Seeking Educational Leadership Certification in Preparation for Applying for the Principalship: A Job Desirability Perspective

A Dissertation submitted
to the Graduate School
Valdosta State University

in partial fulfillment of requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in Educational Leadership

in the Department of Leadership, Technology and Workforce Development
of the Dewar College of Education and Human Services

March 2022

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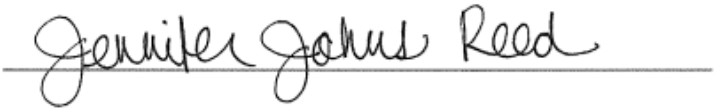
Signature 

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ABSTRACT

This quantitative study used survey research methods and job choice theory to investigate the factors influencing educators to pursue leadership certification in preparation for the principalship and determine how the leadership certification rule changes in Georgia have impacted educators who aspire to become leaders. Educators' perceptions of the overall attractiveness of the principalship and their job intentions, specifically their likelihood of seeking, being offered, and accepting a leadership position in the foreseeable future were investigated using the Principal Job Survey (Barksdale, 2003; Pounder & Merrill, 2001). Descriptive statistics and a series of hierarchical regression models were employed to analyze the relationship between the independent variables (objective, subjective, work itself, school context, and critical contact), demographic variables, Georgia educational leadership certification requirements, and the dependent variable, the job desirability index. Results indicated several significant predictors of willingness. Specifically, subjective and work-itself job choice factors, educators' probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC rules, and probability of obtaining Tier II certification only. Implications reveal the additional cost and time requirements of current Georgia certification rules heavily influence educators' willingness to obtain leadership certification, emphasizing the importance of policymakers acknowledging the challenges of these requirements and considering incentives to attract and retain quality leaders.

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There are many to thank who have been a part of this journey. First and foremost, I want to thank God for being with me every step of the way. None of this would be possible without His favor and blessings. I give Him all the honor and glory.

I would like to thank my mother. This degree would not have been possible without her help, love, encouragement, and continual prayers and support of this dream. She spent many days watching my babies so I could study and write. You are the most selfless person I know. I love you so much! Next, I would like to thank my husband, Brandon. Thank you for always believing in me and encouraging me to keep on pushing, even on the hardest days when I wanted to quit. You were always so understanding when I needed to spend time on this project. I love you. To my children, Ben, Andrew, and Kate, I hope this degree serves as a reminder you can do absolutely anything you set your mind to. Thank you for being so understanding when I needed to spend time studying. I love you all so much. You are my greatest accomplishment. I hope you are proud of your momma!

I would also like to thank my Valdosta State cohort. We spent many Saturdays in class together. Meeting you and forming lasting friendships was one of the best parts of this experience. I am so proud of you all and honored to call you friends. To my friend, Dr. Amber Loughridge, we started and finished this journey together. I am thankful for your friendship and unwavering support. We did it! I would also like to thank the educators who took time out of their busy days to complete my survey. This study would not have been possible without them.

Last, I would like to thank my dissertation committee. To my dissertation chair, Dr. Michael Bochenko, thank you for inspiring me to select a topic I was passionate about and helping me see it through to completion. I have loved learning and working with you. To my researcher, Dr. Sakhavat Mammadov, thank you for the statistical insight you provided. Thank you to my committee members, Dr. John Lairsey and Dr. Leon Pate. I admire you both. Thank you for your passion about my topic and contribution to my study. It was a pleasure to have you serve on my committee.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my daddy, Dennis Johns Jr. Thank you for instilling in me the importance of education, always believing in me, and encouraging me to go into this profession. Your prayers, faith, and encouragement throughout my life certainly made this accomplishment possible. I love and miss you every day. I know you would be so proud!

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

An imminent principal shortage in America has been predicted since the early 2000s (Whitaker, 2001). Traditionally, the principal applicant pool is comprised of teachers; however, the position has become less than desirable, intensifying the shortage of qualified leaders (Gilman & Lahman-Givens, 2001). Many educators obtain the proper leadership credentials, but then choose not to enter the position (Cushing & Kerrins, 2004; Pounder & Merrill, 2001). The challenges associated with the principalship, such as high stakes testing accountability and increased job responsibilities have been cited as deterrents discouraging educators from becoming principals (Howley, Andrianaivo, & Perry, 2005; Pijanowski, Hewitt, & Brady, 2009). The principal shortage is not only impacted by teachers choosing not to pursue leadership, but also by principals who are not remaining in their positions. Poor job satisfaction among principals is found throughout the literature (Kwan & Walker, 2012; Metlife, Inc., 2013; Tekleselassie & Villareal, 2011). It is estimated that approximately 25% of principals leave their positions each year (School Leaders Network, 2014). There are more principal vacancies than willing applicants interested in filling the positions (Stone-Johnson, 2014). With school leadership being essential in increasing student achievement, it is imperative to understand the factors that influence educators' decisions regarding seeking leadership certification in preparation for the principalship (Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2020). In addition to the national principal shortage, Georgia's route to leadership certification

has changed significantly throughout recent years. Literature on the impact of these changes coupled with the job factors that encourage or discourage educators from seeking leadership certification in preparation for the principalship is limited.

Prior to 2008, educators in Georgia completed traditional leadership certification programs. Traditional leadership programs consisted of college coursework with little to no field experience requirements. Educators who completed traditional leadership programs and received a passing score on the Georgia Assessments for the Certification of Educators (GACE) Educational Leadership assessment received certification qualifying them to hold either a building level (principal or assistant principal) or a system level (superintendent or program/curriculum director) leadership role in a school system (GaPSC, 2008). The need for educational leadership preparation reform was influenced by the rising demands of academic accountability, research findings focused on the relationship between leadership practices and student achievement, and the perceived shortage of educational leaders (Orr, 2006). Georgia policy makers began examining educational leadership certification and preparation policy reform in 2004 and has since enacted two major reforms regarding educational leadership preparation and certification (GaPSC, 2008). The first reform occurring between 2008 and 2014 focused upon a performance-based model. Performance based models entailed far more field experience and on-the-job training compared to previous traditional leadership programs that were heavily research-based and thesis-style structured courses. In a performance-based program, candidates spend an extended amount of time in the field completing leadership projects in their respective schools (Nixon, Dam, Cooper, & Henderson, 2011). The second reform was the introduction of a two-tiered certification model

introduced in 2015. The two-tiered model consists of entry and advanced level leadership certification options for P-12 educators. Tier I (entry level) certification is designed for educators interested in serving in school level positions, such as an assistant principal or positions at the district level that do not require supervising principals. Tier II (advanced level) certification is designed for candidates interested in becoming a principal or district level leader that supervises principals or other educational leaders.

The development of the performance-based preparation program requirements involved the recommendations of stakeholders from the Georgia Department of Education (GaDOE), the Georgia Leadership Institute for School Improvement (GLISI), state level professional associations, preparation program faculty, and local districts (GaPSC, 2008). Traditional educational leadership preparation programs were phased out and replaced by performance-based preparation programs with increased, multifaceted requirements. The new requirements included school system recommendation of candidates prior to admission, partnerships with the candidates' schools, and extensive clinical experiences (GaPSC, 2008). The performance-based programs aligned to national standards began in the fall of 2008.

During the economic recession in 2009, Georgia legislators carefully examined the money being spent on educators' advanced degrees. At that time, educators earned a pay raise for advanced degrees at the Master's, Specialist, or Doctorate level regardless of whether the degrees were considered in-field. The GaPSC considers a degree to be in-field if it matches the name of a certification field already issued to the educator by the GaPSC. The state was paying 68 million dollars for advanced degrees in educational leadership to educators who were not in leadership positions (GaPSC, 2010). In response

to this, legislators enacted two major policy changes. House Bill 455 and House Bill 923 were passed by the Georgia General Assembly allowing only educators serving in a leadership position pursuant to rules of the State Board of Education, GaPSC, Department of Education or requirements of local policy or job description to receive placement on the salary scale for advanced degrees in educational leadership. Educators receiving a master's degree in educational leadership would no longer receive an upgrade on the pay scale for obtaining an advanced degree. Educators interested in obtaining a specialist degree in educational leadership were required to already be in a leadership position. Preparation programs were also required to transition to a performance-based curriculum (Buckman, Johnson, & Alexander, 2018; Georgia General Assembly, 2009).

Due to policy changes, the Georgia Professional Standards Commission (GaPSC) stopped honoring out-of-state educational leadership preparation programs (GaPSC, 2008). Out of state degrees were determined to be of lesser quality than degrees offered by in state programs. After these policy changes went into effect, the number of educators seeking educational leadership certification began to decline. According to Buckman et al. (2018) there was an average of 2,378 educational leadership certificates issued per year in Georgia between 2005 and 2010 compared to an average of 653 licenses issued per year from 2011 to 2016. This is a decrease of approximately 1,725 educators obtaining leadership certification after HB 455 and HB 923 were implemented.

In 2015, Georgia's entire educator certification process was undergoing change. Georgia was one of only 10 states not implementing a tiered certification system for educators (GaPSC, 2013). Research findings on student achievement, school improvement, and the importance of learning communities prompted the transition from a

single to multi-tiered system. Tiered certification is based on motivation theory and offers opportunities for professional growth and eliminates the flat professional curve for teachers (GaPSC, 2013). A tiered certification system allows education candidates to be subject to the Georgia Code of Ethics, prioritizes resources and attention on early career teachers, and ensures advancement is based on teaching effectiveness, and provides a pathway for teachers to advance in the profession, even if they prefer to stay in the classroom (GaPSC, 2013). Georgia implemented four tiers of certification: pre-service, induction, professional, and advanced professional or lead professional.

The second round of educational leadership certification reform also occurred during this time and stemmed from the work of an Educational Leadership Task Force created the year prior to implementation by the Georgia Professional Standards Commission. There were four reasons prompting the leadership rule change: new national standards, discomfort with school system selection of candidates, educator preparation provider (EPP) concerns regarding program curriculum, and lack of preparation for high stakes assessment (GaPSC, 2014). The two-tiered approach was added to the leadership performance-based model (GaPSC, 2015; GaPSC, 2016). The purpose of the performance-based tiers was to add experience and opportunities for educators to practice and demonstrate proficiency in the real-life setting with an increased focus on instructional leadership, culture building, personalizing the learning environment, and school improvement (GaPSC, 2014). Tier I was designed for educators interested in being an assistant principal or district level leader not responsible for supervising principals. Tier I programs are offered at the master's level. Tier I programs are designed to be heavier in coursework with fewer clinical hours than Tier II. Clinical

hours at the Tier I level require at least 250 hours. Teachers can self-select into a program, but partnership with their school system is required. They must pass an ethics assessment, as well as the Educational Leadership GACE. Tier I certification is a prerequisite of Tier II certification.

Tier II was designed for educators interested in being a principal, superintendent, or leader responsible for supervising principals (GaPSC, 2015; GaPSC, 2016). Tier II programs are offered at the Specialist or Doctoral level, predominantly comprised of clinical practice, and require a minimum of 750 clinical hours. The number of clinical hours is substantially more than Tier I program requirements. Prior to admission, candidates must submit a Letter of Assurance form signed by a district administrator. A partnership between the program and district is mandatory. Upon completion of the program, candidates are required to submit a performance-based assessment portfolio.

Georgia's current two-tiered leadership certification requirements differ from surrounding states, such as Tennessee and Alabama. Certification requirements in these states are more similar to the requirements Georgia had prior to 2015 when certificates were issued as building or system level. Like Georgia, leadership certification in surrounding states requires successful completion of approved programs followed by a passing score on the respective state's exam.

In Tennessee, there are two levels of administrative licenses. The initial administrative license issued to educators is the Instructional Leadership License-Beginning (ILL-B). The initial administrative license can be earned by completing a state-approved master's degree program in school administration and supervision/educational leadership. The advanced administrative license issued to

educators is the Instructional Leadership License-Professional (ILL-P). To advance from ILL-B to ILL-P certification, candidates must complete the required professional development activities for school leaders and possess at least three years of work experience under the ILL-B. The two pathways for seeking advancement from ILL-B to ILL-P are through the Tennessee Academy for School Leaders (TASL) Pathway or Individual Professional Learning (IPLP) Pathway.

Leadership programs in Alabama were restructured during the 2007-2008 academic year. Alabama offers two levels of leadership certification: Class A Building Level Instructional Leadership and Class AA System Level Instructional Leadership. To obtain Class A certification, candidates must complete a traditional master's degree program in educational leadership or reduced-hour certification-only program, also referred to as the administrative add-on program. An educational specialist degree in educational leadership must be obtained to qualify for Class AA instructional leadership certification for the system level.

Program costs for educators interested in becoming a principal increased when Georgia implemented the tiered certification system. Previously, educators could obtain building level certification that gave them the proper credentials to be a principal or assistant principal. Now, educators must first obtain Tier I certification to be an assistant principal and Tier II certification to become a principal. This is an added cost of an additional certification program previously not required because of the structuring changes. Educational leadership degree and certification-only program averages for the 2020-2021 academic year were gathered through communications with program providers from GaPSC approved programs in the state of Georgia (E. Finchman, S. Hall,

& R. Sasser, personal communication, November 2, 2020). According to the data obtained, below are the average costs of each certification:

- Tier I educational leadership master's degree program: $16,107.00
- Tier I educational leadership certification-only program: $7,738.00
- Tier II educational leadership specialist degree: $13,824.00
- Tier II educational leadership certification-only program: $8,535.00

According to data obtained from the GaPSC certification database, there was an average of 2,114 clear renewable and non-renewable educational leadership certificates issued per year between 2001 and 2010 (J. Fethe, personal communication, February 10, 2022). An average of 933 certificates were issued per year between 2011 and 2021. This data represents there are less educators seeking leadership certification compared to pre-reform when programs remained traditional. A significant cost increase was experienced by educators when Georgia implemented the two-tiered system. Individuals could no longer obtain a single degree or certification qualifying them to be building level leaders such as a principal or assistant principal. New certification requirements resulted in educators having to first obtain Tier I certification to be an assistant principal prior to obtaining Tier II certification leading to the position of principal, superintendent, or any leadership position supervising other school or system administrators. This additional "step" finds educators confronted with the additional cost attributed to another degree or certification-only program.

Georgia is currently taking a proactive approach to increase teacher retention and prepare teacher leaders to move into future leadership roles. In 2018, the Governor's Office of Student Achievement (GOSA) developed the Governor's School Leadership Academy (GSLA). The purpose of the GSLA was to support new teacher development, increase retention in the first three years, and create pathways for teachers to grow into

transformational leaders in various roles throughout their educational career (GOSA, 2019). The four levels of educational practice addressed include: induction teachers, teacher leaders, aspiring principals, and principals. Of the four levels, two focus primarily on building leadership. The Aspiring Principal Program is designed for educators with three or more years of effective experience who wish to become a principal, recommendation from their superintendent, and work in a district with a federally identified school. The Principal Support Program is designed for principals presently working in a federally designated school falling under such programs as Comprehensive Support and Improvement (CSI), Targeted Support and Improvement (TSI), Promise, or School Improvement Grant (SIG). A primary goal of the GSLA programs was to cultivate high-capacity school leaders by offering leadership preparation and support to teachers (GOSA, 2019). The Aspiring Principal Program and The Principal Support Program consists of in-person training, personalized coaching, and job-embedded assignments. The key objectives of the program include school leader support and coaching, formulating a network of Georgia school leaders, developing a pipeline for school leadership job vacancies, and ensuring effective leadership in schools throughout the state (GOSA, 2019).

