of 7 participants in the online focus group; 23 females out of the 29 participants in the survey) was smaller than the 64 women in The College of William and Mary's Educational Leadership Program (Table 8). However, when using percentages, 79.3% of the participants in the survey for this study were female, which was only slightly higher than the percentage of women who were current students or graduates of the Educational Leadership Program (73%).

At first, it appeared that this study had a lower percentage of minority participants than The College of William & Mary's Educational Leadership Program, which for the last four years, averaged about 7 African American students out of the 49 students enrolled in the program (SCHEV, 2009). However, the data from The School of Education (2010) differed from the SCHEV (2009) Report. Out of the 88 current students and graduates of The College of William and Mary's Educational Leadership Program, the majority of current students and graduates were Caucasian (86%, or 76 people).

African Americans composed 12.5%, which was 11 current students and graduates (School of Education, 2010). For the 2010 Fall semester, four African American students were in the program, which was three students less than the number reported to SCHEV (2009) (School of Education, 2010). Therefore, the number of minority participants in this study was comparable to the minority students and graduates of the Educational Leadership Program (Table 8). Although The College of William and Mary's Educational Leadership Program had a larger pool of current students and graduates, its minority population (14%) was not anymore diverse than this study's minority population (14%). The racial minorities in this study were representative of the minorities in the Educational Leadership Program.

Table 8

Homogeneity of Respondents

Current Students/ Graduates of The William and Mary's Educational Leadership Program					
Total Respondents			Total Invited		
Demographics	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	
Age					
Current	13	35.4	27	34.7	
Graduates	14	38.2	61	39.0	
Undeclared	2	42.6	0	00.0	
Total	29	37.3	88	37.7	

	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
Ethnicity				
Caucasian				
Current	15	51.7	22	25.0
Graduates	10	34.5	54	61.0
Total	25	86.2	76	86.0
African American				
Current	0	0.0	4	4.5
Graduate	1	3.4	7	8.0
Undeclared	1	3.4	0	00.0
Total	2	6.8	11	12.5
Asian				
Current	0	00.0	1	1.1
Graduate	0	00.0	0	0.0
Total	0	00.0	1	1.1
Mixed Ethnicity				
Current	0	0.0	0	00.0
Graduate	2	6.8	0	00.0
Total	2	6.8	0	00.0
Gender				
Female				
Current	16	55.2	17	19.3
Graduate	6	20.7	47	53.4
Undeclared	1	3.4	0	00.0
Total	23	79.3	64	72.7

Male				
Current	1	3.4	10	11.4
Graduate	5	17.2	14	15.9
Undeclared	1	3.4	0	00.0
Total	6	20.7	24	27.3
Total	29	100.0	88	100.0

H₀ – The gender of the participants in this study showed no differences from the gender of the program’s participants.

H₁ – The gender of the participants in this study differed from the participants in the program.

A chi-square test was calculated using the gender of the study’s population and those not in the study’s population; no statistical significance existed between gender of the two populations, $\chi^2(1, N = 117) = .4, p < .05$ (Table 9). The null hypothesis was accepted because no significant differences existed between the two groups regarding their gender. From the results, the gender of the study’s participants was representative of the gender of the program’s population.

Table 9

Chi-square test for Gender of the Sample/Non-sample Populations

	Sample	Non-Sample	Total
Female	23 (21.6)	64 (65.4)	87
Male	6 (7.4)	24 (22.5)	30
Total	29	88	117

H_0 –The ethnicity of the study’s participants was not different from the non-sample’s population.

H_1 – The ethnicity of the study’s participants differed from the non-sample’s population.

A chi-square test for ethnicity was run, and the $X^2 (2, N = 117) = .00, p < .05$. was not statistical significance (Table 10). The ethnicity of the study’s participants did not differ from the program’s population.

Table 10

Chi-square for Ethnicity of the Sample Population and the Non-Sample Population

Ethnicity	Sample	Non-Sample	Total
Caucasian	25 (25)	76 (76)	101
Non-Caucasian	4 (4)	12 (12)	16
Total	29	88	117

H_0 – The status of the participants in this study did not differ from the status of the non-sample population.

H_1 – The status of the participants in this study differed from the non-sample population.

Since two participants did not identify their current status in the program, the term “undeclared” was used to describe their status. A chi-square test was run on the status (i.e., current students and graduates) of the study’s participants and the non-sample population, which included the current students and graduates of the Educational Leadership Program. The $\chi^2 (2, N = 106) = 4.24, p < .05$ level, was not statistically significant, so the H_0 was accepted (Table 11). The status of the study’s participants did not differ significantly from the status of the non-sample’s population.

Table 11

Chi-Square Test for the Status of the Sample/ Non-sample Populations

	Sample Population	Non-Sample’s Population	Total
Current	12 (10.7)	27 (32.4)	39
Graduates	15 (20.5)	61 (62.3)	75
Undeclared	2 (.55)	0 (1.7)	2
Total	29	88	106

Demographics

The participants in this study provided demographic data for analysis. Twenty-three of the participants were female (80%), while six of the participants were male in this study (20%). The study's participants reported their marital status. Most of the participants were married ($N = 24$, 83%). Three participants were single (10%). Two participants were divorced or widowed (7%). The number of dependents for the participants in this study varied. Nine participants had no dependents (31%). Five participants had one dependent (17%). Eight participants had two dependents (28%). Three participants had three dependents (10%). Four participants had four or more dependents (14%). The study's participants averaged 2.64 dependents ($SD = 1.41$) (Table 12). Twelve participants in this study reported they were the primary wage earners for their households (41%). Seventeen participants were not the primary wage earners for their households (59%). Thirteen participants obtained their educational administrative certification (45%), while 16 did not (55%). Although twenty-nine participants in the survey identified their current teaching or administrative assignments, only 18 participants declared their intentions to pursue the principalship. Eleven of the participants in the survey already worked as assistant principals, principals, or central office personnel, so they could have skipped the question.

Table 12

Descriptive Data for the Demographics of the Study's Participants

	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>Variance</i>
Teaching experience: years taught including the current year	29	12.00	5.06	25.63
If you are a career switcher how long were you working in another field outside of education?	5	9.60	3.65	13.30
Number of dependents	25	2.64	1.41	2.00

p < .05 level

The ethnicity of the participants in this study showed little diversity (Table 8). Most of the participants were Caucasian (86%). Two participants identified themselves as belonging to a mixed ethnicity (7%). Two African American students participated in this survey (7%).

The study's participants had varied teaching experiences. One participant in this study had no teaching experience (3%). Another participant had been teaching for three years (3%). Three participants had five years of teaching experience (10%). Two participants had six years of teaching experience (7%). Three participants in this study had been teaching for seven years (10%). One participant had nine years of teaching experience (3%). Three participants had ten years of teaching experience (10%). Three of the participants had twelve years of teaching experience (10%). One participant had thirteen years of teaching experience (3%). Three participants had been teaching for fourteen years (10%). Three participants had fifteen years of teaching experience (10%). One participant had sixteen years of teaching experience (3%). Two participants in this study had seventeen years of teaching experience (7%). Two participants had nineteen

years of teaching experience (7%). The M for the teaching experiences of the participants was 12 years ($SD = 5.06$) (Table 12).

The data revealed that five career switchers completed the survey. Their work experience outside of the educational field varied ($M = 9.60$; $SD = 3.65$) (Table 12). One of the participants worked for five years in another field before entering education. One participant worked outside the educational field for eight years. Two participants reported that they worked for ten years outside of the field of education. One participant had fifteen years of work experience outside of the educational field.

The participants in this study taught on various grade levels (Table 13). The largest group of participants taught on the elementary level ($n = 9$, 31%). The smallest group was comprised of one participant who worked outside the field of education ($n = 1$, 3%).

Table 13

Frequency of the Grade Level Currently Teaching

Grade Level Taught	N	%	$cum\%$
Elementary School	9	31.0	31.0
Middle School	6	21.0	52.0
High School	3	10.0	62.0
Administration/Central Office	8	28.0	90.0
Unemployed	2	7.0	97.0
Employed outside of the educational field	1	3.0	100.0

The participants in this study were in various stages of the Educational Leadership

Program at The College of William and Mary (Table 14). Most of the participants in this survey had already graduated from the program ($n = 14$). Two categories, less than 12 credit hours and 13 – 24 credit hours, only had two participants in their groups.

Table 14

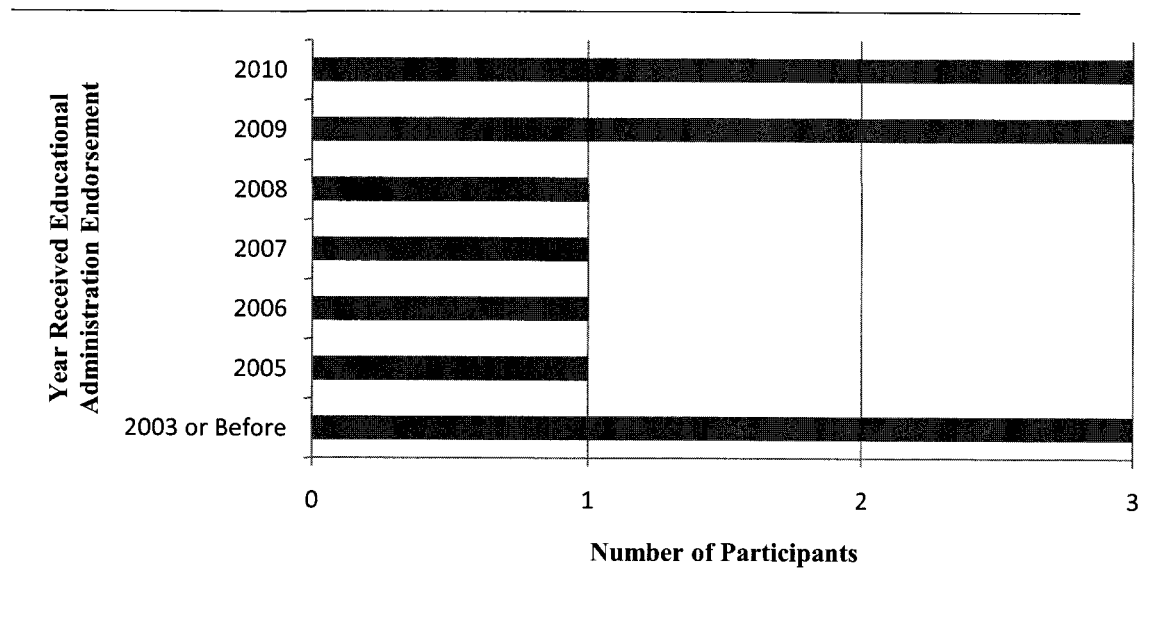
Frequency of Completed Hours by the Participants in the Survey

Credit Hours Completed	N	%	cum%of
Completed the program (Graduates)	17	58.6	58.6
25–36 credit hours	8	27.6	86.2
13–24 credit hours	2	6.9	93.1
Less than 12 credit hours	2	6.9	100.0

About 45% of the participants in this study had obtained their administrative certification (Figure 3). Thirteen participants had their administrative certification (45%), which was less than the 16 participants who did not (55%). Of the 16 participants who did not have their administrative certification, four had already applied for their administrative certification.

Figure 3.

Year Educational Administration Endorsement Received



Online Focus Group

The online focus group for this study was comprised of 6 females and 1 male. Six of the participants in the study were graduates of the M.Ed. in Educational Leadership Program, while one of the participants was a current student in the program. One of the participants was already a middle school principal. Another participant held a central office position. The other five participants were currently classroom teachers. Therefore, the online focus group was representative of the survey respondents in terms of gender and amount of program completed.

Findings to Research Questions

1. What are the differences between students who plan to pursue the principalship and those who do not?

H_0 – The means for the demographics and career aspirations of the participants who want to pursue the principalship will not differ from the mean of the participants who do not.

H_1 – The means for the demographics and career aspirations of the participants who want to pursue the principalship differed from the means of the participants who did not.

Online Survey

The null hypothesis was rejected because “gender” and “Do you hold an administrative endorsement?” were statistically significant between the two groups. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis was accepted. The participants who planned to pursue the principalship/assistant principalship differed from those who did not regarding these two demographic (Tables 15, 16, and 17).

By using an independent samples t-test, a significant difference was found between gender and the participants’ perceived career aspirations towards the principalship and assistant principalship. The demographic, *gender*, showed a statistical difference between the two groups and their intentions to pursue the principalship, $t(14) = 6.10$, $p < .01$ (Table 15). The mean scores of the female participants ($M = 2.31$; $SD = 1.18$) indicated that they were less likely to pursue these jobs than their male counterparts ($M = 4.00$; $SD = .00$). All of the males in this survey wanted to pursue jobs as school building-level administrators. Because of the low number of male participants, their perceived job intention for the principalship/assistant principalship may have been overstated. If there would have been more male participants in this study, their perceived job intention level for the pursuit of the principalship/assistant principalship could have been lower.

Table 15

t-test Results for Gender of the Study Population

	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i> (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Upper	Lower
Equal variances assumed	6.22	.02	2.66	16	.02	1.73	.65	.35	3.11
Equal variances not assumed			6.10	14	.00	1.73	.28	1.12	2.34

There was a statistically significant difference among the participants who planned to pursue jobs as school building-level administrators and those who did not, when they responded to the variable, “Do you hold an administrative endorsement?” ($t(8) = 4.00, p < .01$) (Table 16). Students who held their administrative certification were more receptive towards pursuing jobs as principals and assistant principalships ($M = 2.00; SD = .00$) than the students who had not received their certification ($M = 1.17; SD = .41$).

Table 16

t-test Results for Do You Currently Hold An Administrative Endorsement?

		Levine's Test for Homogeneity		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i> (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Differ ence	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>						Upper	Lower
Do you currently hold an administration endorsement?	Equal variances assumed	4.00	.08	4.00	8	.00	.83	.21	.35	1.31
	Equal variances not assumed			5.00	5	.00	.83	.17	.40	1.26

In Section V of the survey, *Career Aspirations*, nine participants reported they were already in a school administrative position (47.4%). There were 4 participants that reported they were school administrators, while 14 participants reported they were not school principals or assistant principals.

Online Focus Group

Theme One: Characteristics of Effective Principals

The *online* focus group for this study was comprised of 6 females and 1 male. Six of the participants in the study were graduates of the M.Ed. in Educational Leadership Program, while one of the participants was a current student in the program. One of the participants was already a middle school principal. Another participant held a central office position. The other five of the participants were classroom teachers. The participants identified several factors they believed they possessed to be effective as principals and assistant principals. *Communication skills, positive attitude, vision, collegiality, empathy, moral and ethics, and instructional leadership* were factors cited by the group (Table 17). Yet, when asked to choose the factor that was the most helpful in their pursuit of becoming a principal or assistant principal, most participants reported *instructional leadership* as the most important factor. One participant noted, “My goal as an administrator is to be an instructional leader and in order to be credible, to help teachers improve, and to supervise your staff, you have to be knowledgeable in instruction.” Two other participants shared this view. These participants reported they plan to use their positions as assistant principals and principals to learn and refine their skills, so they could eventually move up to central office administrative positions. Two

participants cited effective communication skills as their strengths. The participant who used e-mail stated *vision* was the most important goal because “there needs to be a goal; there needs to be a logical reason as to why people are doing what you are asking them to do; vision entails so many things.”