Leadership certification in Georgia and surrounding states has experienced a history of significant changes since the early 2000s. Certification reform was sparked by the belief that traditional programs with a heavy theoretical base were not rigorous enough to prepare leaders with the skills needed to accomplish school improvement efforts in today's high-stakes accountability era (Orr, 2006). Because of these concerns, many states transitioned their preparation programs from traditional to performance based

(Murphy, Moorman, & McCarthy, 2008). Today, leadership programs are specifically designed to target the position the candidate is seeking and requires numerous hours of field experience, a partnership between the candidate's school system and program provider, and performance-based activities that requires them to demonstrate their ability to perform in a leadership role in a real school setting.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of educational leadership preparation and certification reform was to better prepare leaders to increase academic success in schools and improve the knowledge and quality of leaders emerging with leadership certification (Pannell, Peltier-Glaze, Haynes, Davis, & Skelton, 2015). Limited research was conducted on whether the intended purpose of the reform produced the desired outcome of more successful leaders. There was, however, a drastic decline in the number of leadership certificates being issued in the state of Georgia since HB 455 and HB 923 were implemented (Buckman et al., 2018). Buckman et al.'s study found the average decrease to be approximately 1,725 less leadership certificates being issued per year after the rule changes were implemented. The role of principal evolved over the past 20 years. In the past, principals were primarily charged with managerial duties, but in recent years the role shifted into being the primary instructional leader concentrating on the development of teachers and creating a school culture focused on students and conducive to learning (Leithwood, Seashore-Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). According to the GaPSC (2014), implementing a tiered certification system placed more focus on raising standards while empowering educators and offering more opportunities for advancement. At the Tier I entry level, instructional leadership is the primary focus compared to developing

executive leadership skills at the Tier II advanced level. As a result of the reform, programs would heavily focus on building school culture, instructional leadership, school improvement, and personalizing the learning environment (GaPSC, 2014). Little empirical evidence exists to determine if the certification rule changes in Georgia directly impacted the decrease in the number of educators becoming leaders. If schools led by leaders who completed performance-based preparation programs are not out-performing schools led by leaders who completed traditional leadership preparation programs, then the certification reform did not have the intended effect. There is also a limited number of recent studies focusing on the reasons educators are motivated or discouraged from entering school leadership positions such as the principalship (Hine, 2013). The rapidly changing role of the principal is thought to be a primary deterrent (Shellard, 2003). Many teachers do not believe the principal's salary is high enough to compensate for the increased responsibilities and additional time requirements compared to being in the classroom (Gilman & Lanman-Givens, 2001). To better understand the problem, research is needed to focus on factors influencing an educator's decision to pursue leadership certification, with a focus placed on the certification rule change. Research indicates even though teachers hold educational leadership certification, it does not mean they are willing to pursue school leadership roles (Baron, 1990; Cushing & Kerrins, 2004; McAdams, 1998; Tran & Buckman, 2017; Winter, Rinehart, & Muñoz, 2001); therefore, not only is it important to investigate the factors influencing their decision regarding seeking certification in preparation for the principalship, but it is also imperative to find out their future job intentions regarding pursuing the principalship.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the factors influencing educators to pursue leadership certification in preparation for the principalship and determine how the leadership certification rule changes in Georgia have impacted educators who aspire to become leaders. Job choice attributes specific to the principalship were explored to determine the influence subjective, objective, and critical contact factors had on educators' decisions to pursue leadership certification in preparation for the principalship. The study also examined educators' perceptions of the overall attractiveness of the principalship and their job intentions, specifically their likelihood of seeking, being offered, and accepting a position in educational leadership in the foreseeable future. The probability of accepting a position assumes they would be offered a position. An analysis of the data determined the impact leadership certification rules have on aspiring leaders, the importance of involving key stakeholders who are directly impacted by policy decisions, and the effects of limiting the pool of qualified and trained leaders available to sustain or improve student achievement at the school level. Knowing the role these job and certification factors play in educators' decision to pursue or not to pursue leadership certification in preparation for the principalship can inform states and districts on how to attract and retain potential school leaders.

Research Questions

The following research questions were used to investigate the factors that contribute to educators' willingness to seek leadership certification in preparation for the principalship. By studying objective factors, such as salary and benefits, subjective factors, such as emotional and physiological needs, critical contact factors, such as the

perception of the recruiter and organization, and Georgia specific factors related to the increased cost of obtaining certification since the rule change was enacted, the study identified the specific factors motivating and inhibiting educators from going into leadership. In addition, the study investigated the relationship between educators' job attribute perceptions, overall job desirability, and their future job intentions.

1. How do principal job attributes, factors associated with the certification rule change, and demographic variables predict an educator's willingness to pursue a degree or certification in educational leadership in Georgia?
2. What perceptions do educators have regarding the overall attractiveness of an educational leadership position, such as the principalship?
3. What perceptions do educators have regarding the probability of seeking, being offered, and accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future?

Demographic variables included gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, current professional assignment, and highest degree earned. Job attributes of the principalship included objective, subjective, work itself, school context, and critical contact factors.

Significance of the Study

When policy changes in education are enacted, it is important to research such changes to determine if the intended outcome was achieved. Because the role of the principal has undergone significant change and the leadership certification rule change in Georgia is relatively recent, it is imperative to examine the impact these crucial components had on aspiring leaders. In addition to other influential factors, Georgia policy makers could benefit by knowing if the new requirements brought about by the

reform have positively or negatively impacted the number of educators obtaining leadership certification and the reasons why. This information could be valuable to policy makers in determining the future decisions regarding leadership certification rules in Georgia, because it is important to understand the reasons motivating or discouraging educators from seeking leadership certification. A shortage of qualified applicants needed to successfully lead schools and carry out school improvement efforts to increase academic achievement could eventually result if we do not fully understand the reasoning behind their decisions.

Conceptual Framework

Job choice theory provides the necessary framework to investigate the job factors of the principalship that influence educators' decisions to seek educational leadership certification in preparation for the principalship. It is important to note, there are limited empirical studies focused on job choice theory in the current literature. Job choice theory was originally developed in 1968 by organizational and industrial psychologists, Behling, Labovitz and Gainer in an effort to explain position choice behavior of college students (Behling, Labovitz, & Gainer, 1968). The researchers identified three theories of position selection: subjective factor theory, objective factor theory, and critical contact theory.

Although developed in the industrial business setting, job choice theory was later applied to the educational landscape by Young, Rinehart, and Place (1989). At that time, the majority of research on teacher selection was based on the administrator's perspective, rather than perspective of the applicant. Young et al. (1989) proposed that each perspective was equally important in understanding the selection process. Researchers conducted a single-factor quasi experimental study focusing on the teacher

as the decision maker in the job selection process using job choice theory. Participants in the study included 114 teachers working on advanced certification or degrees at a research university during the summer semester. Participants were asked to watch a recorded recruitment interview. After viewing the recording, participants responded to the specific interview depicted. Contents in the interviews varied and included job factors related to the subjective, objective and critical contact theory. Scripts used in each interview were written by experts in each job choice theory. An elementary teaching position in a midwestern state and the interviewer was the same for all interview recordings to prevent unwanted variance. After viewing the recruitment interview, teachers rated their perceptions of the following using a 4-point Likert scale: (a) overall attractiveness of the position, (b) probability of accepting another interview, and (c) probability of accepting the position if offered. A composite score was generated by combining the teachers' responses to these items and served as the dependent variable in the study. Job choice served as the independent variable in the study. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed and indicated a significant difference between the experimental conditions prompting a post-hoc procedure, Fisher's Least Significant Difference (LSD) which revealed teachers had more positive reactions to the subjective theory than they had for the objective or critical contact theory. The researchers concluded job factors such as teachers interacting outside of the classroom, shared decision making between teachers and leaders, and stressing committee involvement influenced more positive feedback from the study participants (Young et al., 1989).

Subjective Theory. The subjective theory of job choice views candidates as psychological beings (Young & Henneman, 1986). The subjective theory is similar to

Super's (1953) theory of role personality in the vocational process, which focuses on self-concept (Tom, 1971). Candidates consider a position based on how it aligns with their psychological needs (Behling et al., 1968). Gellerman (1964) referred to the act of selecting a position based on the alignment of the work environment to the individual's personal needs as psychological advantage seeking. Englander (1960) conducted a study focused on the subjective theory and the idea of self-concept in the education field. The purpose of the study was to determine the congruence between the participants' self-perceptions and their perceptions of others in teaching situations. Participants included 126 women divided into three groups: elementary majors interested in teaching, other educational majors not interested in teaching, and non-education majors. Participants responded to a series of 80 verbal descriptions of individuals identified from self-referent statements in interviews and self-descriptive studies. Englander (1960) found elementary majors outscored non-education majors based on perceiving teaching as self-worth maintenance and enhancement. Morrison (1962) conducted a similar study that involved nursing students. The results confirmed Englander's findings in support of the notion that individuals select positions that contribute to their self-concept. This can also be applied to educators making the decision to seek educational leadership certification in preparation for the principalship based on their perception of the specific job attributes related to their self-concept (Englander, 1960). Tom (1971) supported the notion of subjective factors influencing recruitment when he found the profile of applicants and their most preferred organization resembled more than the profile of applicants and their least preferred organization. Barlow (1965) conducted a study focused on the subjective approach using engineers. His study found organizations are more successful when they

focus on linking their employees' psychological needs to work expectations, creating a climate of productivity and contentment among workers. In education, the school and district's climate is a major subjective factor (Pounder & Merrill, 2001).

Objective Theory. The objective theory centers around economic factors. Objective factors are measurable, such as salary and benefits (Behling et al., 1968). Incentives that school principals typically receive from school districts can be examined through the objective lens, such as retirement incentives, stipends, and paid professional development (Pounder & Merrill, 2001). Salary is a significant factor when considering a new position (Akiba & Reichardt, 2004; Ni, Sun, & Rorrer, 2015). According to data obtained by the 2015-2016 National Teacher and Principal Survey, the average annual salary of a public-school principal was $95,700. More specifically, the average salary of elementary principals was $94,600. Middle school principals earned an average of $98,000 and high school principals earned an average salary of $101,200. Public school principals noted spending an average of 58.6 hours a week on job related responsibilities (Taie, Goldring, & Spiegelman, 2017). Therefore, the principal salary may not be enough to encourage an educator to commit to the position (Pounder & Merrill, 2001).

Goldring & Taie (2018) found 76 percent of principals would leave their principal position immediately, if they could find a higher paying job. Researchers focused on principal turnover and compensation have found principals tend to move to positions with increased salaries (Baker, Punswick, & Belt, 2010; Grissom & Bartanen, 2019; Tran & Buckman, 2017). In New York, principal attrition was 10 times more likely to occur in schools classified as having the lowest tiered salaries compared to the schools with the highest tiered salaries (Papa, 2007). In some schools and districts, although principals

work longer hours and have increased responsibilities, veteran teachers still have higher salaries than the principals (Doyle & Locke, 2014; Goldhaber, 2007). This can discourage educators from being interested in moving into administration (Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2002). Papa (2007) found that although low salaries have been determined to be a factor in principal turnover, less than desirable school outcomes and working conditions can be offset by higher compensation. Grissom & Bartanen (2019) found student demographics are not a significant predictor of principal turnover after additional school conditions and salary are considered. Objective factors are a crucial component in an educator's decision to pursue leadership. Pounder and Merrill (2001) found objective factors, such as lack of compensation among the main reasons candidates were not interested in seeking the principalship.

Critical Contact Theory. Critical contact theorists believe that candidates make a decision based on the work itself when they are unable to make a job selection decision based on subjective and objective criteria (Behling et al., 1968). According to this theory, the candidate often bases their decision on initial contact with the potential employer and the appearance of the facilities. Several studies have been conducted that focus on critical contact theory (Alderfer & McCord, 1970; Hilgert & Easton, 1968; Schmitt & Coyle, 1976; Sutton & Carlton, 1962). Studies that have been conducted regarding critical contact theory have primarily been retrospective-type studies which required job applicants to recall their experiences during the job search process (Young, Rinehart, & Place, 1989). A general finding in these studies have identified a relationship between the interviewer's concern and warmth toward the candidate and the candidate's perception of receiving and accepting a job offer (Schmitt & Coyle, 1976).

Hilgert & Easton (1968) found the interviewer's level of knowledge about the job impacts the candidate's perception of good interviews in contrast to poor interviewers. Additional studies found applicants prefer to be interviewed by younger individuals, rather than older individuals (Alderfer & McCord, 1970; Hilgert & Easton, 1968).

Experimental studies have also been conducted focused on critical contact theory that support the findings of the retrospective-type studies. In a study conducted with business administration students, Rynes and Miller (1983) found the perceptions about job desirability were influenced by the interviewer's knowledge of the job and their personal warmth. In addition, Rogers and Sencoff (1978) found the interviewer's age impacts prospective applicants.

Young and Heneman (1986) applied the critical contact theory in the education setting. Mock teacher interviews were held with experienced principals and teachers. The principals and teachers rated the participants. Source of employment, interviewer's age, and interviewer's personality were the variables regressed against the participant's perceived probability of accepting and receiving a job offer from the interview. Young and Heneman found the interviewer's concern and personal warmth were significant predictors in a candidate's decision to accept a job. Gender can also play a role in critical contact theory. Young, Place, Rinehart, Jury and Baits (1997) found Black candidates preferred female interviewers and White candidates preferred male interviewers. Black candidates also preferred recruitment messages focused on work attributes or work environment attributes, in contrast to White applicants who preferred only work environment attributes.

Integrated Job Choice Theory Approach. This study used an integrated approach of job choice theory as encouraged by Behling et al. (1968)

> It should be emphasized, however, that the recruiter's problem is not one of choosing the "right" one from among the three theories of position selection. Based on general knowledge of human behavior gleaned from the social sciences, a cautiously developed assumption can be drawn that should correlate with experiences of practicing recruiters: The average individual will be affected by elements of all three theories, but in varying degrees, in varying circumstances (Behling et al., 1968, p. 18).

There have been several studies conducted using an integrated approach of job choice theory. Harris and Fink (1987) used an integrated job choice theory approach in their study that examined multiattributes to develop composite indices representing compensation, the work environment, and the job itself. The researchers used a pre-post study design conducted in the natural setting. Participants included students at a large midwestern university who were participating on campus interviews at the university placement office (N=145). Findings revealed a significant relationship between intentions of accepting a job and recruiter characteristics. Therefore, it was concluded applicant reactions are influenced both directly and indirectly by recruiter characteristics. Additional research studies using the integrated approach have substantiated the notion that economic incentives do not influence recruitment decisions as much as work context and organizational climate (Young, Galloway, and Rinehart, 1990; Young, Rinehart, & Heneman, 1993).

Pounder & Merrill (2001) also used an integrated approach of job choice theory in their study focusing on attraction to the high school principalship in the state of Utah. Researchers sought to investigate job choice theory from the perspective of the candidate as the key decision maker. Participants included high school assistant principals and middle school principals (N=170). Participants responded to a Likert-scale survey that included a list of 65 job attributes specific to the high school principalship. Participants rated each job attribute in accordance to the influence it had on their willingness to seek principalship. In addition, participants were also asked about their probability of seeking and accepting a job offer. Demographic characteristics were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Multiple regression and bivariate correlation analysis were used to identify the correlation between the dependent and independent variables. The researchers found the participants' perception of the job desirability of the high school principalship were significantly correlated with the following job factors: 1) desire to achieve and improve education (subjective); 2) the additional time demands of the job (work); and 3) the salary and benefits (objective).

Summary of Methodology

A quantitative non-experimental research design was used to conduct the study. Survey research methods were used to investigate how principal job attributes, gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, and highest degree earned influence educators' willingness to seek leadership certification. Factors associated with the educational leadership policy change in Georgia were explored along with educators' job intentions regarding the principalship in the foreseeable future. The sample for this study consisted of Georgia educators, grades PK-12 in public schools located across North Georgia.

Data were collected using the Principal Job Survey (Barksdale, 2003; Pounder & Merrill, 2001), which is based on job choice theory. The Principal Job Survey was originally created by Pounder and Merrill (2001) and focused on the high school level principalship. Barksdale (2003) later adapted the survey to pertain to the principalship at all levels including elementary, middle, and high school. The adapted version of the survey was used for this study since educators at all levels were surveyed. The survey was sent using the Qualtrics online software. Using a 5-point Likert scale, educators rated the influence 65 job attributes had on impacting their decision to seek leadership certification in preparation for principalship. Descriptive statistics was employed in the demographic analysis. Hierarchical regression was used to analyze the relationship between the independent variables (objective, subjective, work itself, school context, and critical contact) and the dependent variable, the job desirability index. The job desirability index (Merrill, 1999) was calculated by averaging educator's results on the following survey items: perceived attractiveness of the principalship, perceived probability of seeking the principalship, and the perceived probability of accepting the principalship in the foreseeable future. The probability of accepting a principal position assumes they would be offered a position to accept.

Limitations of the Study

Only teachers located in North Georgia were participants in the study. Since Georgia educators are the only ones directly impacted by the Georgia Professional Standards Commission rules, the study is not entirely applicable to other states. Certification rules in other states may differ. Survey response rate of teachers was also considered a limitation in the study because there is a possibility the survey was

disregarded or unrequited by recipients. Follow-up emails were sent serving as reminders to complete the questionnaire.

Definition of Terms

The following terms were used throughout the study:

Traditional leadership program. A program consisting of college coursework with little to no field experience requirements designed for educators seeking certification in leadership prior to 2008 (GaPSC, 2008).

Performance based leadership program. A leadership certification program aligned to national standards that requires school system candidate recommendation prior to admission, partnerships with the candidates' schools, and clinical experiences (GaPSC, 2008).

Leadership certification program. A leadership certification program is a program that leads to Tier I or Tier II leadership certification that is approved by the Georgia Professional Standards Commission (GaPSC, 2014).

Tier I certification. Leadership certification for leaders who do not supervise other leaders, such as assistant principals and curriculum directors (GaPSC, 2014).

Tier II certification. Leadership certification for leaders who supervise other leaders, such as building level principals and system level superintendents (GaPSC, 2014).

Job Choice Theory. The evaluation process a candidate experiences when making decisions related to seeking a position. Job choice factors include subjective factors, objective factors, and critical contact factors (Behling et al., 1968).

Subjective factors. Psychological factors that are taken into consideration when contemplating a job (Pounder & Merrill, 2001).

Objective factors. Economic factors that are considered when considering a position (Pounder & Merrill, 2001).

Critical contact factors. Factors associated with the appearance and nature of the organization or recruiter (Pounder & Merrill, 2001).

Job desirability. A candidate's perceived attraction and probability of seeking the principalship (Merrill, 1999).

Principalship. Administrative duties and responsibilities of a school principal and assistant principal (Barksdale, 2003).

Governor's School Leadership Academy (GLSA) Teacher Leader Program. A program developed to provide support and leadership preparation to teachers with a minimum of five years of experience who are interested in leadership roles inside and outside of the classroom (GOSA, 2019).

Summary

This study sought to identify factors influencing educators' willingness to pursue leadership certification, including changes resulting from Georgia's educational leadership certification reform as they prepare for such positions as assistant principal, principal, superintendent, etc. In addition, the study also examined educators' perceptions of the overall attractiveness of the principalship and their job intentions, specifically their likelihood of seeking, being offered, and accepting a position in educational leadership in the foreseeable future. Leadership preparation reform has brought about many changes regarding certification for Georgia educators interested in

becoming leaders. Little research was conducted from the perspective of the educator on how these changes or the role of the principal influence their decisions to seek leadership certification. By surveying Georgia educators, the study answered these questions and provided information on an important topic.

Chapter I provides the foundation for the study and presents an overview of the leadership certification reform initiatives that have been enacted in Georgia over the last decade. Chapter II is a comprehensive review of literature related to this study. The quantitative methodology is discussed in Chapter III. Chapter IV is a summary of the findings collected from the survey sent to the educators. Finally, a summary of the findings is presented in Chapter V.

Chapter II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this study was to investigate the factors influencing educators to pursue leadership certification in preparation for the principalship and determine how the leadership certification rule changes in Georgia have impacted educators who aspire to become leaders. Leadership programs throughout the United States seek to prepare educational leaders who are able to lead high performing schools, increase academic achievement, and bring about positive change. The history of educational leadership is discussed, followed by literature examining the changes in training and certification for educational leaders due to the significant policy changes, and the leadership shortage. Chapter II concludes with an examination of the qualified leader shortage.

Historical Review

Leadership preparation programs in the United States did not become prevalent until the mid-twentieth century (McCarthy, 2015). Throughout the years, these programs have been referred to as school administration, educational administration, and more recently educational leadership (McCarthy, 2015). The majority of leadership professors in the 1940s and 1950s were practitioners who taught their courses based on their personal experience in the field (Hills, 1965). Critics argued this approach lacked the foundation of research and theory needed to effectively educate leaders. This sparked the first surge of educational leadership preparation reform called the theory movement that

occurred during the 1940s through the 1960s (McCarthy, 1999). During this time, attempts were made to create a science of school administration, so more effort was given to hire faculty members that were grounded in research rather than having personal experience in educational leadership (McCarthy, 2015). In 1950, the Cooperative Project in Educational Administration, composed of eight universities and funded by the Kellogg Foundation was created to carry out research to improve leadership preparation (McCarthy, 2015). In 1955, the Committee for the Advancement of School Administration was created to develop professional standards of performance (McCarthy, 2015). In 1956, certain universities that offered educational leadership doctorate degrees were selected to form the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA), which was instrumental in leadership preparation reform (McCarthy, 2015).

Through the 1970s and 1980's leadership preparation program critics were more predominant than reformers (McCarthy, 2015). Leadership programs were impacted when PK-12 education sustained a decrease in student enrollment in the 1970's; however, only a limited number of programs were eliminated during this time (McCarthy, 2015). In response to this obstacle, programs reduced the number of faculty members and removed residency requirements to increase enrollment numbers in leadership programs (McCarthy, 2015). In 1985, the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) sponsored the development of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration (NCEEA) (McCarthy, 2015). The development of NCEEA was led by Daniel E. Griffiths, a leading figure in educational leadership. NCEEA released three significant documents: *Leaders for America's Schools*, Griffith's seminal address to the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association

(AERA), and an edited volume that was sponsored by UCEA that contained most of the background papers commissioned by the NCEEA (Griffiths, Stout, & Forsyth, 1988). These documents solidified what was lacking with leadership preparation, offered solutions, and provided reform guidance (Murphy et al., 2008). In 1987, NCEEA released a report recommending that The National Board Policy for Educational Administration (NPBEA) be created and consist of members from the main school leadership professional education organizations (McCarthy, 2015). In the report, NCEEA also recommended that the number of leadership preparation programs be reduced (NCEEA, 1987). According to NCEEA (1987), the number of university programs increased from 125 to 505, with the most rapid growth occurring between 1950 through the 1980's making it apparent that their recommendation to reduce the number of leadership preparation programs was not followed.

Research regarding educational leadership preparation continued throughout the late 1980s and into the 1990s but did not bring about significant change during that time; however, serious discussion of leadership preparation reform began to occur (Murphy et al., 2008). In the late 1980s, the NCEEA, NPBEA, and UCEA published reports identifying weaknesses of leadership preparation programs, as well as offering possible solutions. According to Murphy et al. (2008) these reports established a platform of reform for leadership preparation programs. Scholars in the leadership preparation field, such as Hallinger, Leithwood, & Murphy (1993); Hannaway & Crowson (1989); McCarthy & Kuh (1997); and Mitchell & Cunningham (1990) also wrote books dedicated to evaluating preparation practices and offering solutions for improvement (Murphy et al., 2008). In 1993, AERA created the Teaching and Learning in Educational

Leadership group, which was later renamed Learning and Teaching in Educational Leadership (LTEL) (McCarthy, 2015). The purpose of this special interest group was to encourage the advancement of leadership preparation programs at the university level (McCarthy, 2015).

Leadership preparation advancement continued throughout the early 2000s. Critics from the 1980s and 1990s were renewed and energized when Hess (2003); Levine (2005); and the Thomas B. Fordham Foundation (2003) published three powerful reform reports (Murphy et al., 2008). The National Commission on the Advancement of Educational Leadership Preparation was created in 2001 by UCEA. The commission wrote a succession of papers focused on the changes needed in order to improve leader preparation (McCarthy, 2015). Another important development included the joint effort between the *Journal of Research on Leadership Education* (2005) and the *Journal of School Leadership* (1991). These two journals focused on publishing more articles dedicated to leadership preparation compared to other educational journals (McCarthy, 2015). The educational leadership field's foremost scholars also published the first handbook dedicated to research regarding the preparation of educational leaders (Young, Crow, Murphy, & Ogawa, 2009). A similar work was also produced examining preparation of educational leaders at the international level (Lumby, Crow, & Pashiardis, 2008). The role of school leader has transformed throughout history and certainly gained attention in the more recent years. Each initiative and leadership transition discussed was instrumental in shaping today's educational leadership preparation programs.

Leadership Preparation Reform

Leadership preparation reform was fueled by increased academic accountability and student achievement expectations, research conducted on how leadership influences academic achievement, and apparent leadership shortages (Orr, 2006). With an increased emphasis placed on school reform, schools of education, particularly leadership preparation programs, have been under careful examination (Levine, 2005; McCarthy, 2015; Murphy et al., 2008; Orr, 2006; Tucker & Codding, 2002). The critical role of school leaders has gained increased attention, due to the demand for higher achieving schools (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, & Cohen, 2007). Policy makers have focused more attention on school leaders and their route to licensure, making it a frequently discussed political topic, primarily at the state level (Leithwood et al., 2004; Mendels, 2012). State level involvement began to increase as early as 1983, when the federal commission report, *A Nation at Risk* was published, which significantly altered the way education was viewed (Leithwood et al., 2004). Developing programs that thoroughly prepare school leaders to meet the increasing demands of 21st century schools has proven to be a challenge (Acquaro, 2019). Critics have expressed doubt that leadership programs could be restructured to adequately prepare and give principals and superintendents the tools needed to increase academic achievement and lead successful schools (Levine, 2005; Orr, 2006; Tucker & Codding, 2002). Lack of effectiveness, low admission standards, irrelevant curriculum, and insufficient clinical experiences are inadequacies that critics have focused on related to leadership preparation programs (Hesbol, 2012; Levine, 2005). Some critics believe programs should focus on management skills rather than academics, while others stress the importance of

developing educators who have a deep knowledge of instruction and display leadership ability (Darling-Hammond, et al., 2007).

The quality of candidates being admitted to leadership programs, as well as the self-selection process into leadership programs have also come under scrutiny (Levine, 2005). Although many candidates were meeting course requirements and receiving certification, they were not adequately prepared for the challenges ahead (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007). Over the years, leadership programs have primarily used grade point average (GPA), Graduate Record Examination (GRE) scores, and letters of recommendation for student selection purposes as part of the admission process (McCarthy, 2015). McCarthy (2015) argues that GRE scores may not be a true reflection of an individual's leadership potential. Murphy et al. (2008) agrees that these requirements may not be directly linked to an individual's ability to be an effective leader. These are among the many concerns that encouraged Georgia to reevaluate educational leadership preparation programs and sparked the reform efforts that are investigated in the study.

Institutions across the United States revamped their programs to meet the changing needs of educational leadership (Orr, 2006). According to Orr and Pounder (2006) a leadership preparation evaluation task force was created and sponsored by UCEA and LTEL. Members of the task force created various surveys called the Initiative for Systematic Program Improvement through Research in Educational Leadership (INSPIRE) to be administered to teachers, principals, leadership candidates, and preparation programs (McCarthy, 2015). In 2012, the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) educator preparation task force developed a standards-based

framework to be used for program approval purposes related to teacher and administrator preparation. The framework holds programs accountable and allows states to identify the performance level of the programs (McCarthy, 2015). All of the initiatives discussed were instrumental in shaping educational leadership preparation.

School leaders primarily receive certification through university programs. When educational leadership program reform began, approximately 450 to 500 leadership preparation programs were available (Orr, 2006). 472 institutions offered master's degrees, 162 specialist degrees, and 199 offered doctoral leadership degrees (Baker, Orr, & Young, 2007; Orr, 2006). Requirements for leadership preparation programs are primarily defined by state policy, with the scope and sequence, along with the content of leadership certification programs are created using the majors, degrees, internships, course content, and various preparatory experiences outlined and required by the states (Orr, 2006).

There is a discrepancy in the United States at the state level regarding leadership preparation leading to certification. The majority of states increased the requirements for leadership licensure. Murphy et al. (2008) noted certain states started assessing their current leadership programs using high quality standards in hopes of improving leadership preparation programs. This is an extensive process. First, states must require all institutions that offer leadership preparation to complete an external review using quality indicators and standards determined by the state. This is followed by program development, review of the potential program by outside experts, program sponsor and reviewer meetings, on-site visits, feedback, required revisions, and state action based on the external review results (Murphy et al. 2008). There are two types of accountability

involved with whole-state reviews. Low stakes accountability is when the program feedback goes directly to the institution to be used however they deem appropriate. High stakes accountability involves the reports going to the state for purposes of awarding or taking away accreditation (Murphy et al., 2008). According to McCarthy (2015), these critical program reviews can provide valuable feedback to programs, as well as aid in altering state accreditation based on the findings. Alternatively, a few states reduced the requirements and allowed alternative routes to certification (McCarthy, 2015). Michigan and South Dakota no longer require school leaders to complete a university-based program and obtain leadership certification (Murphy et al., 2008). Georgia is among the states who increased the requirements for preparation programs and leadership certification after reviewing previous leadership programs. Georgia does not provide an alternative route to leadership certification. States such as California and Iowa allow nontraditional routes to leadership preparation through alternative programs. According to Murphy et al. (2008), there are six alternative models to traditional preparation: alternative university, professional, district, entrepreneurial, private, and experiential models. It is undetermined whether or not these alternative routes lead to better prepared leaders, and very little empirical evidence exists (Murphy et al., 2008).

Leadership preparation programs and licensure in approximately 45 states were structured using the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards (McCarthy, 2015). These standards are focused on a high level of teaching and learning and offer a set of shared expectations for school leaders' knowledge, skills, and dispositions (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007). The creation of ISLLC was directed by Joseph Murphy and organized by the CCSSO in the 1990's (McCarthy, 2015).

Numerous universities were encouraged to use the ISLLC standards to support their initial licensure programs (McCarthy, 2015). The ISLLC standards provide a solid foundation for institutions to align their instructional strategies and programs to support future school leaders (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007). The National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) adopted the ISLLC standards for the purpose of leadership preparation program accreditation (Murphy et al., 2008). The ISLLC standards are closely aligned to the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) standards. The ELCC standards are also used nationally for leadership preparation program accreditation. ELCC and ISLLC standards are continually reviewed and updated (McCarthy, 2015). Although these standards have been beneficial in progressing leadership preparation programs, a systematic review of research that focused on the aspects of leadership related to student achievement conveyed the standards fail to emphasize various aspects of effective leadership practices (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007). These overlooked aspects include how leaders are involved in proper student assessment of instructional material, designing and implementing the curriculum, school recognition when goals are met, and the ability to effectively adapt to the appropriate leadership style given any situation involving key stakeholders under various circumstances (Waters, Marzano & McNulty, 2003).

According to the U.S. Department of Education, conventional programs lacked vision, purpose, and coherence (Orr, 2006). Leadership preparation programs need to consist of intense course and fieldwork (Orr, 2006). Fieldwork is typically completed where candidates are employed for the purpose of convenience (McCarthy, 2015). An authentic partnership between school districts and institutions is an essential component

of developing leaders who are ready to pinpoint areas of weakness and then bring about significant change in schools (Browne-Ferrigno & Muth, 2004; Hesbol, 2012, Orr & Barber, 2006). Murphy et al. (2008) conducted a qualitative study examining leadership intervention policy in six states at 54 universities and provided the following recommendations for other states to adopt or include in their leadership preparation programs:

- Rebuild work from an outcome-based paradigm.
- Create a strong platform of actionable theory.
- Establish a clear, coherent, conceptual focus and foundation.
- Recruit and select candidates through rigorous, value-based admissions.
- Develop and align the curriculum through a process of zero-based curriculum development.
- Ground and integrate learning through practice-anchored learning experiences.
- Provide adequate support for technical and adaptive change.
- Replace a culture of autonomy with a culture of community.
- Maintain quality and continual improvement through outcome-based accountability (Murphy et al., 2008, p. 2173).

The restructuring of the organizing principles of leadership preparation programs made a substantial difference in program design and execution. The changes included establishing well-defined visions and communicating fundamental principles, moving from the traditional emphasis on educational leadership to a focus on social justice and

school improvement, and applying the newly created visions to student selection, designing the program, content, pedagogy, field experience, and assessment (Orr, 2006). Other important additions that stemmed from leadership preparation reform include the addition of ethics courses and the increased use of cohorts to facilitate learning communities (McCarthy, 2015; Orr, 2006). Unfortunately, some programs resisted the change and put the new standards into existing courses, instead of creating a new program based on the standards and dedicated to increasing academic achievement (McCarthy, 2015).

There are currently 35 states that require leadership candidates to pass an examination to receive certification (McCarthy, 2015). The School Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA) is the most popular and used in 16 states (McCarthy, 2015). The SLLA is created using the ISLLC standards. In Georgia, leadership candidates are required to take the Georgia Assessments for the Certification of Educators (GACE) Educational Leadership Assessment. Both the SLLA and GACE assessments include short-answer, multiple-choice, and constructed response questions based on leadership scenarios. A correlation between an educational leader's performance on these tests and preferred outcomes, such as increasing student achievement and positive leader characteristics have yet to be demonstrated (Orr & Barber, 2009).

In addition to traditional face-to-face leadership programs, various delivery models evolved over the past decade, such as hybrid and online programs. Approximately 73% of leadership preparation programs implement some manner of distance learning (Hackmann & McCarthy, 2011). Preis, Grogan, Sherman, and Beaty (2007) found the benefits to online leadership preparation programs were: the possible

equalization of gender, race, and disability advantages, geographical expansion, cultivating less traditional leadership styles, and expanding the opportunities to enhance teaching and learning. Richardson, McLeod, and Dikkers (2011) cited directors of human resource departments were hesitant to hire principals who received certification from online leadership programs. Survey studies conducted by Ritter, Polnick, Fink, and Oescher (2010) and Sherman, Crum, and Beaty (2010) found leadership students had similar views of face-to-face leadership programs opposed to online. Ritter et al. (2010) surveyed leadership students using the Classroom Community Scale. The researchers concluded an increased sense of community in the blended and face-to-face setting; however, the evaluation of learning outcomes showed no difference between the two formats of course delivery. McCarthy (2015) noted rigorous assessments are necessary to ascertain which delivery model, traditional or online is the most effective.