Theme Two: Educational Administration Students’ Perceptions About the Jobs of Principals/Assistant Principals

When the participants were asked to describe their current abilities to perform the job of principal or assistant principal at this time, their responses varied (Table 17). While three of the participants felt confident about their abilities to perform the duties as school principals or assistant principals, two of the participants expressed that they wanted more field-based opportunities to build up their confidence levels. One participant noted that she did not feel ready at this particular moment to be a school building-level administrator. However, she had not yet completed the program.

Theme Three: Preference for the Principalship/Assistant Principalship

The participants in the online focus group expressed a preference between a principalship and an assistant principalship (Table 17). Three participants aspired to become principals. Two wanted to become assistant principals. The participants also had preferences concerning the school level. One participant preferred to be a school level building administrator at the elementary-school level, while three participants preferred to be school principals and assistant principals at the secondary level. Two participants wanted to be administrators at the middle-school level, and one participant wanted to work at the high-school level as a building-level administrator. One of the participants was already a middle-school principal. Three participants skipped this question. The

researcher noted that the two participants, who were not currently interested in pursuing the principalship, were in this group.

Outlier

One participant reported having no interest in becoming a school administrator. This participant had no immediate or long term plan to pursue the principalship. The participant responded, "I am not interested in being a principal or assistant principal."

Table 17

Responses for Online Focus Groups- Career Aspirations

<i>Themes</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Reasons</i>
Effective Principal Characteristics	7	100	As a group, the participants named effective communication skills, moral and ethics. R2 listed positive attitude, vision, collegiality, empathy for students in special education/low-income and desperate situations, sense of humor, and instructional leadership.
Educational Administration Students' Perceptions About the Jobs of Principals/Assistant Principals	6	86	Three participants were confident in their leadership abilities. Two participants wanted more field-based opportunities to build up their confidence levels. One participant did not feel ready to be a school building-level administrator.
Preference for the Principalship/Assistant Principalship	3	43	Two participants wanted to become assistant principals at the middle school level. One participant wanted to be a high school administrators.

2. What are the differences in perceived motivational factors regarding the principalship for earning educational administration certification between students who plan to pursue the principalship and those who do not?

H_0 —There are no differences in perceived motivational factors for earning educational administration certification between the participants who planned to pursue the principalship and those participants who do not.

H_1 – The participants who planned to pursue the principalship were more receptive towards the perceived motivational factors for earning educational administration certification than the participants who do.

Online Survey

In Section Two of the survey, *Reasons for Earning Principal Certification*, seven factors were assessed by the participants using a 4-point Likert scale, which consisted of strongly disagree, disagree, agree, and strongly agree. The data showed that no significant differences existed in the ratings of the perceived reasons for earning educational administration certification for the two groups. When independent sample for t-tests were run, none of these reasons were statistically significant ($p < .05$) (Table 18). Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted because the participants who planned to pursue the principalship and those who did not rated the reasons for earning their administrative certification similarly. No significant differences existed between the means of the two groups.

Table 18

t-test Results for the factors of Section II- Reasons for Earning Educational Administration

Certification- Condensed Version

		<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>
Become qualified to be an assistant principal and principal	Equal variances assumed	2.85	.11	1.3	19	.23
	Equal variances not assumed			1.9	16.5	.08
Increase my salary	Equal variances assumed	.75	.40	.82	19	.42
	Equal variances not assumed			1.12	13.41	.28
Expand my career options	Equal variances assumed	.29	.60	.75	19	.462
	Equal variances not assumed			.91	9.84	.383
Pursue professional development	Equal variances assumed	.01	.95	-1.53	19	.14
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.88	10.18	.09
Assume a greater leadership role in my district	Equal variances assumed	1.86	.19	.94	19	.36
	Equal variances not assumed			1.27	12.89	.23
Improve my job status	Equal variances assumed	.07	.80	.71	19	.49
	Equal variances not assumed			.87	10.03	.41
Make innovations in education	Equal variances assumed	1.67	.21	-.78	19	.45
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.05	12.93	.31

Online Focus Group

The participants were asked if they were interested in becoming a principal or assistant principal, and when did they plan to start applying for principal or assistant principal positions. The theme, *career options*, emerged from the data (Table 19). Five of the participants expressed their desires to become school building-level administrators. In the next 2 to 5 years, four participants wanted to be school administrators. Four the participants had already obtained Virginia's Administration and Supervision PreK–12 endorsement; one participant was expecting to take the SLLA in January, 2011. One participant had no current plans to obtain administrative certification. Another participant did not want to be a principal.

Table 19

Results for the Online Focus Group's Reasons for Earning Their Administrative

Certification

<i>Themes</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Reasons</i>
Career options	5	71.4	By obtaining their administrative endorsements, they would have more career options. These participants wanted to become school principals and assistant principals.

3. *To what degree do educational administration students who plan to pursue the principalship and those students who have little or no intentions to seek that position differ in perceived barriers regarding the principalship?*

H_0 – There was no differences between the groups' mean scores regarding their perceived barriers to the principalship.

H_1 – A significant difference exists between the participants who wanted to pursue the principalship and those who did not.

Online Survey

The null hypothesis was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was accepted. Out of the 21 perceived barriers, two perceived barriers were statistically significant: “I do not want to control the school budget” and “The hours per day I work increases” (Tables 20; Appendix R). Independent samples t-tests were conducted and the data revealed statistical differences between the participants who planned to pursue the principalship and those who had little or no interest in becoming school administrators regarding their views of the perceived barriers to the principalship. The variable, “I do not want to control the school budget” was statistically significant between the participants who planned to pursue the principalship ($M=1.25$; $SD = .50$) and those who did not ($M = 2.83$; $SD = 1.17$), $t(8) = -2.52$, $p = .04$. “The hours per day I work increases” was statistically significant, $t(7) = 4.97$, $p = .02$ at the $p < .05$ level (Table 20; Appendix R). There was a significant difference in the scores for “The hours per day I work increases” by the participants who planned to pursue jobs as principals and assistant principalships ($M=1.50$; $SD = .58$) and those who did not ($M = 3.00$; $SD = .71$). The mean scores for the participants who did not want to pursue the principalship were higher than the mean scores of the participants who did want to become principals and assistant principals. The participants who did not want to become school principals or assistant principals actually considered this perceived barrier as an obstacle for them to pursue these jobs, while the participants who wanted these jobs were undeterred by “The hours per day I work increases.”

Table 20

t-test Results for Section IV- Perceived Barriers in the Pursuit of the

Principal/ Assistant Principal Position (Condensed Version)

		95% Confidence								
		<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	<i>Mean Difference</i>	<i>Std. Error Difference</i>	<i>Interval of the Difference</i>	
									<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>
The hours per day I work increase	Equal variances assumed	.13	.73	-3.42	7	.01	-1.50	.44	-2.54	-.46
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.50	6.98	.01	-1.50	.43	-2.51	-.49
I do not want to control the school budget	Equal variances assumed	2.22	.17	-2.52	8	.04	-1.58	.63	-3.03	-.13
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.94	7.22	.02	-1.58	.54	-2.85	-.32

Online Focus Group

In the online focus group, the two groups viewed several factors differently. Five of the online focus group participants who were interested in pursuing the principalship/ assistant principalship did not view having to serve as an assistant principal first as a perceived barrier to the principalship or assistant principalship. They viewed this position as a learning opportunity, in which they could train and develop their instructional leadership skills.

Outliers

Those participants who were not interested in becoming principals were more likely to cite multiple factors to justify their positions. Two themes were prevalent from the focus group participants' responses as barriers, *family responsibilities* and *time*

commitments (Table 21). Two of the participants who were not currently interested in becoming administrators identified *family responsibilities* as a major deterrent in their pursuit of the principalship or assistant principalship. They gave responses such as “I have small children” and “I have family obligations.” In addition, these individuals cited *time commitment* as another deterrent that would prevent them from pursuing jobs as school building-level administrators. They made various comments: “I cannot devote the time to the job”; “I do not want to be deprived of time my children”; “I do not want to give up more of my time.” But, the participants who were interested in pursuing the principalship in the focus group accepted most of the factors (barriers) as part of the job. They believed that these factors “came with the job” and were not going to be hindered by them. Their goals were to become school building level administrators.

Table 21

<i>Results for the Online Focus Group’s Perceived Barriers to the Principalship</i>			
<i>Theme</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Reasons</i>
Family responsibilities	2	28.6	R4: “I have small children.” R6: “I have family obligations.”
Time commitment	1	14.3	R4: “I cannot devote the time to the job. I do not want to be deprived of time away from my children. I do not want to give up more of my time.”

4. *To what extent does Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory explain the differences in perceived job satisfaction of the principalship between educational administration students who plan to pursue a principalship and those who do not?*

H_0 – Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory did not influence the perceived job satisfaction of the educational administration students who plan to pursue a principalship and the perceived job satisfaction of those who did not.

H_1 – Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory influenced the perceived job satisfaction of the participants who planned to pursue the principalship more than those who did not.

Online Survey

The null hypothesis was rejected because two variables, “receive a pay increase” and “work with a mentor”, were statistically significant. Thus, differences existed in the participants’ ratings regarding their perceived job satisfaction.

According to Herzberg et al. (1959), motivated workers tend to work harder and more hours. Motivators that are associated with a job satisfy candidates and meet their psychological needs to achieve and experience professional growth (Herzberg, 1967). The participants in this study rated variables that had been influenced by Herzberg’s et al. (1959) motivation-hygiene theory. In Section III, *Perceived Job Satisfaction for the Principalship/Assistant Principalship*, the participants responded to questions regarding their perceived job satisfaction as school building level administrators, principals or assistant principals (Appendices S). The participants used a 4-point Likert scale consisting of high dissatisfied, dissatisfied, satisfied, and highly satisfied to respond to the motivators in this section. Twenty-three participants answered these questions.

Two variables were statistically significant using independent samples t-tests: “receive a pay increase” and “work with a mentor” (Table 22). There was a significant difference for the variable “receive a pay increase” in the scores for the participant who planned to pursue the principalship ($M=2.50$, $SD = .58$) and those who did not ($M=3.66$;

$SD = .52$); $t(8) = -3.35, p = .01$ (Table 25). The participants who did not want to pursue the principalship rated “receive a pay increase” much higher than the participants who wanted to become principals and assistant principals. This may have occurred because the participants who were not interested in the principalship/assistant principalship were concerned about their own salaries, which influenced how they rated this variable in this study. The participants who wanted to pursue jobs as principals and assistant principals were less concerned about increasing their pay than those who did not.

An independent samples test was conducted to compare the variable “work with a mentor” with the participants who planned to pursue the principalship and those who did not. There was a significant in the scores for the participants who wanted to pursue the principalship ($M = 3.00, SD = .00$) and those who did not ($M = 3.67, SD = .52$); $t(5) = 3.16, p = .03$. The participants who did not want to become school building-level administrators rated “work with a mentor” higher than those who wanted to pursue the principalship.

Table 22

t-test Results for the Perceived Job Satisfaction for the Participants Who Want to Pursue the Principalship and Those Who Did Not

		Levene's		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		<i>F</i>	Sig.						Lower	Upper
Receive a pay increase	Equal variances assumed	.40	.55	-3.35	8	.01	-1.17	.35	-1.97	-.36
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.26	6	.02	-1.17	.36	-2.04	-.29
Work with a mentor	Equal variances assumed	25.60	.00	-2.53	8	.04	-.67	.26	-1.27	-.06
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.16	5	.03	-.67	.21	-1.21	-.13

Online Focus Group

Theme One: Perceived Job Satisfaction

Several themes emerged from the analysis of the data regarding perceived job satisfaction for the online focus group (Table 23). Most of the participants viewed the principalship/assistant principalship as a promotion or “career advancement” for classroom teachers. Five of the seven online focus group participants expressed that they wanted to “make a difference” in students’ lives. They gave similar responses. These participants believed that they could positively influence students, so the students would

“develop into productive citizens, prepare students for the future, and make a difference.”

Three participants reported “instructional leadership” as an important factor in improving teacher quality and student achievement. One participant noted, “My goal as an administrator is to be an instructional leader and in order to be credible, to help teachers improve, and to supervise your staff, you have to be knowledgeable in instruction.” Two other participants shared this view. These participants reported they plan to use their positions as assistant principals and principals to learn and refine their skills, so they could eventually move up to central office administrative positions.

Table 23

Perceived Job Satisfaction for the Participants in the Online Focus Group

Theme of Responses	Number (N =)	Response (%)	Examples of Reasons
1. Career Advancement	6	100	R1: “I am ready for a change.” R2, R3, R4, and R5: They considered becoming a principal or an assistant principal as a “promotion.” R7: “This is a stepping stone to a new job.”
2. Making a difference in students’ lives	5	71	R1, R3, and R5: “I want to make a difference.” R2: “I want to prepare students for the future.” R7: “I want to produce productive citizens.”
3. Helping teachers maximize learning in their classrooms (Instructional Leadership)	3	43	R1, R2, and R7: “I want to help teachers.” R2: “I want to supervise your staff, you have to be knowledgeable in instruction.”

4. Pay raise	2	29	R1: "Principals and assistant principals are underpaid, but they make more than teachers ." R4: "I would receive a pay raise."
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Outlier

Herzberg (1968) found that "workers are not primarily motivated by money and other tangible benefits, but they are motivated by achieving something in their jobs, being responsible for their job tasks and being able to work with minimal supervision" (p. 57). However, two participants reported they would get a pay raise by becoming school building level administrators (Table 23). One participant stated, "Principals and assistant principals are underpaid, but they make more than teachers." Another participant reported, "I would receive a pay raise." The other five participants made no reference to seeking the principalship/assistant principalship to increase their pay.

5. To what extent does Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory explain the differences in perceived barriers of the principalship between educational administration students who plan to pursue a principalship and those who do not?

H_0 – There was no differences in the mean levels between the participants who planned to pursue the principalships.

H_1 – The mean levels of the participants who planned to pursue the principalship for the perceived barriers to the principalship differed from the mean levels of those who did not.

Online Survey

The null hypothesis was accepted. There was no differences in the mean levels between the participants who planned to pursue the principalships. Two variables, "I do

not want to control the school budget” and “The hours per day I work increases”, were statistically significant between the two groups.

According to Herzberg et al., workers are motivated by the actual job duties they perform, which leads to their job satisfaction. However, the data collected from this study contradicted this view. The variable “I do not want to control the school budget” was statistically significant”, $t(8) = -2.52, p < .04$. The participants who planned to pursue the principalship ($M=1.25; SD = .50$) rated this variable lower than those who did not ($M = 2.83; SD = 1.17$) (Appendix R). Thus, controlling the school budget was more of a deterrent to the principalship for those individuals who wanted to become school principals and assistant principals. In addition, “The hours per day I work increases” was statistically significant, $t(7)= 4.97, p < .02$ at the $p < .05$ level. The participants who planned to pursue jobs as principals and assistant principalships perceived “The hours per day I work increases,” as a barrier ($M=1.50; SD = .58$), while those participants who did not want to become school building administrators did not perceive this variable as a barrier ($M = 3.00; SD = .71$) (Appendix R).

Online Focus Group

Outliers

Two participants (29%) in the online focus group who were less inclined to pursue the principalship or assistant principalship (See Table 24). One of these participants reported she had no interest in pursuing the principalship or the assistant principalship for now. “Now was not the right time for me to pursue a job as a principal or an assistant principal,” the participant stated. When asked to elaborate on her answer, the participant expressed concern about the current volatility of the U.S. economy and its

effect on the school systems as a deterrent for pursuing assistant principal or principal jobs. This participant cited “satisfied in current position” and “lack of tenure” as deterrents to the principalship and assistant principalship. The participant stated she felt comfortable in her current teaching position and worried about forfeiting her tenure to go into the principalship or assistant principalship.

Another respondent also reported being satisfied with her current position. Her family life directly impacted her decision not to pursue the principalship or the assistant principalship. She stated, “I have small children.” Her children were young and being a principal or assistant principal would deprive her of time with her kids. Herzberg et al. (1959) findings that family can have a negative impact on a worker’s job performance. In this case, the participant’s family has impacted her decision not to pursue a job as a principal or assistant principal.

Table 24

Results for Online Focus Group’s Responses to the Perceived Barriers to the

<i>Principalship</i>			
<i>Themes</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Reasons</i>
Complacency	1	14.3	R6: “Now was not the right time for me to pursue a job as a principal or an assistant principal.” “I am satisfied in current position.” “I am concerned with the lack of tenure.”
Balance Work and Family	1	14.3	R4: “I have small children”

Since these participants would likely meet the requirements necessary for an endorsement in Administration and Supervision PreK–12, how likely would they be to seek this endorsement? While one of the participants said she probably would apply for an administrative endorsement in Virginia, the other participant was unsure when or if she would apply for her endorsement.

Summary

The study's participants in the online survey ($N = 29$) were compared to The College of William and Mary's 88 Educational Leadership student population (current & graduates). Because of the study's small sample size, a homogeneity of respondents and chi-square tests were performed to ensure that these participants were representative of the students in the Educational Leadership Program at The College of William and Mary. The study's participants were representative of the current students and graduates of The College of William and Mary's Educational Leadership Program.

An analysis of the data for this study revealed that several variables were statistically significant. The data from independent samples t-tests showed that differences existed between the participants who planned to pursue the principalship/assistant principalship and those who did not. The means for the two groups differed in several demographic variables: "gender" and "Do you hold an administrative certification?" were statistically significant. In addition, one variable, "I am already a principal or assistant principal", of the *career aspirations* section was statistically significant. Out of the five research questions, the null hypothesis was only accepted for the second research question, which examined the participants' reasons for pursuing the principalship. The views of the participants who wanted to pursue jobs as principals and

assistant principals regarding the reasons for earning educational administration endorsements did not significantly differ from those participants who were not interested in pursuing the principalship/assistant principalship. However, the other research questions (i.e., 1, 3, 4, and 5) had some statistical significant differences between the two groups; the alternatives hypotheses were accepted for these questions.

In the online focus group, 5 out of the 7 participants expressed an interest in pursuing the principalship. These individuals viewed pursuing the principalship/assistant principalship positively. They believed that effective school building-level administrators embrace their roles as instructional leaders. Four of the online focus group participants were confident in their perceived abilities to perform these jobs. In the next few years, three planned to pursue jobs as school principals and assistant principals. However, one participant was not ready to pursue the principalship at this time, but this individual was willing to think about pursuing this job in the future. Another participant expressed no interest in becoming a principal or assistant principal.

Chapter 5: Findings

The purpose of this study was to examine the factors that can motivate and impede educational leadership students' intentions to pursue school building-level administrative jobs and to develop a better understanding of why some of these students do not seek principalships or assistant principalships. This chapter includes a review of the study's population, conceptual framework, and a synthesis of the data collected from the literature. In addition, the implications, limitations, and recommendations for further study are also discussed.

The population for this study ($N = 7$ for the online focus group; $N = 29$ for the survey) consisted of current students and graduates of The College of William and answer: (1) What are the differences in reported reasons between students who plan to pursue the principalship and those who do not? (2) What are the differences in perceived motivational factors regarding the principalship for earning educational administration certification between students who plan to pursue the principalship and those who do not? (3) To what degree do educational administration students who plan to pursue the principalship and those students who have little or no intentions to seek that position differ in perceived barriers regarding the principalship? (4) To what extent does Herzberg et al.'s motivation-hygiene theory explain the differences in perceived job satisfaction of the principalship between educational administration students who plan to pursue a principalship and those who do not? (5) To what extent does Herzberg et al.'s motivation-hygiene theory explain the differences in perceived barriers of the principalship between educational administration students who plan to pursue a principalship and those who do not?

“Teachers formulate their opinions about the principalship from beliefs they observe about the role rather than from indirect and direct leadership experiences” (Dituri, 2004, p. 147). Educational administration students, who are mostly teachers, have formed their attitudes regarding the principalship through their beliefs and values they are exposed to and associate with the role. Therefore, their perceptions about factors associated with the principalship are negative or positive (Dituri, 2004).

Summary of Results

Some of the quantitative data collected for this study contradicted the qualitative data. The data from the survey revealed that less than half of the participants did not want to be school building-level administrators. Almost 60% of the survey’s participants had yet to obtain their administrative endorsement, so they could begin interviewing for jobs as principals and/or assistant principals.

1. What are the differences between students who plan to pursue the principalship and those who do not?

Quantitative Results

The null hypothesis was rejected because some significance did exist between the two groups, the participants who plan to pursue the principalship and those who do not. The means for the demographics and career aspirations of the participants who want to pursue the principalship differed from the means of the participants who did not. Because of the small sample size, the sample population was compared to the program population by using a homogeneity of respondents. The means of two groups’ ages were almost identical. For this study, the mean ages of the participants were 37.3, while the mean ages for the population in the program were 37.7. Chi-square tests were used to determine that

the two groups' gender, ethnicity, and status were similar. The null hypotheses were accepted because the chi-square results were not significant. Thus, the participants in this study mirrored the population (i.e., current students and graduates) of the Educational Leadership Program.

Two demographic variables, "gender" and "Do you hold an administrative endorsement?", and one *career aspiration*, "I am already a principal or assistant principal", showed statistical significances among those individuals who planned to pursue the principalship and those who did not. "Gender" had statistical significance ($t(14) = 6.10, p < .01$). The male participants ($M = 4.00; SD = .00$) were rated their intention to pursue the principalship/ assistant principalship higher than their female counterparts ($M = 2.31; SD = 1.17$). When the participants were responded to "Do you hold an educational administrative endorsement?", this variable was significant between the two groups, $t(8) = 4.00, p < .01$. The participants who wanted to become principals and assistant principals ($M = 2.00, SD = .00$) were more likely to have already obtained their certification than those who were not interested in pursuing these jobs ($M = 1.17; SD = .41$). In addition, the participants' means differed regarding "How likely are you to interview for the job?" $F(3,14) = 5.40, p < .01$. The participants who identified themselves as highly unlikely to pursue the principalship ($M = 1.00, SD = .00$) rated this variable lower than the participants who identified themselves as unlikely to pursue the principalship ($M = 3.17; SD = 1.17$).

Qualitative Results

Seven participants took part in the online focus group. Three themes emerged from the data collected from these participants: *the characteristics of effective principals*;

the perceptions about the jobs of principals/assistant principals; preference for the principalship/assistant principalship. They cited, “communication skills, moral and ethics, empathy towards others, collegiality, and recognizing diversity student population” (i.e., special education and socio-economic status, SES) as effective principal characteristics. Their perceptions about the principalship/assistant principalship varied. Three participants were confident in their leadership skills. Two participants wanted more practice before they applied to become school administrators. One participant was felt unprepared to seek the principalship. Three participants expressed their desire to become school administrators. Two of them wanted to become middle school assistant principals. One participant wanted to be either a high school assistant principal or principal.

2: What are the differences in perceived motivational factors regarding the principalship for earning educational administration certification between students who plan to pursue the principalship and those who do not?

Quantitative Results

No major differences existed between the mean scores of the participants who planned to pursue the principalship/assistant principalship and the mean scores of those who did not for the reasons for earning their educational administration certification. After conducting independent t-tests, none of the 7 reasons for earning educational administration certification were statistically significant. The null hypothesis was accepted because the two groups had similar views regarding the perceived motivational factors for earning educational administration certification.

Qualitative Results

One theme, *career options*, emerged from the online focus groups' responses for earning their administrative certification. Five of the participants believed that earning their administrative certification would allow them to have more career options in education.

Question 3: *To what degree do educational administration students who plan to pursue the principalship and those students who have little or no intentions to seek that position differ in perceived barriers regarding the principalship?*

Quantitative Results

Independent samples t-tests were conducted and only two variable were determined to be statistically significant: "I do not want to control the school budget" and "The hours per day I work increases." Thus, differences existed between the two groups. The participants who did not want to pursue the principalship rated these variables higher than those who did because the participants who did not want to pursue the principalship viewed the perceived barriers as obstacles that would prevent them from seeking these positions.

Qualitative Results

Two themes, *family responsibilities* and *time commitment*, emerged from the data for perceived barriers to the principalship for the participants in the online focus group. One participant cited having small children as a barrier to pursuing the principalship. Another participant reported time commitment was an issue. This person was currently satisfied as a classroom teacher and did not want to lose tenure.

Question 4: *To what extent does Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory explain the differences in perceived job satisfaction of the principalship between educational administration students who plan to pursue a principalship and those who do not?*

Quantitative Results

The null hypothesis was rejected because differences existed between the two groups regarding their perceived job satisfaction. Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory influenced the perceived job satisfaction of the participants who planned to pursue the principalship more than those who did not. When an independent samples t-tests were run, "receive a pay raise," "work with a mentor," and "use my knowledge and skills" were statistically significant. The participants who did not want to become principals were more concerned with the variable, "receive a pay raise" than those participants who wanted to pursue the principalship.

Qualitative Results

The major themes for perceived job satisfaction reported by the online focus group were "career advancement," "making a difference in students' lives," "helping teachers maximize learning in their classrooms" (instructional leadership), and pay raises. All of the participants believed that the principalship and assistant principalship signified career advancement. "Making a difference" in students' lives was cited by five participants as a motivator to perceived job satisfaction. Instructional leadership was mentioned by several participants. Three participants wanted to "maximize teacher quality." Herzberg (1968) found that "workers are not primarily motivated by money and other tangible benefits, but they are motivated by achieving something in their jobs, being responsible for their job tasks and being able to work with minimal supervision" (p. 57).

Yet, two of the participants in the online focus group cited pay raises as a perceived motivator for seeking jobs as principals and assistant principals.

5. To what extent does Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory explain the differences in perceived barriers of the principalship between educational administration students who plan to pursue a principalship and those who do not?

Quantitative Results

The null hypothesis was rejected. The mean levels of the participants who planned to pursue the principalship for the perceived barriers to the principalship differed from the mean levels of those who did not. "I do not want to control the school budget" was perceived as a barrier by the participants who wanted to pursue the principalship. The participants who did not want to pursue the principalship did not view it as a barrier. In addition, "the hours per day I work increases" by the participants who planned to pursue jobs as principals and assistant principalships and those who did not ($M = 3.00$; $SD = .71$).

Qualitative Results

In Herzberg et al.'s motivation-hygiene theory (1959), when workers were unmotivated, their productivity was lower, and they did not put forth any extra effort to complete their tasks. In education, if educational leadership students are not motivated, they will not pursue jobs as school principals or assistant principals. Two themes emerged, *complacency* and *balance work and family*, from the data as perceived barriers to the principalship for two of the participants. One respondent was content with being a classroom teacher because this person was tenured. The other respondent had small

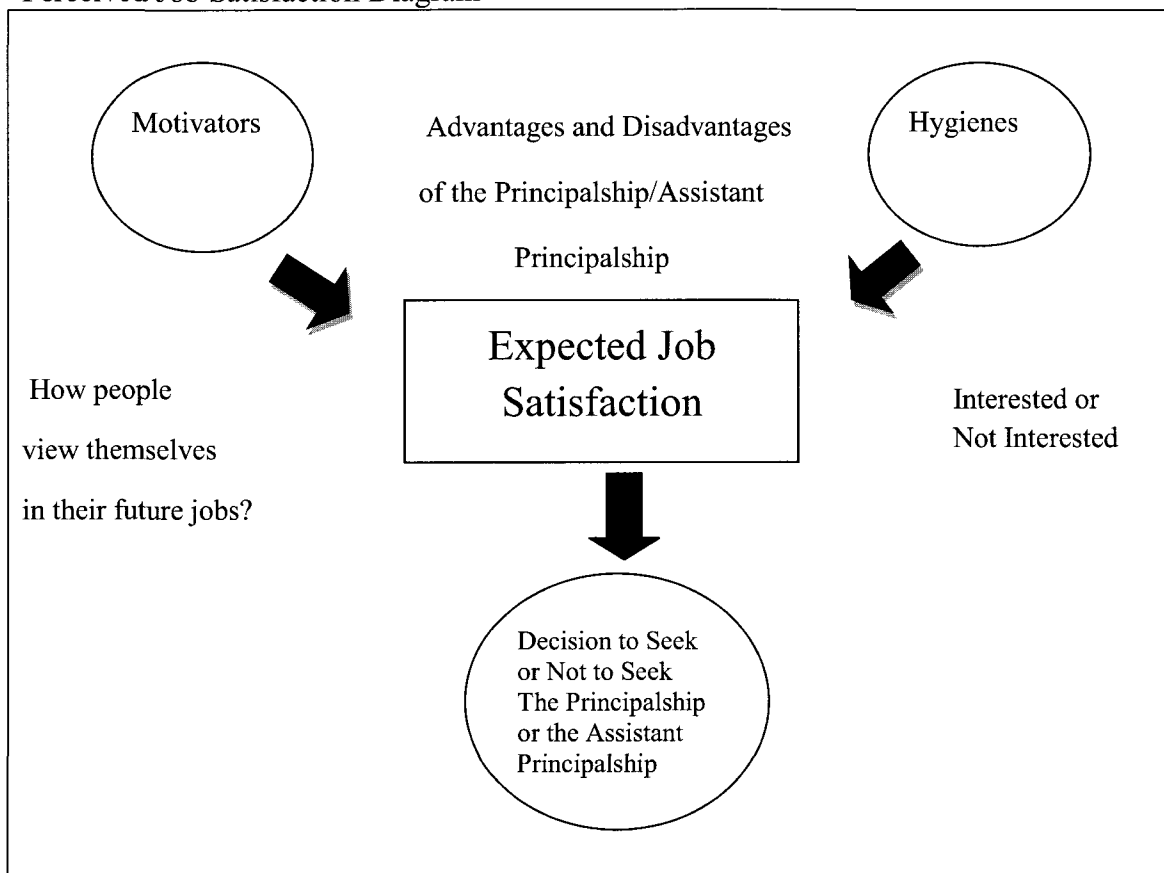
children and did not want to work the extra hours as a school building-level administrator.

Discussion

My original conceptual framework showed that the factors, motivators and hygienes, of Herzberg et al.'s motivation-hygiene theory influenced educational administration students' decisions concerning their perceived job satisfaction as principals and assistant principals (Figure 1). Herzberg et al.'s (1959) motivation-hygiene theory looks at what makes a job attractive by producing job satisfaction. At the same time, Vroom's expectancy theory was influencing these students' perceptions concerning their seeking jobs as principals and assistant principals. These participants were thinking about their psychological needs, and how these factors supported or prevented their perceived job satisfaction as principals and assistant principals. In this study, how the participants rated these factors influenced their level of perceived job satisfaction. Vroom's expectancy theory suggests that individuals will not be motivated unless they are rewarded. The one theory that was not addressed in detail was Behling's et al. (1967) job-choice theory, which looks at the frame within which a candidate views job attributes and makes decisions regarding choosing a job.