Leadership and Student Achievement

In the early 2000's, researchers were primarily focused on studying the direct impact of principal leadership on student achievement. Their focus then shifted from investigating the direct effect of leadership on student achievement to examining and analyzing the indirect effects. Leadership was found to have an indirect effect on student achievement in the first studies conducted with the new focus (Leithwood et al., 2004; Marzano, 2001; Waters et al., 2003). Leithwood and Seashore-Louis (2012) found leadership practices that have an indirect effect on student achievement include: a leader's knowledge of the instructional program, as well as how they support, monitor, and evaluate it. Marzano (2001) analyzed quantitative research from studies spanning over the past 40 years that investigated effects on student achievement. The effects of

schooling were divided into three categories and accounted for approximately 20 percent of student achievement variance: student background, teacher level, and school level. Student background factors accounted for 80.00 percent of the variance and included variables such as prior knowledge, interest and aptitude, and socioeconomic status. Teacher level factors accounted for 13.34 percent of variance and included variables such as curriculum design, instruction, and classroom management. School level factors accounted for 6.6 percent of the variance included variables such as leadership, school climate, monitoring, time, parental involvement, opportunity to learn, pressure to achieve, and cooperation. Researchers continued to examine the effects leadership has on student achievement and found a small yet significant relationship in additional studies (Leithwood et al., 2004; Robinson, Lloyd, & Rowe, 2008; Waters et al., 2003).

Robinson et al. (2008) studied the effect leadership practices have on student outcomes using multinational studies by analyzing composite leadership variables and determining the measures of effect. The researchers used a leadership survey consisting of 199 items and constructs. There were five leadership practices that emerged:

- Establishing goals and expectations.
- Strategic resourcing.
- Planning, coordinating, and evaluating teaching and the curriculum.
- Promoting and participating in teacher learning and development.
- Ensuring an orderly and supportive environment.

Robinson et al. (2008) concluded a leader's influence on student achievement is greater when they focus on the core aspects of teaching and learning and form meaningful relationships with their teachers.

School improvement and student achievement are positively impacted by effective leaders, and how these educational leaders are prepared is crucial (McCarthy, 2015; New Leaders, 2013). Researchers found leadership influences academic achievement; however, no correlation existed between certain leadership characteristics and increased academic achievement (Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2012; Waters et al., 2003). Although a direct relationship between the two was not made, the recognized association between leadership and student learning is important during this time of heightened school accountability. It is common to find an excellent leader in a struggling school, but it is unusual to find a weak leader in a successful school (McCarthy, 2015). The impacts of effective leadership are critical and the most evident in struggling schools. There is limited evidence in the literature of a failing school being transformed into a successful school without the intervention of a skillful leader (Leithwood et al., 2004).

Leithwood et al. (2004) noted three practices that are the foundation of successful leadership: setting directions, developing people, and redesigning the organization. Setting directions is the most important aspect of a leader's influence. This practice involves expressing a clear vision and mission, motivating others, communicating effectively, and monitoring organizational performance. Development of people occurs when the leader forms authentic relationships with others in the organization. This is an

important aspect of being able to motivate others by offering individualized support, modeling best practices, and providing intellectual stimulation.

School improvement is ever changing, so redesigning the organization is a key practice in leadership. Leaders must dedicate time to strengthen the school culture and build capacity through collaboration and shared decision making. School improvement occurs when the environment facilitates the work of all members and creates flexibility to meet the changing needs. The strong impact school leadership has on student learning is second only to classroom instruction (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Leithwood et al., 2004; Wallace Foundation, 2013). Leithwood et al. (2004) reviewed numerous studies that focused on the influence successful leadership had on student achievement and made three conclusions. First, the majority of leaders make an indirect contribution to student learning by influencing the people and parts of their organization with the most attention given to the people and parts they need to spend their time on. Second, leaders must know how to adequately identify and prioritize the needs within their organization. School leaders must know the status of the following conditions in their buildings: school culture, mission, and goals, shared decision making, and parent and stakeholder relationships. District leaders must be aware of the following conditions in their school districts: district culture, policies, programs, and properly aligned professional development geared towards teachers' needs. Finally, more knowledge is needed regarding what effective leaders do to cultivate the important features of their organization that are known to positively impact academic achievement.

Highly effective school leaders positively impact student achievement by supporting and mentoring effective teachers and carrying out efficient organizational

processes (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007). Research regarding how leaders impact school effectiveness is much more widespread than research investigating how principals create the practices that impact how schools operate and how student learning occurs (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007). School leaders can increase academic achievement by investing in the faculty and staff, sharing a clear vision for the organization, and creating a conducive school culture that creates a positive learning environment throughout the building (Leithwood et al., 2004). To effectively carry out the role of principal, a leader must create an environment that facilitates quality instruction to meet the needs of all students, possess a deep knowledge of the curriculum and determine the most efficient and effective way to deliver it, and adequately identify teachers' professional learning needs and provide the appropriate support (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007).

Waters et al. (2003) conducted a study examining the effect leadership practices have on student achievement using a large sample of quantitative data. The goal of the meta-analysis of research was to create "a balanced leadership framework" that included knowledge, resources, skills, strategies, and tools that are needed to improve academic achievement. The researchers used data from studies focused on the link between student achievement and leadership since the 1970's. The final analysis included 70 studies comprising 2,894 schools, 14,000 teachers, and roughly 1.1 million students. Teacher perceptions of leadership served as the independent variable, and student achievement was the dependent variable. Twenty-one key leadership responsibilities were identified that had a significant correlation to student achievement. Study results indicated the average effect size was .25 between leadership and student achievement when improvement in all 21 responsibilities occurred by one standard deviation (Waters et al.,

2003). A few years after conducting the study, Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) published a book that focused and expanded on the 21 principal leadership responsibilities.

The Wallace Foundation (2013) dedicated over a decade of research and more than 70 reports to improving school level leadership. Their work focused on increasing academic achievement in schools through effective leadership. They primarily devoted their attention to the development and support of school principals and focused on principal training and evaluation. They found the most effective principals follow these key practices:

- Shaping a vision of academic success for all students.
- Creating a climate hospitable to education.
- Cultivating leadership in others.
- Improving instruction.
- Managing people, data and processes to foster school improvement (Wallace Foundation, 2013, p. 4).

In an attempt to understand how leadership influences student learning, Heck and Hallinger (2014) used cross-classification quantitative modeling to investigate the cross-level interactions that describe classroom and school level practices that contribute to school improvement and academic achievement. The sample consisted of 2,894 students in 240 fourth grade classrooms and 163 fifth grade classrooms. Sixty elementary schools participated in the longitudinal study that consisted of three years of data. The study's findings emphasize the importance leadership has on the instructional environment.

Heck and Hallinger (2014) found: 1) leadership effects on student learning were fully facilitated by the school's instructional environment; 2) the classroom-related paths examined directly influenced measures of student achievement in math; 3) instructionally focused school leadership moderated the effect of individual teachers on student learning, and 4) school leaders can enhance student outcomes by creating conditions that lead to greater consistency in levels of effectiveness across teachers. Teacher effectiveness and the instructional environment were found to be positively related to students' math achievement. The effect size was significant and moderately substantial (*SD* = 0.28) for the school's instructional environment and students' math achievement. Students increased 0.43 *SD* in math achievement when they had two consecutive teachers whose effectiveness was determined to be 1-*SD* higher than the grand mean, compared to their peers who had consecutive teachers with average effectiveness. The findings of the study emphasize the important role leadership plays in the instructional process and practices.

Leithwood, Harris, and Hopkins conducted an in-depth review of international leadership literature and published the 2018 article, *Seven Strong Claims about Successful School Leadership.* The article gained attention in the leadership field and was cited numerous times throughout the years. In 2020, they revisited the original article and updated the claims based on more recent empirical literature. According to Leithwood, Harris, and Hopkins (2020) successful school leadership includes:

1. School leadership has a significant effect on features of the school organization which positively influences the quality of teaching and learning. While moderate in size, this leadership effect is vital to the success of most school improvement efforts.

2. Almost all successful leaders draw on the same repertoire of basic leadership practices: setting directions, building relationships and developing people, redesigning the organization to support desired practices, and improving the instructional program.
3. The ways in which leaders apply these basic leadership practices - not the practices themselves - demonstrates responsiveness to, rather than dictation by, the contexts in which they work. Situated contexts include locale, school histories, settings, and intakes. Professional contexts include teacher experiences and commitments, values, and policy management in schools.
4. School leaders improve teaching and learning, indirectly and most powerfully, by improving the status of significant key classroom and school conditions and by encouraging parent/child interactions in the home that further enhance student success at home.
5. School leadership can have an especially positive influence on school and student outcomes when it is distributed.
6. Some patterns of distribution are more effective than others.
7. While further research is required, a well-defined set of cognitive, social, and psychological 'personal leadership resources' show promise of explaining a high proportion of variation in the practices enacted by school leaders (Leithwood et al., 2020, p. 15).

More than a decade later, there were only minor revisions made to three of the original claims. The revised claims included claims four, five, and seven. This is evidence the leadership field has strong empirical footing and is firmly established from both a

practical and academic perspective (Leithwood et al., 2020). The relationship between school leadership and academic achievement gained attention over the years and become a popular topic of interest. As researchers look to the future, more focus needs to be placed on the "how" and "what" aspect of the practices school leaders implement and the impact they have on student learning (Leithwood et al., 2020).

Qualified Leader Shortage

The expectations are higher than ever to meet the rising challenges in our nation's schools, requiring school leaders to be knowledgeable experts in their field capable of producing significant results (Acquaro, 2019; Cuban, 2003; English, 2005). The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2002, which was the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, heightened school accountability and increased the level of stress associated with being a school leader. Although schools are no longer under NCLB, they must now meet the requirements of the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) of 2015 which continued to add accountability measures and immense amounts of stress on school leaders. To meet the present challenges, it is essential that highly qualified school leaders are attracted and retained in school systems across the United States, but it has proven to be a challenge (Acquaro, 2019; Brooking, Collins, Court, & O'Neill, 2003; Fink & Brayman, 2006; Jones, 2001; Simon & Newman, 2004). School districts throughout the United States reported a shortage of highly qualified school leaders (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007). The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates 13,000 principal positions will need to be filled in the nation between 2012 and 2022 (White, Fong, & Makkonen, 2010). Unfortunately, in Georgia, there is a rapid decline in the number of teachers obtaining leadership

certification (Buckman et al., 2018). The decline in educational leadership interest can be linked to the increasing pressure to succeed (Battle, 2010). Research has revealed it is uncommon for principals in the United States to remain in their position for more than four years (Béteille, Kalogrides, & Loeb, 2012); however, research focused on the scope of leadership attrition is limited (Buchanan et al., 2013). Levin & Bradley (2019) cited the following reasons principals leave the profession: inadequate preparation and professional development, poor working conditions, insufficient salaries, lack of decision-making authority, and high-stakes accountability policies.

A problem affecting some areas in the nation, such as California is not a limited supply of school leaders but rather a shortage of highly qualified leaders who are devoted to serving in disadvantaged schools and areas (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007). Levin & Bradley (2019) found 35 percent of principals remain at their school for less than two years and only 11 percent stay at their school for 10 or more years. High needs schools generally have a large number of minority and economically disadvantaged students. Test scores among these schools are typically low and are a targeted area of concern. The turnover rate in high needs schools can be as much as 30 percent annually (Béteille et al., 2012). Gates et al. (2006) conducted a study that examined principal turnover and mobility in North Carolina and Illinois. The data obtained from North Carolina indicated a mere 21% of principals stayed at their assigned school after six years. Gates et al. (2006) concluded principals were more likely to leave their school when test scores are low and there is a high number of minority students, as well as students living in poverty. Pijanowski and Brady (2009) found high needs schools are more prone for principal turnover. Depending on the type of school or even grade level, the impact of the

leadership shortage can vary (Pijanowski et al., 2009). Traditionally, urban, high-poverty districts have difficulty filling principal vacancies; however, rural districts encounter challenges related to attracting and retaining high quality leaders (Reames, Kochan, & Zhu, 2014).

Kearney (2010) found leader retirement, skill set deficiencies of potential candidates, general attrition, and teachers' lack of motivation to move into leadership positions are factors contributing to the school leadership shortage. Although there are many teachers who are certified in leadership, there is an alarming low number of them applying for principal positions (Papa & Baxter, 2005). This issue has been documented since the 1990's. Jordan, McCauley, and Comeaux (1994) found a decrease in the number of teachers obtaining leadership certification, and out of the teachers who did hold leadership certification, less than half of them planned on going into administration within five years. McAdams (1998) studied leadership certification in Pennsylvania. The results of the study concluded that although more teachers were seeking leadership certification, fewer were applying for leadership positions. Although teachers may hold their leadership certification, it does not guarantee they are the best fit for the position (Pijanowski et al., 2009). DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran (2003) conducted a study examining the concerns of principals in Virginia. When asked why the principals believed other individuals held administrative licenses but did not hold administrative positions they cited the following reasons: long hours (51%), stress (50%), not well suited for the position due to temperament or disposition (48%), or because a lack of common sense or poor judgement (38%), lack of local opportunities (35%), low pay (35%), lack of competence in the present position (25%), increasing disrespect (23%), or

the dread of making unpopular decisions (20%). These findings emphasize the importance of looking beyond applicant numbers and prioritizing individuals experience and true leadership potential.

Hancock, Black, and Bird (2006) conducted a study investigating the factors that motivate or inhibit teachers from becoming administrators. The sample for the study included 329 students enrolled in Master of School Administration programs. Exploratory factor analysis was used to analyze survey responses from the students. The researchers identified four motivators that encouraged teachers to go into administrative positions and three inhibitors that discouraged teachers from transitioning into administrative positions. Inhibitors included: insufficient gain/personal benefit, personal needs and issues, and increase in job risks associated with entering administrative careers. Insufficient gain/personal benefit included having a lack of autonomy, a minor difference in teacher and administrator salary, dealing with bureaucracy, no longer having tenure, and increased paperwork. Personal safety concerns, discouragement from friends and family members, and the possibility of relocation were personal needs and issues that were noted. Increased job risk concerns consisted of working more days, student discipline issues, possible litigation, separation from staff members, and accountability pressure stemming from standardized tests. The researchers identified four areas that motivated teachers to make the transition into leadership positions: challenge, altruism, personal/professional benefit/gain, and leadership/influence. Some teachers become easily bored staying in the same position for a considerable amount of time. The thought of administrative jobs being unpredictable, transient, and grueling are seen as aspects that may inspire teachers to become administrators. Altruism factors included making a

positive impact and bringing about change within an organization. Increased status and prestige, career promotions, and increased salary were personal/professional benefit/gain factors identified. Leadership/influence motivators included being vested to the field of education and having a desire to impact the field through avenues such as professional development. Hancock et al. (2006) urged school districts to be aware of the factors that inhibit teachers from becoming administrators, so they can be alleviated by proactive measures such as strong organizational support, professional development assistance, and improved compensation. Harris, Arnold, Lowery, and Crocker (2000) conducted a study with similar results using 151 students enrolled in leadership programs across four different universities. The researchers found that impacting student lives was a major contributing factor in a teacher's decision to become a school leader, while paperwork and the risk of litigation were significant factors discouraging them to pursue school leadership.

An important aspect of the leadership shortage involves the administrators who are nearing retirement. Reames et al. (2014) conducted a study in Alabama that focused on demographics and reasons administrators either retired or chose to stay in the profession. A three-part survey was completed by 258 principals. The first part of the survey included demographic information, the second part of the survey included reasons that might influence a principal to retire, and the third part of the survey was composed of three open-ended questions related to the Alabama Instructional Leadership Standards and their impact. Based on the survey, the reasons cited for encouraging them to leave the principalship included: lack of family time, challenging community and parents, government mandates, and stress.

Although the leadership shortage looks different in schools and systems with various demographics throughout the United States, it is an important topic that deserves more research and attention in the current days of heightened academic accountability. While much attention is placed on the negative factors associated with being a school administrator, very little discussion is devoted to the positives. Gibbs (2008) urges superintendents and principals to find those teachers who are aspiring to be leaders within their districts and schools and have explicit conversations focused on the positives of being a school administrator and the important impact they can have on so many individuals. A change in the way we market being a principal could also make a difference in encouraging teachers to become leaders instead of discouraging them (Gibbs, 2008). For example, focusing on the sense of accomplishment one has when accomplishing goals, overcoming obstacles, and achieving success (Hancock et al., 2006). Levin & Bradley (2019) provided the following strategies in an effort to assist schools, districts, and states in reducing principal turnover: providing high-quality professional learning opportunities, improving working conditions, ensuring adequate and stable compensation, supporting decision-making authority in school leadership, and reforming accountability systems.