Figure 1.

Perceived Job Satisfaction Diagram



Findings Related to the Literature

This dissertation was an extension of three previous studies: Bass, 2004; McNeese et al., 2009; Winter et al., 2004. All of these studies had educational administration students as their population of interest. They recognized the high number of educational administration students who were unlikely to pursue the principalship or any other types of school leadership roles. Some of the students in educational leadership programs complete their programs and obtain their educational administration endorsements, but they do not pursue jobs as principals and/or assistant principals. These studies attempted to address this issue to varying degrees. The Bass (2004) study showed that many

educational administration students across the country were not interested in pursuing jobs as principals and assistant principals. However, Bass did not discover the possible reasons for their decisions. The McNeese et al. (2009) study examined educational administration students' perceived job satisfaction toward the principalship/assistant principalship. When school building-level administrators "do not have enough time, or take enough time to involve themselves in satisfying leisure activities to even out the stress they get from work, burnout may occur or psychological health issues arise that may affect job satisfaction and performance" (McNeese et al., 2009, p. 7). The Winter et al. (2004) study administered the survey that I modified to use for this dissertation. The subtopics in their survey, (i.e., *Reasons for Earning Administrative Certification, Job Satisfaction, Barriers, Career Aspirations*), were crucial to my survey. I was able to gain insight into why some students in The College of William and Mary's Educational Leadership Program are determined to pursue the principalship and/or the assistant principalship and others are not. In addition, I was able to highlight the existing differences between the two groups, the participants who wanted to pursue jobs as principals/assistant principals and those who did not.

Some of the findings from this study (i.e., age, gender, and ethnicity) were consistent with selected existing studies (i.e., Bass, 2004; Mitchell, 2009; Quenneville, 2007; Stemple, 2004). The population demographics for this study were consistent with the findings of both the Bass (2004) and Quenneville (2007) studies. All of these studies were mostly composed of women. In addition, the number of minorities participating in these surveys was extremely small. The ages of the participants in this study (37.3 years old) were consistent with other studies, such as Barksdale (2003) and McNeese et al.

(2009). This is consistent with the Barksdale's (2003) study that had 77 or 66% of the participants under the age of 50. Even though McNeese et al. (2009) used age ranges instead of the specific ages of their participants, 78, or 49.4%, of these participants were in the 30–39 age range.

Teaching experience was another category that showed differences. Most participants in these studies worked on the elementary-school level. In this study, the largest group of participants worked on the elementary level ($n = 9$), but most of the participants worked on other grade levels or at the central office building in their school divisions. In addition, most of participants in these studies had teaching experience, which was consistent with this study because only one participant had no teaching experience. The participants with 12 years or more teaching experience in this study had obtained their administrative endorsements at a 2 to 1 ratio, 6 to 3 as compared to those individuals who had less than 12 years of teaching experience. This was consistent with Quenneville's (2007) findings that the participants who most likely to seek administrative certification on average had 12.6 years of teaching experience. The participants with less than 10 years of teaching experience were more sporadic in obtaining their administrative endorsements. Three out of these nine participants in the current study had obtained their endorsements. However, there was no definitive trend among this group.

There are distinct differences between this study and the other studies reviewed. This study expands on the Bass (2004) study, which noted that some potential candidates do not pursue school leadership because of *increased responsibilities* and *family responsibilities*. Since qualitative data were also collected for this study, it allowed for a more in-depth examination of the reasons for participants to pursue or not pursue the

principalship. This study found that while some participants cited the same reasons for not pursuing jobs as principals or assistant principals, their views were short-term. They eventually wanted to pursue these administrative jobs in the future. In contrast, the McNeese et al. (2009) study found that 145 or (90%) participants indicated that they planned to pursue a career in educational administration at some point in the future. Sixteen or (10%) participants indicated they had no plans to enter the field, but were merely getting the advanced degree possibly for a pay raise or for other reasons.

Another difference was the participants in this study were grouped by the number of credit hours they had completed. This was not done in either the Bass (2004) or the Quenneville (2007) study. However, the number of credit hours completed by the participants did not have statistical significance. Thus, the current statuses of the participants (i.e., beginning, middle, end, or graduate) in the program had little or no impact on these individuals' decisions to pursue jobs as principals and assistant principals. They may have already made their decisions regarding the pursuit of the principalship before they entered the program.

Both the Quenneville (2007) and Barksdale (2003) studies chose to differentiate among degree levels, such as master's, master's + 30, and doctorate. The researcher decided not to include this category in the study because many of the students who have already obtained a master's degree and are seeking advanced degrees (Ed.S., Ed.D., and Ph.D.) already work as assistant principals and principals for school systems. These individuals would exhibit bias towards the principalship. By including these individuals, the data collected for this study could have been skewed to overrepresent those participants who plan to pursue the principalship.

Unlike the Bass (2004) and Quenneville (2007) studies, the data revealed that 5 career switchers participated in the online survey for this study. These five individuals had previously work experience outside of the educational field. The career switchers were no less likely to pursue the principalship than the participants who were not career switchers. Career switchers group had a $M = 2.50$; $SD = 2.12$, while the group that consisted of participants who were not career switchers had a $M = 2.62$; $SD = 1.22$. Both of these groups showed interest in pursuing the principalship.

This study shared additional similarities with other studies. Gender played a role in the participant's decision to pursue the principalship. Most of the reviewed studies had an overwhelming number of females (Bass, 2004; Burton & Goldsmith, 2002; Quenneville, 2007). For instance, Burton and Goldsmith (2002) had 43 women (67%) and 21 men (33%) in their study. This study also followed this trend. There were more female participants than males in this study. The gender of the participants in this study for both the online focus group and the survey mirrored the students in the educational leadership programs. Gender was an issue for online focus groups. The online focus group for this study consisted of six females (86%) and one male (14%). Most likely the gender gap that existed in these studies reflected the gender gap that existed in the educational leadership programs. More women ($n = 23$) participated in the online survey than men ($n = 6$). This was a direct result of the provided list, which contained more females (current students and graduates) than males. Females were overrepresented in this study (6 females out of 7 participants in the online focus group; 23 females out of 29 participants in the survey). The gender gap that existed in these studies as well as this

study reflected the gender gap that existed in The College of William and Mary's Educational Leadership Program.

All of the males in this study were already school administrators or had immediate plans to pursue the principalship or the assistant principalship. The males in the study reported they were less restricted by family obligations and sought the principalship for extrinsic reasons, such as "be a qualified principal or assistant principal", "assume a greater role in my school district", "expand career options", "improve job status", and "increase pay." More than half of the female participants in this survey reported they were not interested in becoming principals or assistant principals. Because of their family responsibilities, 34.8% of the female participants were less inclined to pursue the principalship/assistant principalship. They were actively engaged in raising their children and/ or taking care of their households. However, the variable, "primary wage earner", was not statistically significant between the participants who wanted to become school principals and assistant principals and those who did not.

The lack of diversity in this study followed an alarming trend, which was also noted in the Barksdale (2003) and Bass (2004) studies. While the Bass (2004) study was composed of 688 or 80% Caucasian, 68 or 8% African American, 62 or 7% Hispanic, 13 or 2% Asian, and 29 or 3% other ethnicities, the Barksdale (2003) study had 75 or 65% Caucasian participants, 36 or 31% African American participants, 2 or 1.7% Asian participants, and 1 or 0.9 Native American participant. The number of racial minority students invited to participate in this study was 12, which consisted of 11 African Americans and one Asian current students and graduates (School of Education, 2010). Even though this study only had two participants of mixed ethnicity, and two African

American participants, 14% of the study's participants were racial minorities, which was equal to the Educational Leadership Program's racial minority population (Table 8). The School of Education did not use mixed ethnicity as a code, but it was used for this study.

The low percentage of racial minority participants was a major concern. Because of the low percentage rates for the various racial minority group, it was not possible to include ethnicity in this study, which denied multicultural perspectives being voiced about the topic. The College of William and Mary's M.Ed in Educational Leadership program only averaged five African-American students each school year, which was 23% of the population (SCHEV, 2009). For the Fall 2010 semester, The College of William and Mary's School of Education reported four current African American students in its Educational Leadership Program (School of Education, 2010). In the past, education was one of the few fields which racial minorities were allowed to pursue careers. Now, fewer and fewer minorities are entering the educational field. A decrease in the number of racial minority teachers means a decrease in the number of racial minorities who are potential candidates for the principalship. This trend may continue because racial minority college students have many more career options available to them than in the past, so the number of racial minorities in teaching and school administration will continue to decline.

There are some plausible solutions for increasing the number of minorities willing to enter and complete educational leadership programs, so they obtain their educational administrative endorsement and seek jobs as principals and assistant principals. Universities should identify and support the "second pool" of candidates, or "the diamonds-in-the-rough" students that are not like the traditional candidates.

“Professional development in networking is essential for underrepresented minorities” (Tapia et al., 2000, p. 7). These students may take longer and need more support services in order to complete their programs.

The participants in this study were asked to identify the grade they were currently teaching (i.e., elementary, middle school, high school, administration/central office, unemployed, or not working in education) and their reported perceived job satisfaction as principals and assistant principalship. Of the six levels, the data collected and analyzed for this study showed that no significant differences existed between the groups and their intentions to pursue the principalship/assistant principalship. The data from this study was contradictory to the Bass (2004) and the Winter et al.'s (2004) findings, which showed that middle school teachers rated the job significantly higher than high school teachers. Bass (2004) found that middle school teachers were the most likely to pursue jobs as principals. Winter et al. (2004) discovered that middle school teachers may be more likely to view the assistant principalship as a promotion to a higher paying and more prestigious position than do high school teachers. “For high school teachers, the increased pay and prestige of an assistant principal position may not compensate for added job duties, longer work hours, and other negative factors, such as more severe student discipline problems than are experienced at the middle school level” (Winter et al., 2004, p. 310). But, in this study, no major differences were detected between the various grade levels taught by the participants and their intentions to become principals and assistant principals.

When rating the perceived job motivators, the responses of the two groups of participants (those who planned to pursue the principalship and those participants who

did not) in this study varied (Appendix S). The participants who were not interested in pursuing the principalship rated factors that they were already performing higher in their current positions. “Working with a mentor” and “receive a pay increase” were identified as perceived job satisfaction motivators by the study’s participants. In their current jobs as teachers, many of the study’s participants work or have worked with a mentor and they use their knowledge and skills on a daily basis. Therefore, they are used to performing these tasks.

The participants who were not interested in pursuing the principalship identified a pay raise as a motivator for seeking the principalship, yet it was not enough to sway them to pursue school building level administration jobs. They may feel this way because they are currently classroom teachers who may be complacent or satisfied in their current positions because they are 10 month employees and have their summers off. In addition, their attitudes may be attributed to the fact that veteran teachers can earn more money than first year assistant principals. Under the current salary scales in many school districts, veteran teachers would have to take pay cuts to pursue assistant principal positions. School systems are not offering adequate financial incentives to lure potential candidates to fill assistant principal and principal jobs.

This study’s findings differed in various respects from other studies’ findings (i.e., Bass, 2004, Herzberg et al., 1959, McNeese et al., 2009). Over the years, the factors in Herzberg et al. (1959) have been revised by various researchers (Pounder and Merrill, Winter et al., and McNeese et al.) to meet the needs of the workers and their changing work environments. Several factors, such as relocation, accountability, and school achievement in this study were not addressed in Herzberg et al.’s (1959) study, which is

due to the 51-year gap between the studies and the specific needs of this study. The pre-existing survey used in this study had incorporated these variations of Herzberg et al.'s motivational hygiene theory (1959).

None of the reasons for earning educational administration certification was statistically significant in the online survey. The responses of the participants who wanted to pursue the principalship/assistant principalship did not differ significantly from those who did not. In contrast, according to Herzberg et al.'s theory, the perceived job satisfaction motivators --*make innovations in education, to assume a greater leadership role in the district, and to expand career options*--are part of growth, recognition, and advancement. These factors need to be present for workers to be productive and give more effort. Five participants (71%) of the online focus group cited "expanding their career options" as a reason for earning their administrative endorsements. Even though the participants in the online survey for this study did not rate these factors as having a major impact on their decisions to pursue jobs as principals and assistant principals or not to pursue these jobs, the participants in the online focus group saw earning their administrative endorsements as a way to broaden their career options.

For two of the online focus group participants in this study, the perceived barriers to the principalship for them were "having small children" and "being satisfied with their current job" (complacency). In addition, "I do not want to be in control the school budget" and "The hours I work per day increased" were identified as perceived barriers to the principalship on the online survey. Herzberg et al. (1959) considered these factors as hygienes that would prevent these individuals in this study to perform their job duties effectively. The findings in this study supported Herzberg et al.'s findings because the

two participants from the online focus group expressed no immediate desires to pursue the principalship, while ten participants from the online survey rated themselves as highly unlikely or unlikely to pursue school building-level administrators.

“Money is an important motivator for most people” (Rynes et al., 2004, p. 391). Even though Herzberg et al. as well as McNeese et al. found that pay was not a significant motivator for the participants in their studies, other researchers’ findings (i.e., Bass, 2004; Gawel, 1997, Harris et al., 2000, concluded that “insufficient compensation” had a significant impact on teacher’s decision to avoid the principalship. Herzberg et al. viewed salary as a hygiene, which was contradicted by some of the participants in this study who considered it to be a motivator (Appendix C). In the survey, the variable “receive a pay raise” was statistically significant between the participants who wanted to become principals and assistant principals and those participants who did not. Two participants from the online focus group identified pay raises as a motivator for their career aspirations. They perceived salary as a positive factor.

In addition, the findings for the online focus group of this study were similar to the McNeese et al. (2009) findings because time commitment was a major issue for the participants in both studies. Two of the participants in the online focus group did not want to sacrifice any more of their time to their profession. This study found that “time commitment” was identified as a barrier for many of the participants in the online survey, but it had no statistical significance on the participants’ perceived job satisfaction.

This study had similarities to the McNeese et al. (2009) study in the ranking of the factors that motivated potential candidates to pursue the principalship. The top three reasons for pursuing the principalship in the McNeese et al. (2009) study were “helping

students to achieve in school”, “improving schools”, and “making a difference.” The online focus group in this study was similar to the findings of the McNeese et al. (2009) study the motivating factors were “make a difference in students’ lives” and “help teachers maximize learning in their classrooms” (instructional leadership).”

The participants in this study who were not currently pursuing jobs as principals and assistant principals rated the barriers associated with the balance of work and family much higher, like in the Pounder and Merrill (2001) study, than the participants in the Bass (2004) study. In the Bass (2004) study, the participants, who reported they were not interested at that time in becoming school administrators, were not asked if they would pursue these jobs later. This study addressed that issue and found that most of these participants did plan to pursue these positions. They expressed that obtaining principalships and/or assistant principalships were long-term goals for them.

Conducting an online focus group using Facebook posed various problems. The researcher had some concerns about conducting an online focus group using Facebook. The first problem was one potential participant wanted to participate but did not have a Facebook account. Thus, that person did not participate in the Facebook focus group. However, this person was sent a copy of the questions to answer via e-mail, so the participant’s voice could be heard. Another problem was that the participants were reminded several times via e-mail about the date and time, but everyone did not sign on at the same time. They could read and respond to each others responses, but it could not be simultaneously. Given the outcome of this study, I believe that online focus groups are more effective when used in an asynchronous manner.

When using an online focus group on Facebook to collect data, several steps need to be taken in order to ensure success. It should be asynchronous because Facebook's features are limited, which prevents participants from responding to each other in real time. The online focus group needs to be private. Therefore, the researcher invites only the participants he or she wants to take part in the study. Once the researcher has set a time limit, the participants can submit their responses and comments at their leisure. The researcher needs to regularly monitor what is happening on the group's wall. By having the participants respond to posted questions, responses, and comments, they can take more time to reflect on their potential posts. If the online focus group was synchronous, the respondents would have to post quicker, which may cause them to create shorter posts.

Several participants from the focus group felt they could have benefited more from the program if more field-based experiences were provided. Their view is shared by many researchers, who were reviewed for this study, and noted that limited field practice is one of the major weaknesses of educational administration programs. Too many of these programs focused heavily on theory while offering little hands-on field experience to future principals. The participants in this study felt they needed more practice than the administrative internship provided. This is one area that The College of William and Mary's M.Ed. in Educational Leadership program should review and decide how to incorporate more field-based experiences for their students throughout their program. By providing their students with multiple opportunities to practice and hone their administrative skills, they will be more likely to view the principalship in a positive light by wanting to obtain their administrative endorsements, perceiving high job satisfaction,

focusing on motivators, and tolerating barriers to pursue jobs as principals and assistant principals.

The Virginia State Department of Education increased the number of administrative internship hours candidates need to obtain their administrative endorsement from 129 to 320. So, some of these participants in the focus group and survey have completed the program under the old administrative endorsement requirements. Yet, their intention to pursue jobs as principals and assistant principals differed. Most of the participants from the focus group expressed their desire to pursue the principalship when they believed they were at a point in their lives where they could devote more time to their professional career. This viewpoint was prevalent among the females, since the only male participant was already a middle school principal. In the survey, nine participants out of nineteen expressed they would not seek or accept jobs as principals or assistant principals. However, some of these individuals may be waiting a few years before they plan to pursue the principalship.

Recommendations for the Educational Field

Bass (2004) found that many teachers in his study viewed “increased salary and benefits” as a strong motivator to pursue the principalship. Yet, “many individuals earn administrator certification for reasons other than pursuing school administrative jobs, such as increasing one’s salary, and do not seriously intend to apply for position vacancies” (Winter et al., 2004, p. 309). There are financial benefits for individuals seeking an advanced degrees in education (Levine, 2005). On July 2, 2010, Dr. Muriel Barefield, who is currently the Personnel Administrator for Chesapeake Public Schools, stated, “An individual with master’s degree is paid an extra \$3,200.00 a year for having

this degree.” Thus, some individuals will continue to obtain master’s degrees in educational leadership to increase their pay. This trend will exist until state departments of education across the country eliminate supplementary pay increases for advanced degrees. Thus, lawmakers, state departments of education, colleges and universities, and school systems have to work together to make the principalship a feasible job for educational administration students.

Based on the data collected and analyzed for this study, several areas, such as policies, colleges’ and universities’ department of education, partnerships between school systems and colleges/universities, need to be targeted for improvement, so the number of qualified applicants for the principalship and assistant principalship could be increased. Policies aimed at assuring adequate supplies of principal candidates should focus more on creating better conditions for leaders and providing the right incentives. While the ISLLC Standards have laid the foundation for improving educational administration programs, more changes need to be made. Educational leadership programs must continue to reconfigure their work around the redefined role of the principal. Educational administration students need to practice their leadership skills in real situations. Colleges’ and universities’ educational administration programs need to offer their students more relevant curriculum, and a balance between theory and practice. These programs need to emphasize knowledge and skills for improving schools and raising student achievement. Colleges and universities need to take a closer look at the evaluation of participants’ competence and the program’s effectiveness. In addition, these institutions need to provide mentoring for their students. For example, by inviting graduates who have entered the principalship to periodically come to talk to current

students. Also, scheduling site visits to schools and central offices for current students, so they can get a clear understanding of what the roles entail.

Almost half of the recent graduates of the M.Ed. in Educational Leadership at The College of William and Mary have not become school building-level administrators. But, over time, more of these individuals will pursue the principalship and assistant principalship. Therefore, The College of William and Mary's School of Education may need to track their graduates from the M. Ed. in Educational Leadership over time to determine how many of their graduates actually become school principals and assistant principals. The professors in this program should continue to use their personal experiences to encourage their students to pursue school leadership positions. The College of William and Mary's School of Education needs to continue to provide students with information concerning administrative certification and job vacancies in school administration.

The school systems have to provide their new administrators with the support these individuals need to be effective. They could implement several suggestions to increase the number of potential candidates who apply and accept school administrative positions in their school districts. First of all, school systems should reduce the work week and/or school year. They need to restructure the responsibilities of the school building-level administrators. New school building-level administrators could have a 10.5 month contract; not the 12 month contract currently given to school principals and assistant principals. These individuals would be paid less than the school principals and assistant principals who work 12 month contracts, but it would lessen the new school administrators stress levels and decrease "burnout". The next suggestion is to add support

services for new school building-level administrators. Being a school building-level administrator is a difficult job that can become even more difficult without support and encouragement from experienced administrators. School systems could use this as selling points to attract educational administration students to apply for positions as school building-level administrators. If prospective candidates for the principalship/ assistant principalship know that school systems have these services to assist them, school systems may increase the number of qualified applicants. The participants in this study acknowledged the importance being mentored as new principals and assistant principals by veteran school administrators. In addition, school districts should work closer with university programs, so they can identify promising candidates, host meaningful internship experiences, and provide advice on program content and delivery. This will also allow school leaders to serve as mentors and adjunct instructors. The final suggestion is for school systems to put potential principals in cadres, which would allow the candidates to give each other moral support, use their knowledge and skills, and network with veteran school building-level administrators and central office staff.

Suggestions for Further Research

Other researchers are encouraged to replicate this study and expand on this topic. This study could be replicated with a larger sample population to enable the findings to be more generalizable. Even though there were difficulties in using an online focus group via Facebook, the use of an online focus group to collect data yielded valuable data. Therefore, the researcher believes the validity and reliability of online focus groups will continue to build its credibility in the world. This research study did not address the impact of the U.S. economy on educational leadership students' decisions whether to

pursue the principalship and assistant principalship or not to pursue it; further research needs to be conducted in this area. Would the state of the economy further reduce the current number of qualified candidates available to fill positions as principals and assistant principals? Some of the participants expressed their ambitions to work at the central office level. Thus, it would be advantageous to know the number of students who can accomplish this goal because it may be necessary to re-evaluate the current educational leadership program or expand the programs offered by adding a superintendent/ central office personnel cohort to better serve the students.

Across the nation, there are individuals in educational leadership programs who are not interested in becoming school principals and assistant principals, but they would like to serve in leadership positions, such as instructional specialists and directors of instruction. Therefore, these individuals would be able to use their knowledge and skills acquired from their educational leadership programs. More research needs to be conducted regarding this topic to determine the number of students who share this view. This research could lead to increasing the number of educational leadership students who actually pursue jobs in school leadership.

Although Allen et al. (2007) found that educational administration students who “are close to retirement, they are less likely to pursue school leadership positions,” other studies, including this one, showed data that these individuals were more likely to pursue these administrative jobs (p. 182). Which view is correct? What role does salary play in their decisions? Therefore, the third recommendation is to collect data on those educational administration students who are close to retirement to determine if they are more or less likely to pursue school leadership positions. When teachers retire from

public schools in Virginia, their retirement pay is based on their last three years of working. Thus, if they obtained master's degrees before they retire, they would have increased their current salaries as well as their retirement. Some of these individuals complete educational leadership programs to maximize their retirement and have no intention of pursuing jobs as principals or assistant principals. If these individuals choose not to pursue the principalship/assistant principalship, the number of qualified applicants for these jobs will be affected. By focusing on these participants and their needs, colleges and universities as well as school systems may increase the number of them willing to seek the principalship/assistant principalship.

Research studies that examine career changers and the reasons that influence their decisions to pursue or avoid the principalship could yield more insight into the perceptions of career switchers and the principalship. Are career changers more or less likely than traditionally trained teachers to pursue jobs as principals and assistant principals? While a plethora of research concerning career switchers and teaching exist, the researcher could only find a limited number of research articles on career switchers' pursuit of the principalship and did not find any research studies conducted on this topic. Out of the 88 potential participants who were contacted to participate in this study, only 5 career switchers actually participated in this study. Because of the small sample size, no generalizations could be made concerning this group. Thus, a more in-depth examination of career switchers and the principalship is needed to determine if their previous careers and the length of time they worked in those positions are linked to their decisions to seek jobs as principals and assistant principals.

Further research on why some educational leadership students pursue the principalship and others do not is recommended. By replicating this study, more credibility will be given to the use of online focus groups using Facebook to collect data. Since this study centered on current educational leadership students and recent graduates (up to 6 years) and the principalship/assistant principalship, it could be expanded to address these participants and central office positions, as well as the superintendency. More data need to be collected on older educational leadership students to determine whether they are pursuing school administrative jobs or simply increasing their pay for their retirement. Career switchers offer an alternative way of filling school principal and assistant principal jobs.

Conclusion

When educational leadership students complete their programs and acquire their administrative endorsements, it does not automatically mean they will pursue jobs as principals and assistant principals. While some students who complete educational leadership programs will have no interest in the principalship, many of these individuals will wait a few years before they pursue the principalship or assistant principalship. The data suggested that the students in the M.Ed. in Educational Leadership Program at The College of William and Mary are being groomed to become successful school administrators. Once they have completed the program, many of them obtain their administrative certification. However, some of these individuals do not immediately pursue jobs as principals and assistant principals. The data from this study showed that these individuals who are qualified potential candidates for school administration will seek the principalship, when they are ready to seek it.

This study was designed to have multiple uses. The first use was to contribute to existing research on why some educational leadership students pursue the principalship and others do not. Secondly, by identifying the variables that were statistically significant between the participants who wanted to pursue the principalship and those who did not, this study could aid in increasing the partnerships between principal training programs and local school systems, to link training with hands-on experience in leadership for student learning because these groups could develop specific strategies and workshops to address these variables. After analyzing the data for this study, a shortage of qualified potential principals and assistant principals does not appear to exist. Most individuals, who complete educational leadership programs, will obtain their administrative endorsement. A few of them will immediately begin to pursue the principalship or the assistant principalship. Most of them will remain in the classroom until they are ready to take on the professional challenge of being school building-level administrator. Some of them may never choose to pursue jobs as principals or assistant principals.

Understanding the reasons prospective school administrators enter the field of education administration can have a positive impact on the recruitment, training, and retention of highly qualified administrators to address the dwindling pool of applicants for jobs as principals and assistant principals. In this study, factors such as family and/or household responsibilities, distance from students, and the lack of autonomy, directly influenced when students begin to apply and accept these jobs. This led to a delay from the time the educational leadership students completed their programs and when they actually applied for positions as principals and assistant principals. But, the participants held steadfast to their desire to one day become school principals and assistant principals.

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Appendix A

The 2008 Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards

Standard	Description
1	An education leader develops, articulates, implements, and stewards a vision of learning shared and supported by all stakeholders.
2	An education leader advocates, nurtures, and sustains a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.
3	An education leader ensures effective and efficient management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe learning environment.
4	An education leader collaborates with faculty and community leaders; responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.
5	An education leader acts with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.
6	An education leader understands, responds to, and influences the political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context.

Note: Based on the standards from Council of Chief State School Officers. (2008). *Educational Leadership Policy Standards: 2008: ISSLC Standards*, As Adopted by the National Policy Board for Educational Administration. Washington, DC: Author.

Appendix B

Research Studies Influenced By Theories of Job Satisfaction

Research Study	Summaries
<p data-bbox="240 431 472 463">Allen et al.(2007).</p> <p data-bbox="240 502 675 697">Characteristics, Preparation, Expectations, and Opportunities Affecting the Career Decisions of Educators with Administrative Certification.</p> <p data-bbox="240 740 472 772">(qualitative study)</p> <p data-bbox="240 810 672 885">Herzberg’s Motivational Hygiene Theory</p> <p data-bbox="240 923 610 955">Vroom’s Expectancy Theory</p>	<p data-bbox="777 431 1365 576">A study that provided insight on how teachers, who possessed New York State administration certification, determined whether or not to pursue the principalship.</p> <p data-bbox="777 608 1365 825">They examined 18 participants with NY administrative certification in K–12: 9 New Principals (Active Leaders); 9 individuals who held administrative endorsement but continued to teach (Latent Leaders) from Westchester, Putnam, and Rockland, New York.</p> <p data-bbox="777 832 1360 1006">Limitations– Interviews are personal in nature and not easy to generalize to a larger population. They limited study to new principals. The geographical region used for this study was limited.</p> <p data-bbox="777 1012 1349 1087">Validity was not specifically addressed in the study.</p> <p data-bbox="777 1093 1292 1215">Credibility was used to establish internal validity by having a sufficient sample population.</p> <p data-bbox="777 1221 1370 1385">Transferability was used to establish external validity because the study’s results can be used by potential school administrators, grow-your-own programs, and colleges and universities.</p> <p data-bbox="777 1391 1349 1513">Reliability– Dependability is evident because this study could be replicated by other researchers.</p> <p data-bbox="777 1519 1308 1593">The researchers followed Dilley (2000) to construct interview questions.</p> <p data-bbox="777 1600 1268 1632">Data– Qualitative– personal interviews</p>

- Results– Found that people who pursued a school leadership position were not motivated by increased salaries, but they had a need to lead that drove them to seek this type of employment. The people who did not pursue school administrator positions believed much of the work was menial. The data collected in Allen et al.'s (2007) study showed “administrative jobs are more attractive later in life for some participants certainly for financial reasons and their home life” (p. 162).
- Bass, T. (2004).
Principalship Inhibitors and Motivators: Factors Influencing Educators' Decisions To Enter Principal Positions. (Descriptive Research Study)
Herzberg's Motivational Hygiene Theory
- Purpose– to determine the most compelling motivating and inhibiting factors that influence educators' decisions to seek the principalship. Used two target populations from University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) : professors from educational administration programs and one class of educational administration students from each of the 71 UCEA programs. 66 professors and 860 students in educational administration programs.
Limitations– The researcher had no control over participants' response rate for the survey. Also, he could not control the honesty and accuracy of the participants' responses.
Reliability– Internal validity: Cronbach's Alpha Professor Survey– .80; Student Survey– .80
- Cross-sectional survey built and modified from 2 previous instruments, (Harris et al. , 2000 and Moore & Ditzhazy, (1999) which had been administered twice.
Validity– Pilot Study administered to 11 professors at SMSU.
- No threats to internal validity or external validity were found.
Statistics– descriptive statistics; independent samples t-test; ANOVA; and an exploratory factor analysis
Results– Professors who taught principal preparation classes thought stress, standardized testing pressures, more time commitment,

excessive paperwork, and family responsibilities as the major barriers for educational administration students' decisions to avoid the principalship. They believed that educational administration students pursued the principalship for intrinsic reasons (i.e., make a difference, professional challenge, change agent).

Educational administration students cited increased stress, more time commitments, standardized testing pressures, family responsibilities, and excessive paperwork as the main barriers for seeking the principalship. Students cited the same intrinsic factors as the professors as reasons for seeking the principalship.