Summary

The review of literature focused on the history of educational leadership, program reform, leadership in relation to student achievement, and the shortage of educational leaders. In conclusion, educational leadership certification endured vast changes throughout the years, especially during the last decade in the state of Georgia. With principals being second to only teachers in impacting student achievement (Darling-

Hammond et al., 2007; Leithwood et al., 2004; Wallace Foundation, 2013), it is crucial there is a full understanding of the reasons educators make the decision to pursue leadership certification in an effort to ensure schools are staffed with the very best leaders. By using an integrated approach to job choice theory, this study seeks to determine the factors influencing their decisions regarding leadership certification. The next chapter explains in detail the research methodology and how the study was carried out.

Chapter III

METHODOLGY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the factors influencing educators to pursue leadership certification in preparation for the principalship and determine how the leadership certification rule changes in Georgia have impacted educators who aspire to become leaders. This chapter outlines the methodology and explains the research design, instrumentation, sampling techniques, procedures, data collection and analysis methods applicable to the study.

The following research questions were used to examine the factors that contribute to educators' willingness to seek leadership certification in preparation for the principalship. Additionally, the study also investigated the relationship between educators' job attribute perceptions, overall job desirability, and their future job intentions. The following research questions guided the study:

1. How do principal job attributes, factors associated with the certification rule change, and demographic variables predict an educator's willingness to pursue a degree or certification in educational leadership in Georgia?
2. What perceptions do educators have regarding the overall attractiveness of an educational leadership position, such as the principalship?
3. What perceptions do educators have regarding the probability of seeking, being offered, and accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future?

Demographic variables included gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, current professional assignment, and highest degree earned.

Research Design

A quantitative cross-sectional survey research design was used to conduct the study. In a cross-sectional design, data is collected from participants during one period of time (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Survey research methods were used to identify the job desirability factors of the principalship that influence educators to seek leadership certification in preparation for the principalship. Educators rated their attraction to the principalship and the likelihood of seeking a leadership position in the future, and if offered, accepting the job. By using a quantitative cross-sectional survey research design for the study, inferences and generalizations can be made from a sample to a population (Creswell, 2018). Survey research is beneficial in answering the following types of questions: (a) descriptive questions, (b) questions about the relationship between variables, and (c) questions about predictive relationships between variables over time (Creswell, 2018). Survey research methods provided an economical and efficient way to collect the data needed to conduct the research study. Although survey research presents many strengths, there are also weaknesses associated such as lack of depth and inflexibility. The Principal Job Survey was sent via email, so there is also a possibility the survey was disregarded or unrequited by recipients.

Population and Sample

PK-12 teachers located in public schools across North Georgia were the selected sample for the study. Approximately 1,920 teachers located in four school districts were invited to participate in the survey. Random sampling was used to ensure each educator

in the selected population had an equal chance of being selected (Creswell, 2018). The minimum sample size for the proposed study was determined using the Raosoft Sample Size Calculator using a 5% margin of error, 95% confidence level, and 50% for the response distribution. A population size of 1,920 was entered for the computation. This was determined by combining the total number of PK-12 teachers located in the selected four school districts. The recommended sample size provided by the Raosoft Sample Size Calculator was 321 based on the calculation.

Data Collection

Prior to data collection, approval from the Valdosta State University Institutional Review Board was obtained (see Appendix A). After approval for the research study was granted, the superintendents or district level designees of the four North Georgia school districts were contacted to discuss and explain the purpose of the study, as well as give each district an opportunity to opt out of participating in the study (see Appendix B). Permission to distribute the survey to all PK-12 teachers in each district was requested. Names and email addresses of the principals at each school were requested from each district. After the districts willing to participate in the study were identified, a letter was sent by email to the principals of each school detailing the purpose of the research study and requesting they forward it to the certified educators in their respective schools. Respondents were assured the survey would remain anonymous. A link to the survey was provided, along with the Institutional Review Board (IRB) information (See Appendix C). Educators were asked to complete the Principal Job Survey (See Appendix D). Follow up reminders were sent by email.

Instrumentation

The Principal Job Survey was the instrument used to collect data from elementary, middle, and high school teachers located throughout North Georgia. The survey instrument was originally designed by Merrill (1999) and later adapted by Barksdale (2003). The original survey was geared towards the high school level principalship. The survey was adapted to pertain to all levels of the principalship including elementary, middle, and high school level. The adapted survey (Barksdale, 2003) was used for the proposed study, because teachers at the elementary, middle, and high school level were asked to participate in the study. Permission was obtained to use the survey in this study (see Appendix E and Appendix F). There were a few minor changes made to the survey instrument. In the first section, a demographic question inquiring about the desire to seek educational leadership was added. The directions in the second section of the survey were modified to include the wording of seeking leadership certification in preparation for the principalship, but the survey items remained unchanged. A fourth section was added to the survey that included questions related specifically to seeking leadership certification in Georgia.

The Principal Job Survey consisted of four sections. The first section of the survey included nine demographic questions. The first four questions inquired about gender, age, ethnicity, and marital status. The final demographic questions were career related and inquired about an individual's current professional assignment, highest degree earned, total number of years in education, career plans for the next three to five years, and if they were willing and/or had a desire to seek educational leadership certification.

Research Question 1. The Principal Job Survey consisted of 65 job attributes that were related to the principalship. Respondents rated each attribute based on the influence it had on their decision to seek leadership certification in preparation for the position of a school principal/assistant principal using a 5-point Likert scale with the following values: -2 (strong negative influence on my decision), -1 (somewhat negative influence on my decision), 0 (no influence on my decision), +1 (somewhat positive influence on my decision), and +2 (strong positive influence on my decision). Respondents also had the option to rate the attributes NA (not applicable to the position as I understand it). The job attributes were divided into the following job choice theory variable subscales: objective, subjective, work itself, critical contact, and school context. The items for each variable scale were randomly disseminated throughout the survey.

Objective Factors. Items based on the objective theory asked respondents questions related to benefits, salary, and opportunities for professional development. Objective factors are economical in nature. In education, specifically the principalship, objective factors can include stipends, travel compensation, and professional development opportunities. Sample items for these factors included aspects such as salary versus position demands, retirement benefits, and flexible vacations.

Subjective Factors. Subjective factors are related to an individual's psychological needs. These factors play a major role in the environment of an organization. Survey items founded on the subjective theory asked about the influence of empowerment, support and respect, and the desire to achieve and improve education. Sample items for this portion of the survey included but were not limited to

personal/professional growth, developing community relations, leadership opportunities, and personal/professional relationships.

Critical Contact Factors. Critical contact factors are those directly related to the work itself. The critical contact theory items were divided into two subscales: (1) factors that identify the influence of others and (2) factors that identify elements of work itself. The influence of others pertains to individuals such as coworkers or family members. Factors related to work itself regarding the principalship includes responsibilities such as overseeing staff and developing policies and curriculum. Pounder and Merrill (2001) conducted a principal component analysis and found Dilemmas/Problems, Time Demands, External Relations, Management Tasks, and Fiscal Management to be additional subscales of work itself factors. Dilemmas/Problems include survey items such as student behavior issues, countering problem situations, and terminating unfit employees. Examples of Time Demand items include extended workday, extracurricular supervision, and balancing the demands of job and family life. External Relations subscale items include aspects such as IDEA/504, laws/regulations/policies, and partnerships/fundraising. Management Tasks items include FTE management, student registration, master scheduling, and defining staff roles. The subscale of Fiscal Management includes survey items related to adequate funding and school budgeting.

School Context Factors. The final job choice theory scale was school context. School context includes factors associated with the school environment. School environment items include socioeconomic status, reputation, location, and size (Pounder & Merrill, 2001).

Georgia Factors. The fourth section of the survey included five questions related to the current Georgia Professional Standards Commission Rule 505-2-.153 Educational Leadership Certificate, which requires educators interested in being an assistant principal or district level leader not responsible for supervising principals to obtain Tier I certification. Educators interested in being a principal, superintendent, or leader responsible for supervising principals requires obtaining Tier II certification. Tier I certification can be obtained through a master's degree or certification-only program; however, educators interested in a certification-only program must hold a level five (5) or higher certificate prior to enrollment. Tier II certification can be obtained through an educational specialist degree or certification-only program; however, if candidates are interested in the certification-only program, they must hold an Educational Leadership – Tier I certificate or Educational Leadership – Tier II Standard Professional certificate and a minimum of an Educational Specialist degree prior to enrollment.

Through communication with program providers of GaPSC approved Educational Leadership Programs in Georgia, cost averages were obtained for Tier I master's degree programs, Tier I certification-only programs, Tier II education specialist degree programs, and Tier II certification-only programs. There was a question for each certification program that included the average cost for that specific degree or certification-only program. Respondents rated their perceived probability of seeking certification based on the average costs of each degree and certification-only program by using a 6-point Likert scale with the following values: very unlikely, unlikely, somewhat unlikely, likely, and very likely. At the end of the survey, respondents were asked a question inquiring if the additional certification requirements of Rule 505-2-.153

influences their willingness to pursue certification in educational leadership. They rated their willingness to pursue leadership certification in relation to the rule using a 5-point Likert scale with the following values: very unlikely, unlikely, somewhat unlikely, likely, and very likely.

Research Question 2 and 3. The third section of the survey focused on future career decisions and opportunities. Respondents rated the overall attractiveness of the principalship using a 6-point Likert scale with the following values: 6 (very unattractive), 5 (unattractive), 4 (somewhat unattractive), 3 (somewhat attractive), 2 (attractive), and 1 (very attractive). Respondents also rated their perceived probability of seeking, being offered, and accepting a principalship if offered using a 6-point Likert scale with the following values: 6 (very likely), 5 (likely), 4 (somewhat likely), 3 (somewhat unlikely), 2 (unlikely), and 1 (very unlikely). A composite index was generated by using educators' perceptions and intentions to determine job desirability (Pounder & Merrill, 2001).

Content Validity

The content validity the principal job attributes listed in the original Principal Job Survey (Pounder & Merrill, 2001) was evaluated by a panel of experts that included one retired high school principal, three sitting high school principals, and two high school assistant principals. This group of administrators analyzed each attribute related to the principalship and then added, removed, or clarified selected attributes. The attributes were then categorized into the following job choice theories: objective, subjective, work itself, critical contact, and school context. In addition, three former high school administrators who had moved on to district level positions assessed the clarity and content validity of the original survey. Internal consistency is essential in establishing

reliability for a survey instrument with multiple items (Creswell, 2018). To confirm the internal consistency of the Principal Job Survey variable scales, the researchers conducted a reliability analysis and reported mild to moderate variable scale reliabilities (alpha = .43-.81) (Pounder & Merrill, 2001). Optimal Cronbach's alpha values range between .7 and .9 (Creswell, 2018). All variable scales fell in the optimal range except for critical contact in Pounder & Merrill (2001) and Barksdale's (2003) study; however, critical contact fell in optimal range for the present study. Therefore, it was included in data analysis. After data was collected in this study, a principal component analysis with a varimax rotation was conducted to reduce the data and generate more specific measures of the variable scales. The variable scales and reliability analysis information from the Pounder & Merrill (2001) and Barksdale (2003) study is displayed on Table 1.

The original Principal Job Survey was specific to the high school principalship. Barksdale slightly modified the original survey by removing the term high school and making it applicable to all levels of principalship including elementary, middle, and high school. These changes were also evaluated by a panel of experts, who found the changes did not impact the overall effectiveness of the survey.

Table 1

Reliabilities for Variable Scales

Variable scales	# of Items in variable scale	Survey item numbers	Cronbach's Alpha Pounder and Merrill	Cronbach's Alpha Barksdale
Objective	8	1, 5, 8, 24, 27, 36, 43, 45	.73	.73
Subjective	17	7, 10, 19, 32, 34, 35, 37, 38, 39, 41, 42, 43, 47, 49, 57, 59, 60	.82	.87
Work itself	32	2, 3, 4, 6, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 20, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26, 28, 19, 30, 31, 33, 40, 44, 48, 50, 51, 53, 55, 56, 58	.82	.94
School context	4	61, 62, 63, 64	.79	.87
Critical Contact	4	18, 52, 54, 65	.43	.53

Note. From "Job desirability of the principalship: A study of perceptions and intentions of qualified candidates," by C. V. Barksdale, 2003, doctoral dissertation, The George Washington University, 2003. ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics was used to analyze the data collected from the Principal Job Survey. SPSS predictive analytics software was used to perform the data analysis portion of the study. Data analysis procedures included descriptive statistics and hierarchical multiple regression.

The first research question investigated factors that influence North Georgia educators to seek leadership certification in preparation for the principalship. This was

determined by calculating the mean, median, mode, and standard deviation for the following variable scales: objective, subjective, work itself, critical contact, and school context. The relationship between the independent variables (subjective, objective, work itself, critical contact and school context) and the dependent variable, the job desirability index was determined using hierarchical multiple regression analysis. The job desirability index was generated by averaging educators' responses to the following survey items: perceived attractiveness of the principalship, perceived probability of seeking the principalship, and the perceived probability of accepting the principalship in the future. In step two of the regression, demographic variables such as gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, and highest degree earned were added to the model and analyzed for significant effects. In step three of the regression, the probability of obtaining a Tier I master's degree, Tier I certification only, Tier II specialist degree, Tier II certification only, and GaPSC Rule 505-2-.153 leadership certification requirements were added to the model and analyzed for significant effects to determine if the current Georgia Professional Standards Commission rule for educational leadership is a significant predictor of an educator's willingness to pursue certification in educational leadership,

The second research question examined educators' overall attractiveness of an educational leadership position, such as the principalship using descriptive statistics and hierarchical multiple regression. It was expected that the predictor variable, work itself would be more positively correlated to educators' overall job attractiveness to the principalship as compared to the subjective, objective, work itself, critical contact and school context predictor variables. In step two of the regression, demographic variables such as gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, and highest degree earned were added to the

model and analyzed for significant effects. In step three of the regression, the probability of obtaining a Tier I master's degree, Tier I certification only, Tier II specialist degree, Tier II certification only, and GaPSC Rule 505-2-.153 leadership certification requirements were added to the model and analyzed for significant effects.

The third research question focused on educators' perceptions regarding the probability of seeking, being offered, and accepting a leadership position using descriptive statistics and hierarchical multiple regression techniques. As with educators' attractiveness to the principal position, it was also expected that the work itself predictor variable would be more positively correlated to seeking and accepting a leadership position, compared to the other predictor variables used in the study; however, it was expected that the subjective, objective, work itself and school context predictor variables would not be significant in predicting the probability of being offered a leadership position. It was expected that educators who have less years in education would have a higher perception of probability of being offered a leadership position, such as the principalship. In step two of the regression, demographic variables such as gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, and highest degree earned were added to the model and analyzed for significant effects. In step three of the regression, the probability of obtaining a Tier I master's degree, Tier I certification only, Tier II specialist degree, Tier II certification only, and GaPSC Rule 505-2-.153 leadership certification requirements was added to the model and analyzed for significant effects.

Once data were collected, all assumptions of multiple regression analysis were evaluated including normality, multicollinearity, homoscedasticity. The assumption of normality was tested using scatterplots. The assumption of multicollinearity was tested

by using Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values. The assumption of homoscedasticity was assessed using a scatterplot of residuals versus predicted values.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the factors influencing educators to pursue leadership certification in preparation for the principalship and determine how the leadership certification rule changes in Georgia have impacted educators who aspire to become leaders. Survey research methods were used to conduct the study. Educators responded to the Principal Job Survey, which is based on job choice theory and assesses various attributes of the principalship. Factors specific to Georgia leadership certification were also investigated. Chapter IV presents the results followed by the discussion in Chapter V.

Chapter IV

RESULTS

The purpose of the study was to investigate the factors influencing educators to pursue leadership certification in preparation for the principalship and ascertain how the leadership certification rule changes in Georgia have influenced educators' aspirations to become leaders. Job choice attributes of the principalship were examined to determine the impact subjective, objective, work-itself, school context, and critical contact factors had on educators' decisions to pursue leadership certification in preparation for the principalship. The study also investigated educators' perceptions of the overall attractiveness of the principalship and their future job intentions, specifically their likelihood of seeking, being offered, and accepting a position in educational leadership. The following research questions guided the study:

1. How do principal job attributes, factors associated with the certification rule change, and demographic variables predict an educator's willingness to pursue a degree or certification in educational leadership in Georgia?
2. What perceptions do educators have regarding the overall attractiveness of an educational leadership position, such as the principalship?
3. What perceptions do educators have regarding the probability of seeking, being offered, and accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future?

Chapter IV begins with descriptive statistics pertaining to the demographics and future career plans of the participants. The second section of the chapter includes principal component analysis (PCA) results, followed by a series of multiple regression analyses. The chapter concludes by presenting a summary of analysis for each research question.