Harris, Arnold, Lowery, & Crocker (2000).

Deciding to Become a Principal: What Factors Motivate or Inhibit That Decision?

(Quantitative Study)

Herzberg's Motivational Hygiene Theory

Surveyed 151 graduate students enrolled in principal preparation courses in order to identify factors support the importance of intrinsic motivation and factors that discourage (inhibitors, or dissatisfiers) them from seeking administrative leadership positions. Limitations—A limited sample population provides a pilot study venue for further research and investigation in to a vital area of leadership, particularly in the field of educational leadership. Validity— Survey based on the pre-existing Moore & Ditzhazy's (1999) study.

Reliability— Cronbach Alpha is .80
Statistics— descriptive statistics; independent samples t-test; ANOVA;

Results— The data showed gender differences in ranking paperwork and bureaucracy, time demands, and litigation were the top four inhibiting factors cited by participants. A key motivator to principals is the opportunity to help children and the educators in the classroom, making a difference through hiring and staff development as well as continual support for families, students, and faculty increase commitment to the position. Intrinsic

motivation influence educational administration students' aspirations to school leadership positions.

Their study focused on what was being taught in principal preparation programs, including seven areas of principal responsibility: managing for results, managing personnel, technical knowledge, external leadership, norms and values, managing classroom instruction, and leadership and school culture.

Hess & Kelly (2005).

Learning to Lead?
What Gets Taught in Principal
Preparation Programs.

Quantitative Research

Herzberg's Motivational Hygiene
Theory

Target population of 496 principal preparation programs

They actually surveyed a national cross-section of 31 principal preparation programs and collected 210 syllabi"

Independent Variables– The types of schools (i.e., elite, large, typical and small) and the course units and required readings of the 31 principal preparation programs.

Dependent Variables–managing for results, managing personnel, technical knowledge, external leadership, norms and values, managing classroom instruction, and leadership and school culture

Statistics– 210 syllabi were coded to themes (dependent variables). Course weeks that advocated concepts like social justice and multiculturalism, focused on inequality and race-based discrimination, emphasized notions of silenced voices and child-centered instruction, or were critical of testing and choice-based reform were coded as having negative impacts on these principal preparation programs.

Limitations– The researchers assume that the syllabi reflect what is being taught. Syllabi cannot convey the tone of classroom instruction. There is little evidence of systematic variation among programs in the kinds of topics they address; Inconsistencies in the curriculums that were being taught in these programs.

Validity– They determined the emphasis of each lesson and coded each into one of seven areas of principal competency. Within each area, they coded the various lessons based on their primary focus.

Reliability– Based on other researchers' findings (i.e., Nicolaides & Gaynor, 1992; Norton & Levan, 1987; Steiner, 2004; Butin, 2004), they documented the attention devoted to seven areas of principal responsibility, each of which have been deemed vital to effective school leadership by at least some leading thinkers in the field. The seven are: managing for results, managing personnel, technical knowledge, external leadership, norms and values, managing classroom instruction, and leadership and school culture.

Out of an initial pool of 61 educational administration programs, 56 qualified for analysis.

Results–The evidence indicates that preparation has not kept pace with changes in the larger world of schooling, leaving graduates of principal preparation programs ill-equipped for the challenges and opportunities posed by an era of accountability.

McNeese, Roberson, & Haines (2009).

Motivation and Leadership: A Comparison of Motivation Factors for Pursuing a Degree in Education Administration.

(Mixed Methodology)

Job Choice Theory

Identify factors that motivated graduate students to pursue degrees in education administration when so many veteran school leaders are currently leaving the field

161 participants were graduate students enrolled in education administration programs in three state-funded universities in Mississippi.

Qualitative data–48 participants wrote a brief paragraph explaining why they planned to enter the field of education administration.

Quantitative– survey

Validity–10 statements related to possible reasons they chose to enter the field of education administration using a 4-point Likert-type scale based on Pounder & Merrill's 2001

Mitchell, M. (2009).	survey.
Career Aspirations of Students in Educational Leadership Programs.	Reliability–triangulation of the data–Interview, artifact– a brief written statement concerning the reasons for choosing to enter the principalship and the assistant principalship, and survey.
Quantitative Study	Findings–The top three reasons for pursuing a degree in education administration are career advancement, impact on students lives, and self-efficacy perception they can do a great job. Sample Population– 168 educational administration students from 2 Georgia universities: 99 students from Kennesaw State University and 69 students from Valdosta State University
Job Choice Theory	Instrument– The Principal Job Survey by Merrill (1999): Section One–Demographics; Section Two– 65 job attributes; Section Three– Job Desirability Index
	Validity– Content Validity– Panel of experts reviewed 65 attributes. “This committee evaluated the job attributes that defined the principalship; they then added, deleted, or clarified items on the list” (Mitchell, 2009, p. 81). Also, Pounder and Merrill conducted a principal components analysis.
	Reliability–Cronbach’s alphas were computed using SPSS by Pounder & Merrill for the original survey. Mitchell also found the Cronbach’s alphas: objective–.66; subjective– .75; work– .86; school context– .78; critical contact– .34.
	Threats to internal validity were examined, and the researcher concluded there were none.
	Threats to external validity– Generalizability– State laws in Georgia have been changed, so the requirements that are currently being used to measure students will no longer be used.
	Statistics– Descriptive statistics– gender, age, marital status, ethnicity, highest degree, current position

Findings—54.8 % of participants indicated they planned to pursue the assistant principalship or the principalship. This study found that the high school principalship appeared to continue to be the least desirable of the building level leadership positions. About 25 % of the participants planned to continue in their present positions.

The Job Desirability Index (JDI) showed 31.5% of the respondents rated the principalship as being very attractive, 30.9% as attractive, and 28.2% as somewhat attractive. These respondents also indicated they would be at least somewhat likely to seek or accept a principalship if offered. However, the correlation analysis showed that the Principal Job Survey is not be the best tool to use to survey educational leadership students in regard to the principalship.

Pounder & Merrill (2001).

Job Desirability of the High School Principalship: A Job Choice Theory Perspective.

(Quantitative Study)
Job Choice Theory

This study examines factors that influence potential candidates' job perceptions and job intentions regarding the high school principalship to examine potential candidates' perceptions and job intentions with regard to the high school principalship. Target population – 233 secondary assistant principals in Utah, but only 170 individuals actually participated in the study.

Independent Variables—applicant's age, gender, race, years of experience, current professional assignment, rural, suburban or urban location, size of school, marital status/family, and career goals, school reputation, school size, school location, and socioeconomic status of the school.

Control Variable—respondents' perceived probability of being offered a high school principalship

Dependent Variables—the potential candidates' responses to: (a) the perceived attractiveness of the high school principalship, (b) the perceived probability of seeking a high school principalship, (c) the perceived probability of

accepting a high school principalship if offered.

Statistics—Descriptive statistics for independent variables—the desire to achieve and influence education (subjective variable) had the highest positive influence rating by study respondents ($\bar{x} = 1.14$, $SD = .58$). The variable with the strongest negative influence rating by respondents was the additional time demands of the job (work variable) ($\bar{x} = -.75$, $SD = .93$). Descriptive statistics for the moderator variable indicated that respondents felt they were somewhat likely to receive a high school principalship job offer if they applied: 74% of respondents indicated they felt they were *very likely* (21.8%), *likely* (26.7%), or *somewhat likely* (25.5%) to be offered a high school principalship. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable scale, Job Desirability revealed that potential candidates find the high school principalship only somewhat desirable ($\bar{x} = 3.8$ on a 6-point scale, $SD = 1.5$). 63% of the potential principals rated the job as *very attractive* (7.8%), *attractive* (25.9%), or *somewhat attractive* (28.9%); 57% indicated they were *very likely* (20.6%), *likely* (19.4%), or *somewhat likely* (17%) to seek a high school principalship; and 70% indicated they were *very likely* (24.4%), *likely* (20.7%), or *somewhat likely* (23.8%) to accept a high school principalship if offered.

Correlation coefficients (Pearson r)— The Overall Job Desirability Index was significantly related to most of the independent variables including the subjective, critical contact, objective, and all of the work factors (i.e., fiscal management, additional time demands, external relations, work problems and dilemmas, and management tasks).

Multiple regression was used to determine the multivariate relationships between the Job Desirability Index and the multiple predictor variables, while controlling for the moderator variable; the forward method of multiple

regression was used. The moderator variable, perceived probability of being offered a high school principalship, entered the model first as a significant predictor of the Job Desirability Index (Beta = .389, $p = .000$), suggesting that one's expectations of being perceived as a viable candidate would influence one's job attraction and job intentions. The desire to achieve and influence education (subjective variable, Beta = .236, $p = .001$) was the next strongest predictor of respondents' job desirability ratings. salary and benefits (objective variable, Beta = .148, $p = .036$) was the least strongest predicted entered the model as a statistically significant predictor of the Job Desirability Index.

Limitations– All of the attributes could not be identified. This survey may not be generalizable to a larger population. One had to be a secondary assistant principal to be involved in this study.

Survey research methods

The attributes were identified through examination of relevant literature, the inspection of actual job descriptions of the high school principalship, and through feedback obtained from a focus group of high school administrators–principals and assistant principals.

Content Validity–The content validity and clarity of the survey instrument were conducted by a “panel of experts”–former high school administrators, principals and assistant principals, in a focus group.

A principal components analysis was conducted to reduce the data and provide more refined measures of the objective, subjective, critical contact, work, and school context concepts.

Reliability–The dependent variable scale yielded a Cronbach's alpha reliability of .91.

Results–The principal components analysis yielded subjective (desire to achieve/ improve education), objective (salary/benefits), critical contact (professional network), and school

Quenneville, J. M. (2007).
 Preparing School Leaders: School
 Administrators' Perception of
 Traditional and District Level Training
 Programs.

(Qualitative Research Study)
 Positive progression

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

context scales. Pounder and Merrill (2001) found that salary had little impact on a potential school principal's or assistant principal's decision to accept a school building level administration position. 2/3 of respondents considered the principalship desirable. About 30% of the respondent planned to seek the principalship.

For this exploratory and descriptive study, examined 19 Virginian school administrators' (i.e. assistant principals and principals) perceptions of both district-level and traditional principal preparation programs and how these programs prepared them as school leaders in southeast and central Virginia
 Used purposeful sampling
 Limitations –The size of the accessible population is small, so it may not be generalizable to a larger population. Traditional and district-level preparation programs may be affected differently by variables, such as prior experience, years of administrative experience, and professional development experience.
 Validity– Questionnaire developed from three previous surveys: 1972 National Association of Secondary School Principals Task Inventory; Performance Evaluation of the Educational Leader Program Guidelines; and Sturock 1997 instrument.

Reliability– A pilot study of the 12 open-ended interview questions used for focus group made up of 3 administrators.

Findings: Traditional leadership preparation has shifted from principals as managers to principals as transformational leaders. Relationship building, authentic practical experiences, theoretical foundations, internships, mentoring, content practical experiences, school finances, and special education were to beneficial the participants. Job attributes and gender had no significant interaction.

Stemple, J. D. (2004).

The researcher investigated the level of job satisfaction of high school principals in

Job Satisfaction of High School Principals in Virginia.

Descriptive Study

Job Choice Theory

Virginia.

Target population– 302 public high school principals. 289 principals actually participated in the study.

Limitations– The researcher used self-reporting instruments: MSQ and demographic data sheet. By using an online survey, the researcher assumed all participants had access to the internet. Another problem was the firewalls for some school systems prevented these participants from accessing the survey at work. The survey was only conducted in Virginia.

Validity– Long form of the MSQ (1977 revision). Construct validity- It measured what it was suppose to. Concurrent validity– data was collected from 25 occupational groups (n= 2.955). The group differences were statistically significant at the .001 levels for both the means and variances on all 20 dimensions of the MSQ.

Reliability– MSQ has been used numerous times and has undergone extensive analysis.

Internal consistency– Hoyt’s method of analysis of variance showed a reliability coefficient for 83% of the groups at .80 or larger. The Cronbach alpha was .97.

Results– Overall, high school principals were less satisfied with their pay. Job Satisfaction– Minority principals were less satisfied than their white counterparts. Principals with 3 assistant principals in their buildings had higher levels of job satisfaction than those principals with fewer assistant principals. Principals making \$50,000 reported less satisfaction than those principals making \$100,000. Principals whose schools had met AYP reported higher levels of job satisfaction than principals at schools that were working towards meeting AYP. But there was no significant difference in

job satisfaction and the number of years as a principal, socio-economic status of the school, student body size, or the years in the current district.

Waskiewicz (1999).

Variables That Contribute To Job Satisfaction of Secondary School Assistant Principal.

Herzberg's Motivational Hygiene Theory

The MSQ measures three components of job satisfaction: intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction

Target Population of 1,000 secondary assistant principals. The actual number of participants was 291.

Independent Variables– feelings of compensation fairness, life satisfaction, career aspirations, ability utilization, opportunity for advancement, supervisor relations; and age;

Dependent Variables– intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction

Statistics–A path analysis was run to determine the direct and indirect effects in the three models (one for each of the dependent variables: extrinsic, intrinsic, and general job satisfaction). Both supervisor relations ($b = .23, .60, .39$) and ability utilization ($b = .50, .18, .41$) impacted job satisfaction. Feelings of compensation fairness was found to have a moderate effect ($b = .30, p < .01$) on extrinsic job satisfaction and a small effect on general job satisfaction ($b = .17, p < .01$). A test of model fit revealed that the proposed path models for extrinsic, intrinsic, and general job satisfaction did not fit the data, so the theories hypothesizing the variables that affect job satisfaction in assistant principals may not be adequate.

Limitations–The participants were not randomly selected and were chosen from the same geographic area. It was small, only 20 individuals. The population for the study was all members of the NASSP, and it may not be representative of those assistant principals who are not members of the NASSP.

Reliability– Used pre-existing survey, The MSQ– Short Form. The Cronbach's alpha is 77%. The Alternative survey also used had a Cronbach's alphas of .81 or higher for all the scales

Validity– Content validity is present because the content on MSQ Short Form was taken from MSQ Long Form

Concurrent Validity is present because it was compared to the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ).

Threat to external validity– Generalizability to a larger group may be compromised because sample population consisted of small population.

Results– assistant principals in this study were more satisfied with the intrinsic aspects of their jobs than they were with extrinsic aspects of their jobs. Life Satisfaction–Over 90% of respondents noted that they were either satisfied or very satisfied with their lives.

Career Aspirations–For this study, the career aspirations of assistant principals were not leading them to seek higher administrative positions in education. less than 42% (41.9%) indicated they would stay assistant principals for the rest of their careers. Negative relationship between career aspirations and intrinsic job satisfaction ($b=-.12$).

Ability Utilization and Variety of Responsibilities

57% of the respondents indicated that they perceived that their abilities were used often. Ability utilization had the strongest effect ($b=.41$). 516 students in principal certification programs in Kentucky were measured to assess their degree of attraction to principal positions. Supervisor relations effect extrinsic job satisfaction($b=.60$)

Werner, P. (2007).

Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Factors That Should Be Included in Principal Preparation Programs.

(Non-experimental, descriptive study)

Herzberg's Motivational-Hygiene Theory

Purpose— to examine elementary school principals' perceptions of the importance of specific factors that should be included in educational administration programs.