Participants

The Principal Job Survey was sent to PK-12 educators throughout North Georgia via email which contained a link to the survey using the web-based survey software, Qualtrics Research Suite. The survey was sent to 1,920 elementary, middle school, and high school educators representing four school systems located in North Georgia. A total of 508 educators initiated the survey. Participants with incomplete survey responses were removed from the analysis. A total of 327 completed surveys were used in the data analysis; therefore, the response rate was 64.17%.

There were 64 males (19.60%) and 263 females (80.40%) who participated in the study. 34 participants were 20-29 years old (10.40%), 93 were 30-39 years old (28.40%), 109 were 40-49 years old (33.30%), 81 were 50-59 years old (24.80%), and 10 were 60 years old and older (3.10%). 8 participants were Hispanic (2.40%), 307 were Caucasian (93.90%), 2 Asian (.60%), 1 African American (.30%), and 9 other ethnicity (2.80%). 68 participants had a bachelor's degree (21.00%), 110 had a master's degree (34.10%), 126 had a specialist degree (39.00%), and 19 had a doctorate degree (5.90%). 66 participants were single (20.20%), while 261 (79.80%) were married. The mean number of years in professional educational career was 15.36 (M = 15.36; SD = 8.59).

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Demographics

Variable	N	%
Gender		
Male	64	19.60
Female	263	80.40
Age		
20-29	34	10.40
30-39	93	28.40
40-49	109	33.30
50-59	81	24.80
60+	10	3.10
Ethnicity		
Hispanic	8	2.40
Caucasian	307	93.90
Asian	2	.60
African American	1	.30
Other	9	2.80
Highest Degree Earned		
Bachelors	68	21.00
Masters	110	34.10
Specialist Degree (Ed.S)	126	39.00
Doctorate Degree	19	5.90
Marital Status		
Single	66	20.20
Married	261	79.80
Number of years in professional educational career		
0-9	94	28.80
10-19	115	35.30
20-29	102	31.30
30+	15	4.60

There were 143 participants who were willing and/or had a desire to seek educational leadership certification (43.87%), while 183 were not (53.13%).

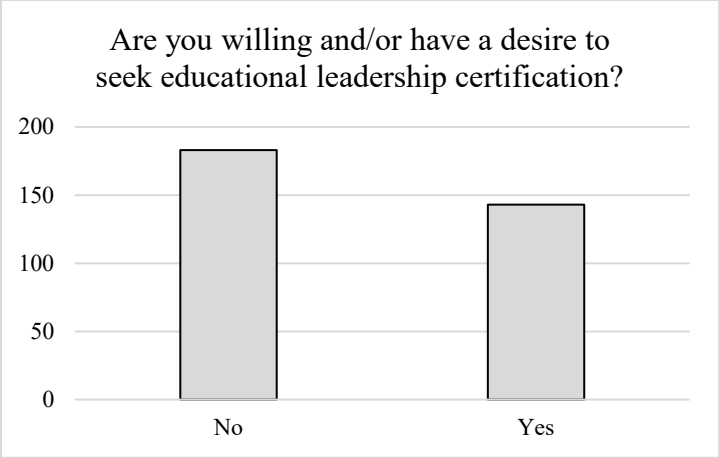

Figure 1. Frequency of Educator Willingness

There were 138 elementary teachers (42.30%), 52 middle school teachers (16.00%), 90 high school teachers (27.60%), 9 guidance counselors (2.80%), and 37 others (11.30%) who completed the survey.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Current Professional Assignment

Variable	N	%
Current professional assignment		
Elementary Teacher	138	42.30
Middle School Teacher	52	16.00
High School Teacher	90	27.60
Guidance Counselor	9	2.80
Other	37	11.30

Future career plans indicated 79 participants plan to remain in their current position (24.20%), 23 leave the field of education (7.00%), 52 plan to retire (15.90%), 25 seek an elementary school principalship (7.60%), 21 seek a middle school principalship (6.40%), 19 seek a high school principalship (5.80%), 29 seek a district position in administration (other than superintendency) (8.80%), 30 seek the same position in a different school (9.20%), 21 seek a position in a college/university (6.40%), 4 seek a

position in the state office of education or other type of educational service agent (1.20%), 9 unknown (2.80%), and 15 other (4.70%).

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Future Career Plans

Variable	N	%
Career plans for the next three to five years		
Remain in my present position	79	24.20
Leave the field of education	23	7.00
Retirement	52	15.90
Seek an Elementary School Principalship	25	7.60
Seek a Middle School Principalship	21	6.40
Seek a High School Principalship	19	5.80
Seek a district position in administration (other than superintendency)	29	8.80
Seek my same position in a different school	30	9.20
Seek a position in a college/university setting	21	6.40
Seek a position in the state office of education or other type of educational service agent	4	1.20
Unknown	9	2.80
Other	15	4.70

Quantitative Findings

Subjective Scale. Principal component analysis (PCA) was used to reduce the data and give more specific measures of the subjective scale.

Table 5

KMO and Bartlett's Test Results: Subjective Scale

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.90
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2562.99
	Df	136
	P	.000

Since the KMO statistic was greater than .50 and the *p*-value for the Bartlett's test was $p < .001$, both assumptions have been met, and the factor analysis was carried out.

PCA was used as the factor extraction method and varimax rotation was applied with Kaiser normalization (Braeken & van Assen, 2017).

Table 6

Communalities: Subjective Scale

	Initial	Extraction
Being empowered to influence school change	1.000	.49
Experiencing job stress	1.000	.51
Being supported by parents and students	1.000	.55
Gaining respect/esteem/prestige derived from position	1.000	.56
Receiving staff loyalty and support	1.000	.75
Having authority to influence others in the educational community	1.000	.62
Experiencing ethical dilemmas in decision making	1.000	.58
Developing personal/professional relationships with others inside and outside the school	1.000	.59
Having the opportunity to display and use leadership skills	1.000	.74
Filling the desire to make a difference in the lives of students and staff	1.000	.73
Having opportunities for personal and professional growth and development	1.000	.68
Balancing the competing demands of job and family	1.000	.71
Being supported by district supervisors and the school board	1.000	.72
Experiencing public visibility and accountability	1.000	.53
Experiencing pressure from special interest groups	1.000	.60
Assuming accountability for all that happens in the school	1.000	.68
Having autonomy to lead and manage the school without outside interference	1.000	.41

Since all communalities had a common variance higher than .40, all the communalities were important for an efficient factor extraction. To determine the number of components that would be extracted on each run of factor analysis, the Guttman-Kaiser criterion was used with only components whose eigenvalue would be 1.00 or higher.

Table 7

Total Variance Explained: Subjective Scale

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.71	39.49	39.49	6.71	39.49	39.49	4.04	23.78	23.78
2	2.67	15.72	55.21	2.67	15.72	55.21	3.52	20.71	44.49
3	1.05	6.20	61.41	1.05	6.20	61.41	2.88	16.92	61.41
4	.92	5.39	66.80						
5	.70	4.13	70.93						
6	.68	4.03	74.95						
7	.56	3.29	78.24						
8	.53	3.11	81.35						
9	.47	2.75	84.11						
10	.46	2.69	86.79						
11	.43	2.54	89.33						
12	.41	2.44	91.77						
13	.34	1.98	93.75						
14	.31	1.83	95.58						
15	.30	1.75	97.33						
16	.26	1.55	98.87						
17	.19	1.13	100.00						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

There were three components extracted and the first had an eigenvalue of 6.71. Cumulatively, the total percentage of the variance explained was 61.41% and this was higher than the suggested minimum of 50.00% (Hair et al., 2010). Scree plot also suggests three components (Figure 3). The additional subscales of the subjective scale were identified as positive impact, stress/accountability, and support system.

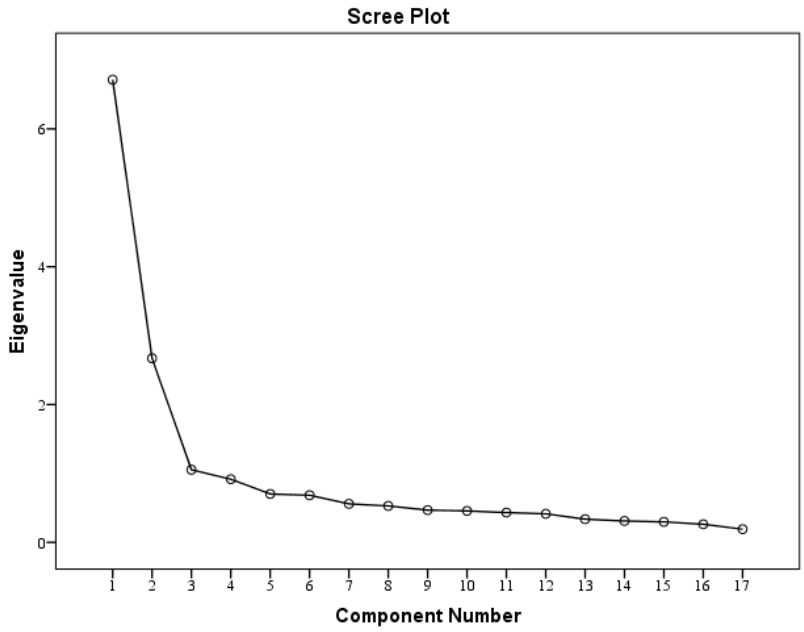

Figure 2. Scree Plot for Subjective Scale

Table 8

Factors and Questions: Subjective Scale

Factor	Questions
Factor 1: Positive Impact	41, 42, 39, 7, 38, 35
Factor 2: Stress/Accountability	59, 57, 46, 10, 37, 49
Factor 3: Support System	47, 34, 19, 32, 60

Work-itself Scale. PCA was used to reduce the data and give more specific measures of the work-itself scale.

Table 9

KMO and Bartlett's Test Results: Work-itself Scale

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.93
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4992.41
	Df	496
	P	.000

Since the KMO statistic was greater than .50 and the *p*-value for the Bartlett's test was $p < .001$, both assumptions have been met and the factor analysis was carried out. Since all communalities had a common variance higher than .40, all the communalities were important for an efficient factor extraction.

Table 10

Total Variance Explained: Work-itself Scale

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	12.30	38.45	38.45	12.30	38.45	38.45	4.69	14.67	14.67
2	2.04	6.37	44.82	2.04	6.37	44.82	3.73	11.66	26.33
3	1.47	4.59	49.40	1.47	4.59	49.40	3.67	11.48	37.81
4	1.34	4.17	53.58	1.34	4.17	53.58	3.22	10.05	47.86
5	1.27	3.96	57.54	1.27	3.96	57.54	2.43	7.61	55.47
6	1.08	3.39	60.92	1.08	3.39	60.92	1.746	5.457	60.92

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

There were six components that were extracted and the first had an eigenvalue of 12.303. Cumulatively, the total percentage of the variance explained was 60.92% and this was higher than the suggested minimum of 50.00% (Hair et al., 2010). Scree plot also suggests three components (Figure 4). The additional subscales of the work-itself scale were identified as problems/dilemmas, fiscal management, external relations, professional development, time demands, and management tasks.

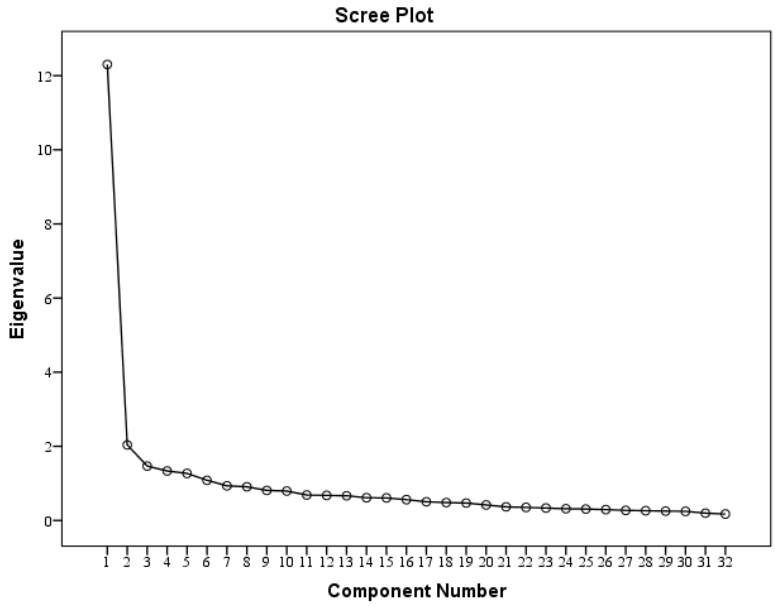

Figure 3. Scree Plot for Work-itself Scale

Table 11

Factors and Questions: Work-itself Scale

Factor	Questions
Factor 1: Problems/Dilemmas	50, 53, 51, 33, 48, 16
Factor 2: Fiscal Management	3, 4, 13, 9, 2, 15
Factor 3: External Relations	23, 20, 58, 6, 14, 28, 17
Factor 4: Professional Development	44, 29, 40, 55, 56, 26
Factor 5: Time Demands	21, 31, 30, 22
Factor 6: Management Tasks	12, 11, 25

Table 12

Factor Loadings: Work-itself Scale

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q50	.71					
Q53	.71					
Q51	.71					
Q33	.66					
Q48	.65					
Q16	.61					
Q3		.77				
Q4		.69				
Q13		.65				
Q9		.63				
Q2		.53				
Q15		.44				
Q23			.71			
Q20			.67			
Q58			.66			
Q6			.57			
Q14			.51			
Q28			.43			
Q17			.40			
Q44				.76		
Q29				.64		
Q40				.57		
Q55				.54		
Q56				.54		
Q26				.50		
Q21					.70	
Q31					.63	
Q30					.54	
Q22					.51	
Q12						.58
Q11						.51
Q25						.38

Reliability

Reliability analysis was conducted to determine whether the objective, subjective (factor 1–positive impact, factor 2–stress/accountability, and factor 3–support system), work–itself (factor 1–problems/dilemma, factor 2–fiscal management, factor 3–external relations, factor 4–professional development, factor 5–time demands, and factor 6–management tasks), school context, critical contact, job desirability index, and the Georgia educational leadership certification scales have internal consistency and reliability. The results indicate all scales have optimal internal validity and reliability, Cronbach's alpha between .70 and .90 (Creswell, 2018). The median Cronbach's alpha for the scales was .84.

Table 13

Reliability Analysis Results

Scale	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Objective scale	4	.78
Subjective scale		
Factor 1–Positive Impact	6	.88
Factor 2–Stress/Accountability	6	.85
Factor 2–Support system	5	.82
Work–itself scale		
Factor 1–Problems/Dilemmas	6	.87
Factor 2–Fiscal Management	6	.84
Factor 3–External Relations	7	.82
Factor 4–Professional Development	6	.83
Factor 5–Time Demands	4	.73
Factor 6–Management Tasks	3	.71
School context scale	4	.85
Critical contact scale	3	.74
Job desirability index	3	.94
Georgia Educational Leadership Certification	5	.92

Descriptive Statistics

The objective, subjective, work–itself, school context, and critical contact scales all range from -2 to 2. The results show objective factors and subjective factor 1–(positive impact) somewhat positively influence participants' decisions, on average. Critical contact factors and work–itself–factor 2 fiscal management have no influence on participants' decisions, on average. The range for the Georgia Educational Leadership Certification scale was from one to six. The results indicate Georgia educational leadership certification requirements are on average somewhat unlikely to help with job desirability. NA values were included as missing values.

Table 14

Descriptive Statistics for Job Desirability

Variable	N	M	SD	Low	High
Objective scale	313	.78	.73	-2.00	2.00
Subjective scale Factor 1–Positive Impact	299	1.10	.76	-2.00	2.00
Subjective scale Factor 2–Stress/Accountability	304	-.39	.91	-2.00	2.00
Subjective scale Factor 3–Support System	303	.59	.85	-2.00	2.00
Work–itself scale Factor 1–Problems/Dilemmas	309	-.29	.97	-2.00	2.00
Work–itself scale Factor 2–Fiscal Management	314	.05	.84	-2.00	2.00
Work–itself scale Factor 3–External Relations	300	.53	.73	-2.00	2.00
Work–itself scale Factor 4–Professional Development	300	.35	.78	-2.00	2.00
Work–itself scale Factor 5–Time Demands	298	-.16	.85	-2.00	2.00
Work–itself scale Factor 6–Management Tasks	302	.29	.92	-2.00	2.00
School context scale	308	.40	.80	-2.00	2.00
Critical contact scale	298	.39	.84	-2.00	2.00
Job desirability scale	320	2.86	1.53	1.00	6.00
Georgia Educational Leadership Certification	307	2.88	1.63	1.00	6.00

The mean overall attractiveness of an educational leadership position, such as the principalship is 3.11 (M = 3.11; SD = 1.48). Since the overall attractiveness ranges from 1 to 6, it can be determined an educational leadership position is moderately attractive on average. The mean probability of seeking an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future is 2.68 (M = 2.68; SD = 1.62). The mean probability of being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future is 2.57 (M = 2.57; SD = 1.50). The mean probability of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future is 2.78 (M = 2.78; SD = 1.73). Therefore, the probability of seeking, being offered, and accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future is on average somewhat attractive.

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics for Job Attractiveness

Variable	N	M	SD
Overall attractiveness of an educational leadership position, such as the principalship	320	3.11	1.48
The probability of seeking an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future	320	2.68	1.62
The probability of being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future	319	2.57	1.50
The probability of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future	320	2.78	1.73

Correlations

A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to determine the relationship between job desirability scale and objective scale, subjective scale–factor 1, subjective scale–factor 2, subjective scale–factor 3, work–itself–factor 1, work–itself–factor 2,

work–itself–factor 3, work–itself–factor 4, work–itself–factor 5, work–itself–factor 6, school context scale, critical contact scale, and Georgia educational leadership certification. The results indicate a positive significant relationship between the job desirability index and the objective scale, subjective scale–factor 1, subjective scale–factor 2, subjective scale–factor 3, work–itself–factor 1, work–itself–factor 2, work–itself–factor 3, work–itself–factor 4, work–itself–factor 5, work–itself–factor 6, school context scale, critical contact scale, and Georgia educational leadership certification.

Table 16

Correlations

	JD	OB	S1	S2	S3	W1	W2	W3	W4	W5	W6	SC	CC	GE
JD	1													
OB	.40*	1												
S1	.52**	.71**	1											
S2	.36**	.26**	.31**	1										
S3	.47**	.58**	.68**	.48**	1									
W1	.43**	.27**	.39**	.84**	.51**	1								
W2	.47**	.38**	.43**	.61**	.46**	.66**	1							
W3	.46**	.51**	.70**	.47**	.62**	.58**	.65**	1						
W4	.46**	.58**	.68**	.60**	.58**	.61**	.67**	.73**	1					
W5	.37**	.36**	.36**	.64**	.45**	.63**	.58**	.54**	.56**	1				
W6	.43**	.45**	.52**	.60**	.59**	.65**	.68**	.65**	.68**	.51**	1			
SC	.28**	.36**	.45**	.41**	.49**	.39**	.39**	.44**	.47**	.32**	.43**	1		
CC	.47**	.53**	.59**	.50**	.66**	.50**	.49**	.53**	.62**	.47**	.60**	.56**	1	
GE	.75**	.32**	.44**	.31**	.36**	.34**	.38**	.39**	.38**	.30**	.36**	.27**	.39**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Note: OB = Objective scale, S1 = Subjective scale–factor 1 positive impact, S2 = Subjective scale–factor 2 stress/accountability, S3 = Subjective scale–factor 3 support system, W1 = Work – itself factor – 1- problems/dilemmas, W2 = Work – itself factor – 2 fiscal management, W3 = Work – itself factor – 3 external relations, W4 = Work – itself factor 4 professional development, W5 = Work – itself factor – 5 time demands, W6 = Work – itself factor – 6 management tasks, SC = School context scale, CC = Critical contact scale, JD = Job Desirability scale, GE = Georgia Educational Leadership Certification

Research Question 1

Regression analysis was conducted to determine whether objective scale, subjective scale–factor 1 (positive impact), subjective scale–factor 2 (stress/accountability), subjective scale–factor 3 (support system), work–itself–factor 1 (problems/dilemmas), work–itself–factor 2 (fiscal management), work–itself–factor 3 (external relations), work–itself–factor 4 (professional development), work–itself–factor 5 (time demands), work–itself–factor 6 (management tasks), school context scale, critical contact scale predict the job desirability index. $R^2 = .39$, indicating that 39.00% in the variance of the job desirability index is explained by job choice predictors. The results of ANOVA were significant, $F(12, 193) = 10.05$, $p < .001$. We therefore must reject the null hypothesis that the slope of the regression line is zero and conclude job choice theory variables predict the job desirability index. Subjective scale–factor 1 is a significant positive predictor of job desirability ($p = .001$) and work–itself–factor 2 is a significant predictor of job desirability ($p = .03$). The other predictors were not significant.

Table 17

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results – Step 1

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficients	t	p
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.02	.16		12.36	.000
Objective	.30	.19	.14	1.54	.13
Subjective–factor 1	.73	.22	.38	3.40	.001
Subjective–factor 2	.07	.21	.04	.32	.75
Subjective–factor 3	-.05	.17	-.03	-.32	.75
Work–factor 1	.20	.19	.13	1.005	.32
Work–factor 2	.39	.18	.22	2.22	.03
Work–factor 3	-.08	.23	-.04	-.37	.71
Work–factor 4	-.201	.22	-.11	-.93	.35
Work–factor 5	.08	.15	.04	.51	.61
Work–factor 6	-.002	.18	-.001	-.01	.99
School Context	-.09	.14	-.05	-.63	.53
Critical Contact	.110	.17	.06	.67	.51

Dependent variable: Job desirability index

Regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job choice theory variables, gender, age, race, marital status, probability of seeking educational leadership certification, the number of years in professional educational career predict job desirability. $R^2 = .63$, indicating that 63.00% in variance of job desirability is explained by job choice predictors and demographic factors. R^2 *change* = .24, and significant $F(7, 186) = 16.99$, $p < .001$, and indicates that adding gender, age, race, marital status, probability to seek educational leadership certification, and the number of years in professional educational career significantly add to the model. The results of ANOVA were significant, $F(19, 186) = 16.29$, $p < .001$. We therefore must reject the null hypothesis that the slope of the regression line is zero and job choice theory variables and demographic factors predict job desirability. Subjective scale–factor 1 is a significant

positive predictor of job desirability ($p = .03$), probability to seek educational leadership certification ($p < .001$), highest degree earned (education) ($p = .04$), and the number of years in professional education career ($p = .02$) are significant predictors of job desirability. The other predictors were not significant.

Table 18

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results – Step 2

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficients		
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
(Constant)	1.78	.59		3.01	.003
Objective	.20	.15	.10	1.27	.20
Subjective–factor 1	.38	.18	.20	2.15	.03
Subjective–factor 2	.18	.17	.11	1.05	.30
Subjective–factor 3	.02	.14	.009	.12	.91
Work–factor 1	.08	.16	.06	.53	.60
Work–factor 2	.05	.15	.03	.35	.73
Work–factor 3	-.11	.18	-.06	-.62	.54
Work–factor 4	-.13	.17	-.07	-.77	.44
Work–factor 5	.04	.13	.02	.32	.75
Work–factor 6	.05	.14	.03	.33	.74
School Context	.001	.11	.00	.01	.99
Critical Contact	.10	.13	.05	.76	.47
Probability to seek educational leadership certification	1.57	.17	.52	9.09	.00
Gender	-.16	.18	-.04	-.91	.37
Age	.09	.11	.06	.87	.39
Race	-.15	.32	-.02	-.46	.65
Marital status	.06	.18	.02	.35	.73
Highest degree earned	.19	.10	.11	2.03	.04
Number of years in professional educational career	-.03	.01	-.17	-2.30	.02

Dependent variable: Job desirability index

Regression analysis was conducted using the same set of variables to predict job desirability. $R^2 = .78$, indicating that 78.00% in the variance of job desirability is

explained by job choice predictors, demographic factors, and GaPSC requirements. R^2 change = .15, and significant $F(5, 181) = 24.48$, $p < .001$, and indicate that adding the probability of obtaining a Tier I master's degree, Tier I certification only, Tier II specialist degree, Tier II certification only, and GaPSC Rule 505-2-.153 leadership certification requirements significantly add to the model. The results of ANOVA were significant, $F(24, 181) = 26.13$, $p < .001$. We therefore must reject the null hypothesis that the slope of the regression line is zero and conclude these factors predict job desirability.

Subjective scale–factor 1 is a significant positive predictor of job desirability ($p = .03$). Probability to seek educational leadership certification ($p < .001$), highest degree earned (education) ($p = .04$), the number of years in professional educational career ($p = .02$), probability of obtaining a Tier II certification only ($p = .006$), and probability of obtaining leadership certification under GaPSC Rule 505-2-.153 certification requirements ($p < .001$) are significant predictors of job desirability. The other predictors were not significant.

Table 19

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results – Step 3

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficients	t	p
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.78	.59		3.01	.003
Objective	.20	.15	.10	1.27	.20
Subjective–factor 1	.38	.18	.20	2.15	.03
Subjective–factor 2	.18	.17	.11	1.05	.30
Subjective–factor 3	.02	.14	.009	.12	.91
Work–factor 1	.08	.16	.06	.53	.60
Work–factor 2	.05	.15	.03	.35	.73
Work–factor 3	-.11	.18	-.06	-.62	.54
Work–factor 4	-.13	.17	-.07	-.77	.44
Work–factor 5	.04	.13	.02	.32	.75
Work–factor 6	.05	.14	.03	.33	.74
School Context	.001	.11	.00	.008	.99
Critical Contact	.10	.13	.05	.73	.47
Probability to seek educational leadership certification	1.57	.17	.52	9.09	.00
Gender	-.16	.18	-.04	-.91	.37
Age	.09	.11	.06	.87	.39
Race	-.15	.32	-.02	-.46	.65
Marital status	.06	.18	.02	.35	.73
Highest degree earned	.19	.10	.11	2.03	.04
Number of years in professional educational career	-.03	.01	-.17	-2.29	.02
Probability of obtaining a Tier I degree	.005	.05	.007	.10	.92
Probability of obtaining Tier I certification only	-.07	.07	-.10	-1.07	.29
Probability of obtaining a Tier II degree	.03	.06	.04	.49	.63
Probability of obtaining Tier II certification only	.21	.07	.24	2.76	.006
Probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC Rule	.35	.07	.40	4.98	.00

Dependent variable: Job desirability index

All VIF values were less than 10, so there is no multicollinearity.

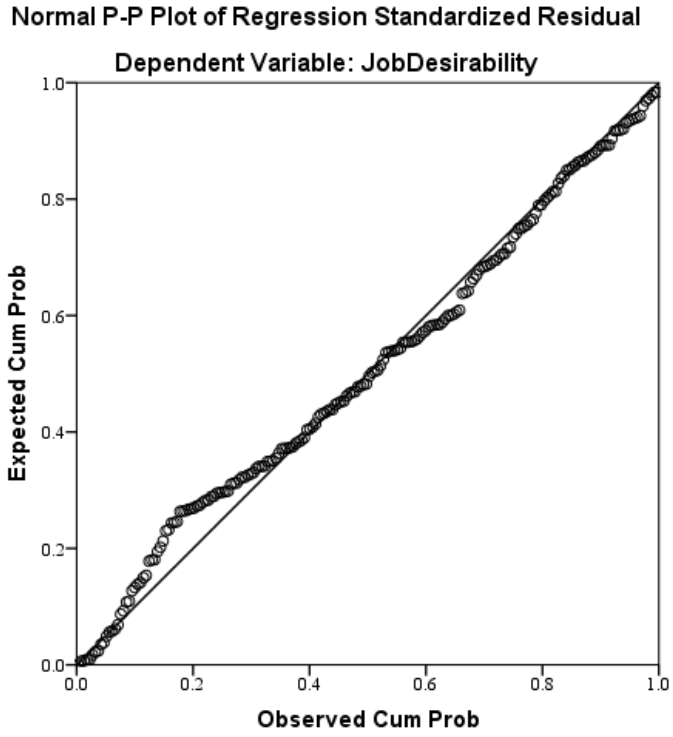

Figure 4. P-P Plot for Job Desirability

The Normal P-P plot of regression standardized residuals shows that residuals do not deviate a lot from the line, so the assumption of normality is met. Histogram also confirms that residuals are normally distributed. Furthermore, there are more than 30 observations, so according to the Central Limit Theorem for every $n > 30$, data tend to be normally distributed.

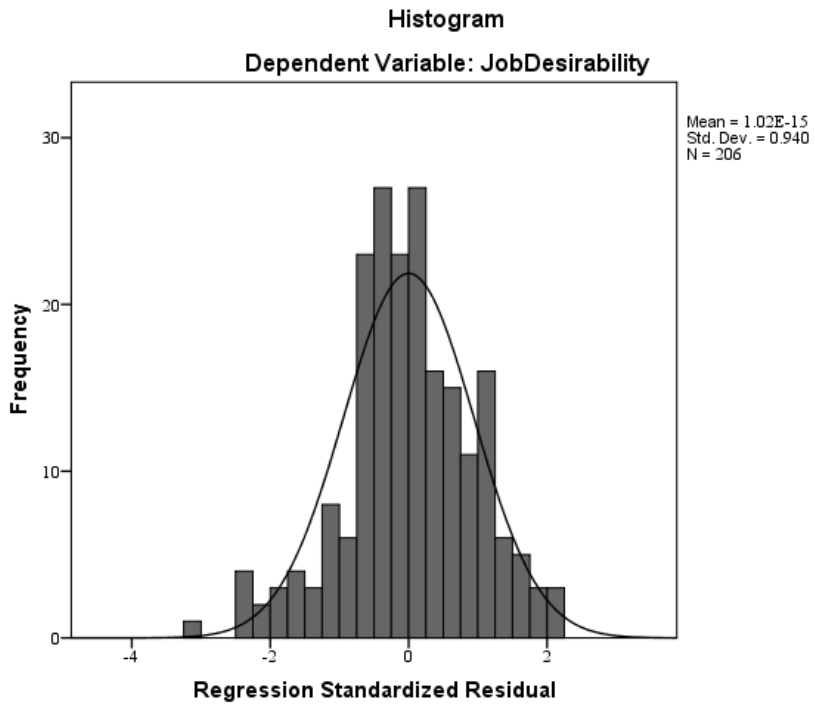

Figure 5. Histogram for Job Desirability

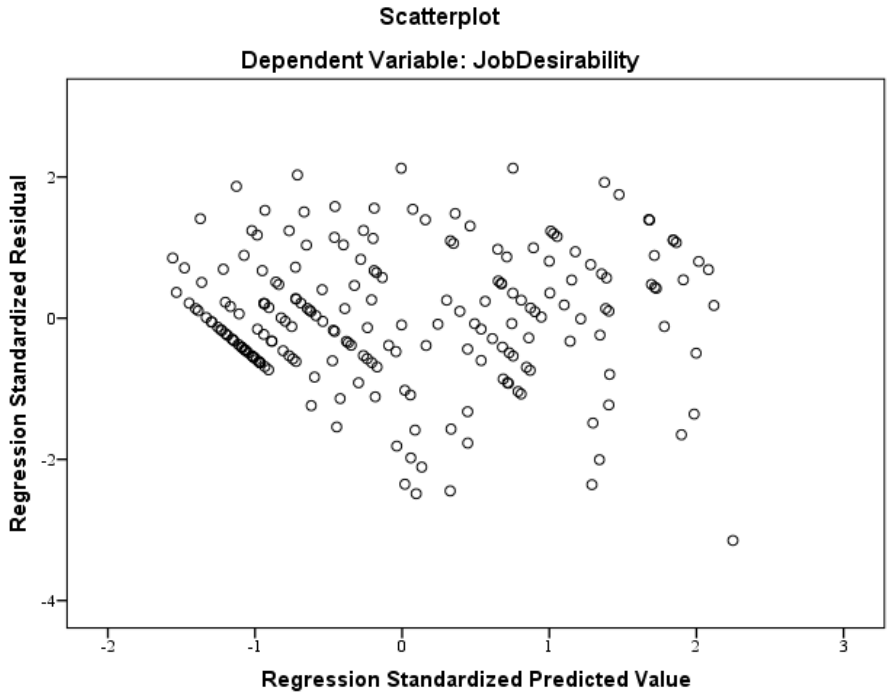

Figure 6. Scatterplot for Job Desirability

Scatterplot indicates that residuals are homoscedastic (there is no heteroskedasticity).

Research Question 2

Descriptive statistics and regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job choice theory variables predict job attractiveness. $R^2 = .38$, indicating that 38.00% in the variance of job attractiveness is explained by job choice theory predictors. The results of ANOVA were significant, $F(12, 193) = 9.78$, $p < .001$. We therefore reject the null hypothesis that the slope of the regression line is zero and conclude job choice theory variables predict job attractiveness. Subjective scale–factor 1 is a significant positive predictor ($p = .004$). The other variables were not significant.