Random sample of 300 elementary principals selected from a list of principals from Michigan State Department of Education

Independent Variables— Type of principal preparation programs: Colleges' and Universities' Educational Leadership Programs, internal school systems' programs. Professional characteristics— previous position in education, years of experience in different positions in education, mobility in upward movement in a district. Personal characteristics— age, gender, educational background

Dependent Variable— The perception of elementary school principals on how these competencies were applied in the role of elementary school principal: building management, leadership in staff personnel, internal and external relations, instructional leader, student activities, pupil personnel, technology and information systems, Limitations— Only used elementary principals in Michigan. This study limited the factors to school management, leadership in staff personnel, internal and external relations, instructional leadership, student activities, pupil personnel, and technology, and information systems).

Validity— Pilot study conducted with 11 school administrators, who reviewed the survey. No threats to internal validity or external validity

Reliability— Survey adapted from previous surveys (i.e. Kriekland, 1985; Sturock, 1997).

Internal Consistency— Cronbach's alpha was .92. Each competency on the survey was rated twice.

Results— Principals reported that educational administration programs focused on theory instead of day-to-day operations. Time management, preparation of reports, dealing with parents, technology and discipline were

Winter, Rinehart, Keedy, & Bjork
(2004, 2007 respectively).

Recruiting Certified Personnel To Be
Principals: A Statewide Assessment of
Potential Job Applicants.

Deciding to Become a Principal: What
Factors Motivate or Inhibit That
Decision?

(Conducted a causal-comparative study)

Herzberg's Motivational Hygiene
Theory and Job Choice Theory

not addressed by their programs.

The year of principal certification and self-reported capability to do the job as school leader were significant predictors of participant principal job ratings.

Survey questionnaire

Motivators/Satisfiers: 20 job satisfaction facets
Hygienes/ Dissatisfiers: Recruitment practices
and job restructuring

No matter what job position the participants currently held; no significant differences between the groups.

Independent Variables– grouping variables job status (current job, job of principal) for paired t-tests; principal component analysis– intrinsic job facets and district policy, work hours and family time, job security, job enrichment and responsibility, and income and career advancement

Control Variable– age, gender

Dependent Variables– applicant's rating of a principal job depicted in a simulated principal job description.

Statistics– Descriptive statistics for participants; t-test for , principal component analysis yielded a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO)= .88 and Bartlett's test was multiple regression $\chi^2 = 3,644.9$, $df = 190$, $p \leq .0001$ for Current job satisfaction: Component 1, which was intrinsic job facets and district policy, explained 30.7 % of the variance. Component 2 (work hours family time) explained 12.5 % variance. Component 3 (job enrichment and career advancement) explained 6.3 % of variance. Component 4 (income) explained 5.2 % of variance. Component 5 (vacation and job security) explained 5.0 % of the variance in the job facets.

Expected job satisfaction: KMO = .91; The Bartlett's test– $\chi^2 = 3,981.5$, $df = 190$, $p \leq .0001$. Component 1 (work hours and family time) explained 35.1 % of the variance in the job facets. Component 2 (intrinsic job facets and job security) explained 10.8 % of the variance

in the job facets. Component 3 (job enrichment and responsibility) explained 5.4 % of the variance in job facets. Component 4 (income and career advancement) explained 5.1 % of the variance in job facets.

Limitations– This survey gives accurate measurements of respondents' perceptions on what motivates them; however, their descriptions may not represent the total population.

Validity– Panel of 4 professors reviewed survey for content and construct validity. Construct validity– a principal component analysis was done by the researchers for the 20 job facets (current job and expected job satisfaction).

No threat to internal validity, but there was a threat to external validity– Population validity because the perceptions of educational administration students may differ from the same type of students in programs in CA and/ or NY.

Reliability–A pilot group of teachers, who were either enrolled in educational administration programs or those who were not (N = 71), with characteristics similar to those of the participants in the actual study, completed the research instruments. check the clarity of The instrument, and assess the reliability of the composite score of the job rating. Also, the two ratings items were adopted from previous recruitment studies. Then, follow up analyses (chi-square) were conducted. Coefficient alpha for the composite score of .93.

It was administered twice 466 and 516 principal certified personnel in Kentucky.

Results–This study identified two significant predictors of certified potential school leaders: year of principal do not actively seek principal vacancies soon after they receive their certification are more likely not to pursue school leadership positions.

The majority of participants either did not actively pursue a school leader job, or the

central office administrators did not view them as desirable candidates.

Suggestions: School systems could provide more vacation time for principals and assistant principals. Time constraints could be managed better by reducing the number of evening events. Also, support personnel could be added to help with paperwork. Job security would not be a great concern for potential principals and assistant principals if school systems guaranteed employment in another position, if the individuals are removed from their school building level administrator job.

Job security		10
Effect on a spouse		5
Work climate	7	6
Achievement	1	
Recognition	2	
Status	10	
Advancement		4

Appendix D

Inhibitors

Items	Bass (2004)	Harris et al. (2000)	Herzberg Et al. (1959)	Pounder & Merrill (2001)	Stemple (2004)	Winter et al. (2004)
Increased commitment	2	1	12	1		
Paperwork/ bureaucracy	5 and 6	2	1	2	5	
Pressure of standardized testing	3	3		3		
Potential litigation	7	4		4		
Lack of autonomy		5	2	5		2 and 11
Discipline problems		5		5		
No tenure	9	7		7		
Requirements of NCLB	8	8		8		
Isolation and alienation		9		9		8
Distance from students		10		10		
Salary	10	12	4	12	6	1
Recognition			3			5
Interpersonal- Supervisor			5		3	
Work itself		13	6	13		
Working Conditions			7		1	9
Advancement			7			6

Possibility of growth		9		4
Interpersonal relations – peers		10		
Increased stress	1			
Family responsibilities	4	12		
Outside pressures		11	11	
Achievement		11		7
Interpersonal relations – subordinates				3
Opportunity to demonstrate talents				10
Security				2
Status				4

Appendix E
Correspondence

June 16, 2009

Dr. Keedy,

I am a doctoral candidate in the Educational Planning, Policy, and Leadership Program at The College of William and Mary. My topic is Prospective Principals for the 21st Century: Students' Perspectives on Their Educational Administration Programs and Their Intention Become School Leaders. The research objectives of my study are: to measure current and expected job satisfaction of educational administration students; to identify and rank factors that motivate and inhibit educational administration students' pursuit of school leadership positions. As I was researching my topic, I came across your article, Recruiting Certified Personnel to be Principals: A Statewide Assessment of Potential Job Applicants. Would it be possible for me to use your survey to collect data for my dissertation? If yes, I would need to modify the educational administration standards for Virginia? In addition, could you provide me with validity and reliability information on your survey?

Thank you,

Tambra Pope

Appendix F
Correspondence

Subj: **Re: Permission to Use Your Survey**
Date: 6/19/2009 5:47:07 AM Eastern Daylight Time
From: keedy@louisvillie.edu
To: KSVA27@aol.com

Tambra:

You may use the survey.

John Keedy

Appendix G
Correspondence

Dr. Keedy,

Last summer, you gave me permission to use your survey, but my dissertation committee suggested I make some changes. So, I did. I have attached a copy of the modified version of your survey. Can I use this version for my dissertation proposal?

Thank you,

Tambra Pope

Wednesday, January 20, 2010 America Online: KSVA27

Appendix H

Correspondence

Subj: **Re: Permission to Modify Your Survey**
Date: 3/10/2010 7:12:44 PM Eastern Daylight Time
From: keedy@louisviie.edu
To: Ksva27@aol.com

Yes

John Keedy

Appendix I

Matching Research Questions, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory
with Survey Items

1. <i>What are the differences in reported reasons between students who plan to pursue the principalship versus those who do not?</i>	
The Principal Certification Survey	Herzberg et al. (1959)
<u>Demographics</u> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Gender 2. Ethnicity 3. Marital Status 4. Head of Household 5. Years of Teaching Experience 6. Grade Level Taught 7. Holds Principal Certification 	
2. <i>What are the differences in perceived motivational factors regarding the principalship for earning educational administration certification between students who plan to pursue the principalship versus those who do not?</i>	
<u>Principal Certification</u> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Become qualified to be an assistant principal and principal 9. Increase my salary 10. Expand my career options 11. Pursue professional development 12. Assume a greater leadership role in my district 13. Improve my job status 	<p>Hygiene</p> <p>Hygiene/ Motivator</p> <p>Motivator</p> <p>Motivator</p> <p>Motivator</p> <p>Motivator</p>

14. Make innovations in education	Motivation
<p>4. <i>To what extent does Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory explain the differences in perceived job satisfaction of the principalship versus those who do not?</i></p>	
<p><u>Motivator</u></p> <p>15 Use my knowledge and skills.</p> <p>16 Set high expectations for myself and students.</p> <p>17 Promote diversity.</p> <p>18 Balance work and family responsibilities.</p> <p>19 Handle student discipline.</p> <p>20 Participate in instructional supervision.</p> <p>21 Apply authority.</p> <p>22 Express my opinions.</p> <p>23 Assist teachers.</p> <p>24 Satisfied in my position.</p> <p>25 Be an instructional leader</p> <p>26 Establish two-way communication.</p> <p>27 Make decisions.</p> <p>28 Being evaluated as an administration.</p>	<p>Motivator</p> <p>Motivator</p> <p>Motivator</p> <p>Hygiene</p> <p>Hygiene</p> <p>Motivator</p> <p>Hygiene</p> <p>Motivator</p> <p>Motivator</p> <p>Motivator</p> <p>Motivator</p> <p>Hygiene</p> <p>Motivator</p> <p>Motivator</p>

29 Assess and evaluate staff	Hygiene
30 Provide safe facilities.	Hygiene
31 Use data to improve student achievement.	Hygiene
32 Implement school policies.	Hygiene
33 Work with parents.	Motivator
34 Work with a mentor.	Hygiene
35 Receive a pay increase.	Hygiene/ Motivator
36 Work with community.	Hygiene
37 Partner with local businesses.	Hygiene
38 Advance my career.	Motivator
3. <i>To what degree do educational administration students who plan to pursue the principalship and those students who have little or no intentions to seek that position differ in perceived barriers regarding the principalship?</i>	5. <i>To what extent does Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory explain the differences in perceived barriers of the principalship between educational administration students who plan to pursue a principalship versus those who do not?</i>

<u>Barriers</u>	
39 I am required to move to another school district.	Motivator
40 My work year becomes longer, but my pay will not be significantly affected.	Hygiene
41 My spouse must change jobs.	Hygiene
42 The hours per week I work increase.	Hygiene
43 The extent of my job duties increases.	Hygiene
44 The degree I am held accountable for student achievement increases.	Hygiene
45 I have small children.	Hygiene
46 The hours per day I work increase.	Hygiene
47 Becoming a principal requires me to make a career change.	Motivator
48 I am satisfied with my current job.	Hygiene
49 I would have to deal with the issues surrounding school councils.	Hygiene
50 I have decided I do not want to a principal.	Hygiene
51 The principal application/selection process(that includes school councils)is too burdensome.	Hygiene
52 Being a principal would cause me to lose touch with student.	Hygiene
53 I would have inadequate authority given the high-stakes accountability demanded of me.	Hygiene
54 I could be assigned to a school with	

a high percentage of at-risk students.	Hygiene
55 I would first have to be an assistant principal primarily assigned to student discipline.	Hygiene
56 The lack of tenure.	Hygiene
57 The lack of a cohort of my peers.	Hygiene
58 The lack of support from central office personnel.	Hygiene
59 I do not want to control the school budget.	Hygiene

Appendix J

Informed Consent Form**College of William & Mary**

The general nature of this study entitled " Prospective Principals for the 21st Century: Factors That Motivate and Inhibit the Pursuit of School Leadership for Educational Administration Students " conducted by Tambra Pope has been explained to me. I understand that I will be asked to participate in an online focus group via Facebook. My participation in this study should take a total of about one hour. I understand that my responses will be confidential or that anonymity will be preserved (include appropriate term; "confidential" indicates that subjects' identities and responses will be known to investigator but will not be divulged; "anonymity" indicates that subjects' identities will not be known or connected to responses) and that my name will not be associated with any results of this study. I know that I may refuse to answer any question asked and that I may discontinue participation at any time. I also understand that any grade, payment, or credit (include one of these situations, if applicable) for participation will not be affected by my responses or by my exercising any of my rights. Potential risks resulting from my participation in this project have been described to me. I am aware that I may report dissatisfactions with any aspect of this experiment to the Chair of the Protection of Human Subjects Committee, Dr. Michael Deschenes, 757-221-2778 or mrdesc@wm.edu. I am aware that I must be at least 18 years of age to participate. My signature below signifies my voluntary participation in this project, and that I have received a copy of this consent form.

Date:

Signature: _____

Print Name: _____

Appendix K

Status of protocol EDIRC-2010-06-07-6755-tmpope set to active

This is to notify you on behalf of the Education Internal Review Committee (EDIRC) that protocol EDIRC-2010-06-07-6755-tmpope titled PROSPECTIVE PRINCIPALS FOR THE 21st CENTURY: FACTORS THAT MOTIVATE AND INHIBIT THE PURSUIT OF SCHOOL LEADERSHIP FOREducational Administration Students has been EXEMPTED from formal review because it falls under the following category(ies) defined by DHHS Federal Regulations: 45CFR46.101.b.2.

Work on this protocol may begin on 2010-06-21 and must be discontinued on 2011-06-21.

Should there be any changes to this protocol, please submit these changes to the committee for determination of continuing exemption using the Protocol and Compliance Management channel on the Service tab within myWM (<http://my.wm.edu/>).

Please add the following statement to the footer of all consent forms, cover letters, etc.:

THIS PROJECT WAS FOUND TO COMPLY WITH APPROPRIATE ETHICAL STANDARDS AND WAS EXEMPTED FROM THE NEED FOR FORMAL REVIEW BY THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS COMMITTEE (Phone 757-221-3941) ON 2010-06-21 AND EXPIRES ON 2011-06-21.

You are required to notify Dr. Ward, chair of the EDIRC, at 757-221-2358 (EDIRC-L@wm.edu) and Dr. Deschenes, chair of the PHSC at 757-221-2778 (PHSC-L@wm.edu) if any issues arise during this study.

Good luck with your study.

Appendix L

Focus Group E-Mail

My name is Tambra Pope, and I am a doctoral candidate at The College of William and Mary. I am collecting data for my dissertation, Prospective Principals for the 21st Century: Factors that Motivate and Inhibit Educational Administration Students' Pursuit of School Leadership. My dissertation has a mixed methodology. The population for my study is current students and recent graduates from The College of William and Mary's M. Ed. in the Educational Leadership Program. Thus, your participation in this project will provide useful information on this topic. Your opinions and experiences There are no right or wrong answers.

For this study, I will be conducting an online focus group using Facebook. It will last about an hour. Our session will be private and not accessible to others.

Please feel free to share your views even if it differs from others. Participation in this study is voluntary, and you may withdraw at anytime without any repercussions. All of your comments will be kept confidential for the duration of this study. Therefore, any quotes that are used in the final research study will be credited to pseudonyms and not to the actual participants. However, your permission to use any direct quotes will be sought. At the conclusion of this study, all data will be destroyed. But, you will receive a summary of the research results via e-mail at the conclusion of this study.

Are you available on July 8, 2010 around 6:00 p.m. or July 9, 2010 (TBD)?

For your participation in our online focus group, I would like to show my appreciation by giving you a \$5.00 Barnes and Noble Gift Card.

If you have any questions about this study, please contact me at (757) 487-3558, tmpope@email.wm.edu, or ta6199@cs.com.

Thank you,

Tambra Pope

THIS PROJECT WAS FOUND TO COMPLY WITH APPROPRIATE ETHICAL STANDARDS AND WAS EXEMPTED FROM THE NEED FOR FORMAL REVIEW BY THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS COMMITTEE (Phone 757-221-3941) ON 2010-06-21 AND EXPIRES ON 2011-06-21.

Appendix M

Focus Group Interview Questions

1. Why did you choose the EPPL's General Administration (K–12) Program at The College of William and Mary?
2. At this point in the educational administration program, describe your abilities to perform the job of principal or assistant principal?
 - a. What factors do you possess to be effective for this position?
 - b. If you had to choose one of these factors, which one would be the most helpful to your pursuit of becoming a principal or assistant principal?
Why?
3. Describe the ideal situation that would prompt you to pursue the principalship? assistant principalship?
4. If a position as a principal or assistant principal becomes available, but does not meet your ideal situation for entering school administration, how would you feel about pursuing that job?
5. If you are interested in becoming a principal or assistant principal, when do you plan to start applying for principalship or assistant principalship?
 - a. When did you receive your Virginia's Administration and Supervision PreK–12 endorsement? If you have not received your endorsement, when do you plan to apply?
 - b. What, if any, preference do you have for a principalship or an assistant principalship?
 - c. What, if any, preference do you have for an administrative position at a

specific school level: elementary, middle, or high school?

OR

5. Since you have no interest in pursuing the principalship or the assistant principalship, how do you plan to use your master's degree? Explain your response.
 - a. What impact does your family life have on your pursuit of the principalship or the assistant principalship?
 - b. What other factors deter you from pursuing the principalship or the assistant principalship?
 - c. Can you be specific?
 - d. By completing this program, you will likely meet the requirements necessary for an endorsement in Administration and Supervision PreK–12, will you still seek this endorsement?
6. Are there any additional comments concerning this topic?

Appendix N

First Survey E-Mail

You have been asked to participate in a research study, Prospective Principals for the 21st Century: Factors that Motivate and Inhibit Educational Administration Students' Pursuit of School Leadership, conducted by Tambra Pope, a doctoral candidate at The College of William and Mary. This study will be supervised by Dr. James Stronge. You are being asked to participate in this study because the population for this study is current students and recent graduates from The College of William and Mary's M. Ed. in the Educational Leadership Program.

An online survey will be administered, and you can access it through the link below. For your convenience, you may take the survey at anytime during the three week window. The survey will take about twenty minutes to complete.

Participation in this study is voluntary, and you may withdraw at anytime without any repercussions. At the conclusion of this study, all data will be destroyed.

The results of this research will be published in my dissertation and possibly in subsequent journals or books.

<http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/L87BB2Z>

Reply Forward

Thank you,

Tambra Pope

THIS PROJECT WAS FOUND TO COMPLY WITH APPROPRIATE ETHICAL STANDARDS AND WAS EXEMPTED FROM THE NEED FOR FORMAL REVIEW BY THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS COMMITTEE (Phone 757-221-3941) ON 2010-06-21 AND EXPIRES ON 2011-06-21

Appendix O

Second Survey E-mail Invitation

Participation in Survey for My Dissertation– Second Notice

Please disregard this message if you have already taken my survey.

You have been asked to participate in a research study, Prospective Principals for the 21st Century: Factors that Motivate and Inhibit Educational Administration Students' Pursuit of School Leadership, conducted by Tandra Pope, a doctoral candidate at The College of William and Mary. This study will be supervised by Dr. James Stronge. You are being asked to participate in this study because the population for this study is current students and recent graduates from The College of William and Mary's M. Ed. in the Educational Leadership Program.

An on-line survey will be administered, and you can access it through the link below. For your convenience, you may take the survey at anytime during the three week window. The survey will take about twenty minutes to complete.

Participation in this study is voluntary, and you may withdraw at anytime without any repercussions. At the conclusion of this study, all data will be destroyed.

The results of this research will be published in my dissertation and possibly in subsequent journals or books.

<http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/L87BB2Z>

Reply Forward

Thank you,

Tandra Pope

THIS PROJECT WAS FOUND TO COMPLY WITH APPROPRIATE ETHICAL STANDARDS AND WAS EXEMPTED FROM THE NEED FOR FORMAL REVIEW BY THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS COMMITTEE (Phone 757-221-3941) ON 2010-06-21 AND EXPIRES ON 2011-06-21.

Appendix P
Principal Certification Survey

Principal Certification Survey

1. Demographics

INSTRUCTIONS: Please enter the information below that best describes you. All information will be anonymous and confidential.

1. Age

2. Gender

Male

Female

3. Ethnicity (Choose One)

Caucasian

African American

Hispanic American

Mixed Ethnicity

4. Marital Status:

Single

Married/Committed Partnership

Separated/Divorced/Widowed

5. Number of Dependents:

0

1

2

3

4 or more

6. Are you the primary wage earner in your household?

Yes

No

7. Teaching Experience (Years Taught Including the Current Year):

Principal Certification Survey

8. At which school level are you currently teaching?

- Elementary School
- Middle School
- High School
- Unemployed
- Administration/Central Office
- Employed Outside of the Field of Education

9. Are you a career switcher?

- Yes
- No

10. If you are a career switcher, how long were you working in field or fields outside of education?

11. Select the statement that best describes your current status with regard to earning your M.Ed. in Educational Administration.

- I have completed up to 12 credit hours in the program.
- I have completed 13-24 credit hours in the program.
- I have completed 25-36 credit hours in the program.
- I have graduated from the program.

12. Do you currently hold an administration endorsement?

- Yes
- No

13. If yes, in what year did you earn your administrative certification?

14. If no, have you applied for your administrative endorsement?

- Yes
- No

Principal Certification Survey

2. Reasons for Earning Principal Certification

INSTRUCTIONS: Reasons for earning principal certification are listed below with scales ranging Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Agree, and Strongly Agree. To what extent were the reasons below important in your decision to earn principal certification? Please choose the one that best reflects your opinion for each scale.

I Will Earn Principal Certification to:

1. Become qualified to be an assistant principal and principal

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

2. Increase my salary

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

3. Expand my career options

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

4. Pursue professional development

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Principal Certification Survey**5. Assume a greater leadership role in my district**

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

6. Improve my job status

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

7. Make innovations in education

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Principal Certification Survey

3. Perceived Job Satisfaction for the Principalship/Assistant Principalship

INSTRUCTIONS: Rate the job characteristics below. The scale ranges from Highly Dissatisfied, Dissatisfied, Satisfied, and Highly Satisfied. The scale relates to your expected job satisfaction if you were to assume a position as principal. Please choose the one that best reflects your opinion regarding expected job satisfaction for each scale.

If I were a principal, I would expect to rate my satisfaction with the below job characteristics as...
Job Characteristics

1. Use my knowledge and skills

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

2. Set high expectations for myself and students

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

3. Promote diversity

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

4. Balance work and family responsibilities

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

Principal Certification Survey**5. Handle student discipline**

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

6. Participate in instructional supervision

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

7. Apply authority

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

8. Express my opinions

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

9. Assist teachers

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

Principal Certification Survey**10. Satisfied in my position**

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

11. Be an instructional leader

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

12. Establish two-way communication

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

13. Make decisions

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

14. Being evaluated as an administrator

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

Principal Certification Survey**15. Assess and evaluate staff**

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

16. Provide safe facilities

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

17. Use data to improve student achievement

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

18. Implement school policies

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

19. Work with parents

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

Principal Certification Survey**20. Work with a mentor**

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

21. Receive a pay increase

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

22. Work with community

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

23. Partner with local businesses

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

24. Advance my career

- Highly Dissatisfied
- Dissatisfied
- Satisfied
- Highly Satisfied

Principal Certification Survey**4. Barriers in the Pursuit of Principalship/Assistant Principalship Positions**

INSTRUCTIONS: Rate each activity by using the scale range from Highly Unlikely, Unlikely, Likely, and Highly Likely. Select the one that best applies to you.

I would be unlikely to pursue the job of principal because ...

1. I am required to move to another school district.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

2. My work year becomes longer, but my pay will not be significantly affected.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

3. My spouse must change jobs.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

4. The hours per week I work increase.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

5. The extent of my job duties increases.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

Principal Certification Survey

6. The degree I am held accountable for student achievement increases.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

7. I have small children.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

8. The hours per day I work increase.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

9. Becoming a principal requires me to make a career change.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

10. I am satisfied with my current job.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

Principal Certification Survey

11. I would have to deal with the issues surrounding school councils.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

12. I have decided I do not want to be a principal.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

13. The principal application/selection process (that includes school councils) is too burdensome.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

14. Being a principal would cause me to lose touch with students.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

15. I would have inadequate authority given the high-stakes accountability demanded of me.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

Principal Certification Survey

16. I could be assigned to a school with a high percentage of at-risk students.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

17. I would first have to be an assistant principal primarily assigned to student discipline.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

18. The lack of tenure

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

19. The lack of a cohort of my peers.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

20. The lack of support from central office personnel.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

Principal Certification Survey

21. I do not want to control the school budget.

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

Principal Certification Survey

5. Career Aspirations

1. I currently am a principal or assistant principal:

- Yes
- No- if no, answer the last two questions

2. How likely are you to interview for a principal or assistant principal position at a school?

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

3. How likely are you to accept a principal or assistant principal position at a school, if offered one?

- Highly Unlikely
- Unlikely
- Likely
- Highly Likely

Appendix Q

t-test Results for the factors of Section II- Reasons for Earning Educational Administration

Certification

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			t-test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Become qualified to be an assistant principal and principal	Equal variances assumed	2.85	.11	1.3	19	.23	.61	.49	-.41	1.63
	Equal variances not assumed			1.9	16.5	.08	.61	.34	-.08	1.31
Increase my salary	Equal variances assumed	.75	.40	.82	19	.42	.40	.49	-.62	1.42
	Equal variances not assumed			1.12	13.41	.28	.40	.36	-.37	1.17
Expand my career options	Equal variances assumed	.29	.60	.75	19	.462	.29	.38	-.51	1.09
	Equal variances not assumed			.91	9.84	.383	.29	.32	-.42	.99
Pursue professional development	Equal variances assumed	.01	.95	-1.53	19	.14	-.60	.39	-1.42	.22
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.88	10.18	.09	-.60	.32	-1.31	.11
Assume a greater leadership role in my district	Equal variances assumed	1.86	.19	.94	19	.36	.36	.385	-.44	1.17
	Equal variances not assumed			1.27	12.89	.23	.36	.29	-.25	.98
Improve my job status	Equal variances assumed	.07	.80	.71	19	.49	.28	.39	-.54	1.09
	Equal variances not assumed			.87	10.03	.41	.28	.32	-.43	.98

Make innovations in education	Equal variances assumed	1.67	.21	-.78	19	.45	-.30	.39	-1.11	.51
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.05	12.93	.31	-.30	.29	-.92	.32

Appendix R

t-test Results for Section IV- t-tests for the factors of Perceived Barriers in the Pursuit of the Principal/Assistant Principal Positions

Variables	Interested		No Interested		<i>t-value</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Becoming a principal requires me to make a career change	2.25	1.26	1.75	.96	.66	.55
I am satisfied with my current job	2.00	1.41	3.00	.89	-1.39	.20
I could be assigned to a school with a high percentage of at-risk students.	2.00	1.41	2.45	.55	-.59	.58
I have decided that I did want to be a principal.	2.75	1.50	3.00	.89	.33	.75
I do not want to control school budget.*	1.25	.50	2.83	1.17	-2.52	.04
I have small children	2.75	1.50	2.75	1.26	.00	1.00
I am required to move to another school district	2.00	.82	3.00	.89	-1.79	.11
I would first have to be an assistant principal primarily assignment.	1.75	.96	2.00	.63	.50	.63
I could be assigned to a school with a high percentage of at-risk students.	1.67	.58	2.50	.55	-2.12	.07
I would have to deal with the issues Surrounding school councils.	1.50	.58	2.17	.75	-1.79	.17
My spouse must change jobs	1.75	1.50	2.00	.63	-.37	.72
My work year becomes longer but my pay will not be significantly	2.00	1.41	3.00	.89	-1.39	.20
The lack of support from central office personnel	2.42	.96	3.17	.75	-1.72	.12
The lack of a cohort of my peers	1.75	.96	2.50	1.05	-1.44	.29
The degree I am held accountable for student achievement increased	1.75	.50	2.17	.75	-.96	.36

The extent of my job duties increases	2.00	1.41	2.40	.55	-.60	.58
The hours per day I work increase*	1.50	.58	3.00	.71	-3.42	.01
The hours per week I work increase	2.00	1.41	3.00	.89	-1.39	.20
The lack of tenure	1.50	.58	2.67	1.51	-1.72	.13

Appendix S

*Condensed Version—t-tests Results for the Perceived Job Satisfaction of the Two Groups**(Interested/Not Interested) in Pursuing the Principalship*

		How likely are you to accept a principal or assistant principal			
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Use my knowledge and skills	Interested	3.50	.58	.48	.65
	Not Interested	3.25	.50		
Set high expectations for myself and students	Interested	3.75	.50	1.00	.39
	Not Interested	4.00	.00		
Promote diversity	Interested	3.25	.50	.25	.81
	Not Interested	3.25	.50		
Balance work and family responsibilities	Interested	1.75	.50	1.34	.22
	Not Interested	2.25	1.26		
Handle student discipline	Interested	2.75	.50	.66	.53
	Not Interested	3.00	.00		
Participate in instructional supervision	Interested	2.75	.96	2.51	.04
	Not Interested	3.75	.50		
Apply authority	Interested	3.00	.00	.00	1.00
	Not Interested	3.00	.82		
Express my opinions	Interested	3.00	.00	.00	1.00
	Not Interested	3.00	.82		
Assist teachers	Interested	3.25	.50	2.03	.77
	Not Interested	3.75	.50		
Satisfied in my position	Interested	2.50	.58	-.75	.48
	Not Interested	2.75	.50		
Be an instructional leader	Interested	3.25	.96		

	Not Interested	4.00	.00		
Establish two-way communication	Interested	3.50	.58	1.98	.22
	Not Interested	3.75	.50		
Make decisions	Interested	3.25	.96	1.08	.31
	Not Interested	3.50	.58		
Being evaluated as an administrator	Interested	2.75	.50	.53	.61
	Not Interested	3.00	.00		
Assess and evaluate staff	Interested	2.75	.50	-.66	.53
	Not Interested	3.50	.58		
Provide safe facilities	Interested	3.50	.58	2.19	.60
	Not Interested	3.75	.50		
Use data to improve student achievement	Interested	3.75	.50	1.08	.31
	Not Interested	3.75	.50		
Implement school policies	Interested	3.25	.96	.25	.81
	Not Interested	3.00	.00		
Work with parents	Interested	3.25	.50	.19	.85
	Not Interested	3.75	.50		
Work with a mentor	Interested	3.00	.00	2.03	.77
	Not Interested	3.50	.58		
Receive a pay increase	Interested	2.50	.58	2.53	.03
	Not Interested	3.50	.58		
Work with community	Interested	2.75	.50	3.35	.01
	Not Interested	3.25	.50		
Partner with local businesses	Interested	2.75	.50	1.77	.12
	Not Interested	3.00	.82		
				.19	.85