Table 20

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results: Job Attractiveness- Step 1

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficients		
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
(Constant)	2.41	.16		14.74	.000
Objective	.36	.19	.18	1.88	.06
Subjective–factor 1	.62	.22	.32	2.89	.004
Subjective–factor 2	.23	.21	.15	1.11	.27
Subjective–factor 3	-.12	.17	-.07	-.71	.48
Work–factor 1	.18	.19	.12	.92	.36
Work–factor 2	.31	.18	.17	1.76	.08
Work–factor 3	.11	.23	.06	.51	.61
Work–factor 4	-.26	.22	-.14	-1.20	.23
Work–factor 5	.08	.15	.05	.52	.60
Work–factor 6	.002	.18	.001	.01	.99
School Context	-.16	.14	-.08	-1.15	.25
Critical Contact	.06	.17	.03	.35	.72

Dependent variable: Job attractiveness

Regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job choice theory variables and demographic factors predict job attractiveness. $R^2 = .49$, indicating that

49.00% in the variance of job attractiveness is explained by job choice theory and demographic variables. R^2 change = .167, and significant $F(7, 186) = 9.78$, $p < .001$, and indicates that adding gender, age, race, marital status, probability to seek educational leadership certification, and the number of years in professional career significantly add to the model.

Table 21

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results: Job Attractiveness- Step 2

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficients		
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
(Constant)	2.46	.65		3.81	.00
Objective	.25	.17	.12	1.48	.14
Subjective–factor 1	.32	.20	.17	1.65	.10
Subjective–factor 2	.28	.19	.18	1.53	.13
Subjective–factor 3	-.03	.15	-.017	-.20	.84
Work–factor 1	.07	.17	.04	.38	.70
Work–factor 2	.05	.16	.03	.32	.75
Work–factor 3	.06	.20	.03	.32	.75
Work–factor 4	-.16	.19	-.09	-.83	.41
Work–factor 5	.04	.14	.02	.28	.78
Work–factor 6	.06	.16	.04	.39	.70
School Context	-.08	.12	-.04	-.62	.54
Critical Contact	.03	.15	.02	.20	.84
Probability to seek educational leadership certification	1.39	.19	.46	7.32	.00
Gender	-.34	.20	-.09	-1.74	.08
Age	.21	.12	.14	1.77	.08
Race	-.11	.35	-.02	-.31	.76
Marital Status	-.03	.19	-.008	-.16	.87
Highest Degree Earned	.08	.11	.05	.77	.44
The number of years in professional educational career	-.02	.01	-.13	-1.61	.11

Dependent variable: Job attractiveness

The results of ANOVA were significant, $F(19, 186) = 111.75$, $p < .001$. We therefore must reject the null hypothesis that the slope of the regression line is zero and conclude that job choice theory variables and demographic factors predict job attractiveness. The probability to seek educational leadership certification was the only significant predictor of job attractiveness ($p < .001$). The other predictors were not significant.

Regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job choice theory variables, demographic factors, and GaPSC educational leadership certification factors predict job attractiveness. $R^2 = .59$, indicating that 59.00% in the variance of job attractiveness is explained by job choice theory predictors, demographic factors, and GaPSC requirements. R^2 change = .09 and significant $F(5, 181) = 9.46$, $p < .001$, and indicates that the probability of obtaining a Tier I master's degree, Tier I certification only, Tier II specialist degree, Tier II certification only, and GaPSC Rule 505-2-.153 leadership certification requirements significantly add to the model. The results of ANOVA were significant, $F(24, 181) = 13.39$, $p < .001$. We therefore must reject the null hypothesis that the slopes of the regression line is zero and conclude job choice theory variables, demographic factors, and GaPSC educational leadership certification factors predict job attractiveness. Age ($p = .02$), probability to seek educational leadership certification ($p = .002$), probability of obtaining Tier II certification only ($p = .02$), and probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC Rule 505-2-.153 ($p = .02$) are significant predictors of job attractiveness. The other predictors were not significant.

Table 22

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results: Job Attractiveness- Step 3

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficients	t	p
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.82	.60		3.05	.003
Objective	.22	.15	.11	1.43	.16
Subjective–factor 1	.22	.18	.11	1.24	.22
Subjective–factor 2	.22	.17	.14	1.29	.20
Subjective–factor 3	.003	.14	.002	.02	.98
Work–factor 1	.10	.16	.07	.62	.54
Work–factor 2	.04	.15	.02	.25	.80
Work–factor 3	.02	.18	.01	.11	.92
Work–factor 4	-.10	.17	-.06	-.58	.56
Work–factor 5	.04	.13	.02	.34	.74
Work–factor 6	-.03	.14	-.02	-.21	.84
School Context	-.07	.11	-.04	-.60	.55
Critical Contact	-.01	.13	-.006	-.09	.93
Probability to seek educational leadership certification	.69	.22	.23	3.19	.002
Gender	-.317	.178	-.086	-1.784	.08
Age	.244	.107	.160	2.284	.02
Race	-.224	.324	-.032	-.689	.49
Marital Status	-.013	.174	-.003	-.072	.94
Highest Degree Earned	-.005	.098	-.003	-.052	.96
The number of years in professional educational career	-.015	.013	-.085	-1.135	.26
Probability of obtaining a Tier I degree	-.033	.067	-.044	-.494	.62
Probability of obtaining Tier I certification only	-.042	.087	-.054	-.478	.63
Probability of obtaining a Tier II degree	.041	.076	.050	.539	.59
Probability of obtaining Tier II certification only	.224	.094	.258	2.383	.02
Probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC Rule	.214	.089	.246	2.394	.02

Dependent variable: Job attractiveness

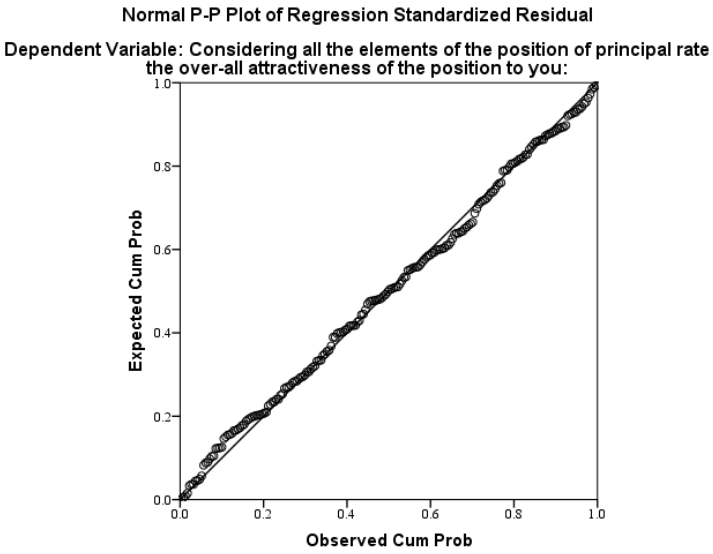

Figure 7. P-P Plot for Overall Attractiveness of the Position

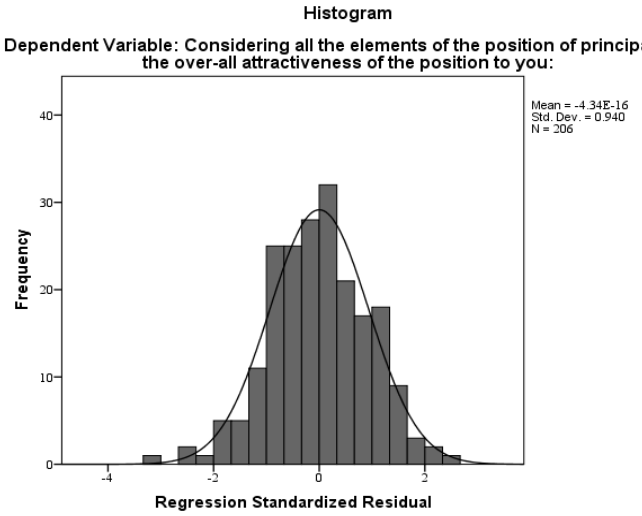

Figure 8. Histogram for Overall Attractiveness of the Position

The normal P-P plot of regression standardized residuals shows that residuals do not deviate a lot from the line, so the assumption of normality is met. Histogram also confirms that residuals are normally distributed. Furthermore, there are more than 30

observations, so according to the Central Limit Theorem for every n > 30, data tend to be normally distributed.

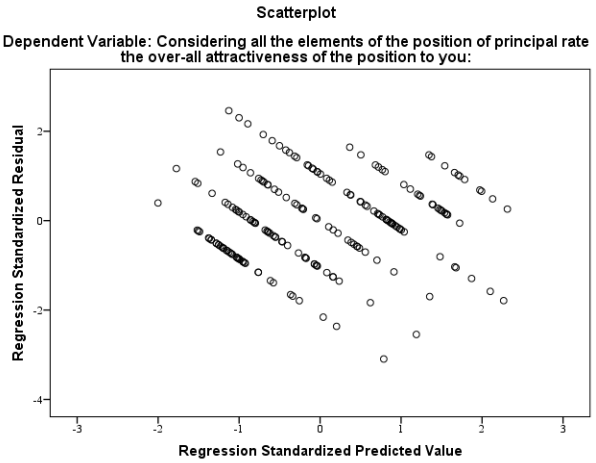

Figure 9. Scatterplot for Overall Attractiveness of the Position

Scatterplot indicates residuals are homoscedastic (there is no heteroskedasticity).

Research Question 3

Descriptive statistics and regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job choice theory variables predict educators' probability of seeking, being offered, and accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. R^2= .33, indicating that 33.00% in the variance of probability of seeking an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future is explained by job choice theory variables. The results of ANOVA were significant, $F(12, 193) = 9.78$, $p < .001$. We therefore must reject the null hypothesis that the slope of the regression line is zero and conclude job choice theory variables predict educators' probability of seeking an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. Subjective scale–factor 1 is a significant positive predictor ($p <$ .001) and work–itself–factor 2 ($p = .04$) is a significant predictor. The other predictors were not significant.

Table 23

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results: Seeking a Position- Step 1

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficients		
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
(Constant)	1.77	.18		10.00	.00
Objective	.28	.21	.13	1.33	.18
Subjective–factor 1	.75	.23	.37	3.19	.00
Subjective–factor 2	-.02	.23	-.009	-.06	.95
Subjective–factor 3	-.08	.19	-.04	-.41	.68
Work–factor 1	.17	.21	.11	.81	.42
Work–factor 2	.40	.19	.22	2.12	.04
Work–factor 3	-.12	.24	-.06	-.47	.64
Work–factor 4	-.13	.23	-.07	-.57	.57
Work–factor 5	.05	.17	.03	.29	.77
Work–factor 6	.004	.19	.002	.02	.98
School Context	-.13	.15	-.06	-.85	.40
Critical Contact	.16	.18	.08	.89	.37

Dependent variable: Probability of seeking an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future

Regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job choice theory variables and demographic factors predict the probability of seeking an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. $R^2 = .60$, indicating that 60.00% in the variance of probability to seek an educational leadership position is explained by the job choice theory predictor variables and the demographic factors. R^2 change = .27, and significant $F(7, 186) = 17.90$, $p < .001$, and indicates that adding that adding gender, age, race, marital status, probability to seek educational leadership certification, and the number of years in professional educational career significantly add to the model. The results of ANOVA were significant, $F(19, 186) = 14.62$, $p < .001$. We therefore must reject the null hypothesis that the slope of our regression line is zero and conclude that the job choice theory predictors and demographic factors predict the probability of

seeking an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. Probability to seek educational leadership certification ($p < .001$), highest degree earned ($p = .04$), and the number of years in professional educational career ($p = .04$) were significant predictors. The other predictors were not significant.

Table 24

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results: Seeking a Position- Step 2

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficients		
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
(Constant)	1.47	.63		2.32	.02
Objective	.18	.16	.08	1.08	.28
Subjective–factor 1	.37	.19	.18	1.94	.06
Subjective–factor 2	.13	.18	.08	.72	.47
Subjective–factor 3	-.02	.15	-.009	-.11	.91
Work–factor 1	.04	.17	.03	.26	.80
Work–factor 2	.03	.16	.02	.18	.86
Work–factor 3	-.14	.20	-.07	-.74	.46
Work–factor 4	-.08	.19	-.04	-.41	.68
Work–factor 5	.02	.14	.01	.12	.90
Work–factor 6	.06	.15	.03	.38	.70
School Context	-.04	.12	-.02	-.34	.74
Critical Contact	.15	.14	.08	1.08	.28
Probability to seek educational leadership certification	1.70	.19	.54	9.15	.00
Gender	-.05	.19	-.01	-.29	.78
Age	.01	.12	.01	.12	.91
Race	-.12	.35	-.02	-.36	.72
Marital Status	.06	.19	.02	.33	.75
Highest Degree Earned	.21	.10	.12	2.08	.04
The number of years in professional educational career	-.03	.01	-.16	-2.06	.04

Dependent variable: Probability of seeking an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future

Regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job choice theory variables, demographic factors, and GaPSC educational leadership certification factors predict the probability of seeking an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. $R^2 = .74$, indicating that 74.00% in the variance of probability of seeking an educational leadership position is explained by the job choice theory variables, demographic factors, and GaPSC educational leadership certification factors. R^2 change = .17 and significant $F(5, 181) = 26.95$, $p < .001$, and indicates that adding probability of obtaining a Tier I degree, probability of obtaining Tier II certification only, probability of a Tier II degree, probability of obtaining Tier I certification only, and probability of obtaining certification under the GaPSC rule significantly add to the model.

The results of ANOVA were significant, $F(24, 181) = 25.27$, $p < .001$. We therefore must reject the null hypothesis that the slope of the regression line is zero and conclude job choice theory predictors, demographic factors, and GaPSC requirements predict the probability of seeking an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. Probability to seek educational leadership ($p < .001$), probability of obtaining Tier II certification only ($p = .01$), and probability of obtaining certification under the GaPSC rule ($p < .001$) are significant predictors of probability of seeking an educational leadership position in the future. The other predictors were not significant.

Table 25

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results: Seeking a Position- Step 3

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficients	t	p
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	.56	.50		1.12	.27
Objective	.16	.13	.07	1.23	.22
Subjective–factor 1	.21	.15	.10	1.38	.17
Subjective–factor 2	.04	.14	.03	.30	.76
Subjective–factor 3	.02	.12	.01	.20	.84
Work–factor 1	.09	.13	.06	.66	.51
Work–factor 2	.04	.12	.02	.33	.74
Work–factor 3	-.19	.15	-.09	-1.24	.22
Work–factor 4	.00	.14	.00	-.002	1.00
Work–factor 5	.007	.11	.004	.07	.95
Work–factor 6	-.11	.12	-.06	-.90	.37
School Context	-.02	.09	-.01	-.21	.83
Critical Contact	.12	.11	.06	1.05	.30
Probability to seek educational leadership certification	.71	.18	.23	3.96	.00
Gender	-.01	.15	-.003	-.08	.94
Age	.06	.09	.04	.65	.52
Race	-.32	.27	-.04	-1.17	.25
Marital Status	.07	.15	.02	.50	.62
Highest Degree Earned	.10	.08	.06	1.27	.21
The number of years in professional educational career	-.02	.01	-.09	-1.54	.13
Probability of obtaining a Tier I degree	-.02	.06	-.03	-.38	.70
Probability of obtaining Tier I certification only	-.08	.07	-.10	-1.14	.26
Probability of obtaining a Tier II degree	.09	.06	.10	1.34	.18
Probability of obtaining Tier II certification only	.20	.08	.23	2.60	.01
Probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC Rule	.40	.08	.44	5.30	.00

Dependent variable: Probability of seeking an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future

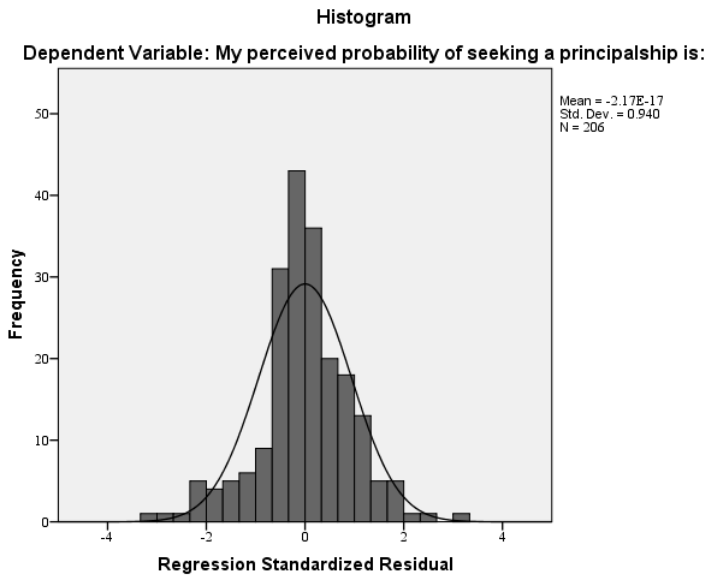

Figure 10. Histogram for Probability of Seeking a Principalship

Histogram confirms that residuals are normally distributed. Furthermore, there are more than 30 observations, so according to the Central Limit Theorem for every n > 30, data tend to be normally distributed.

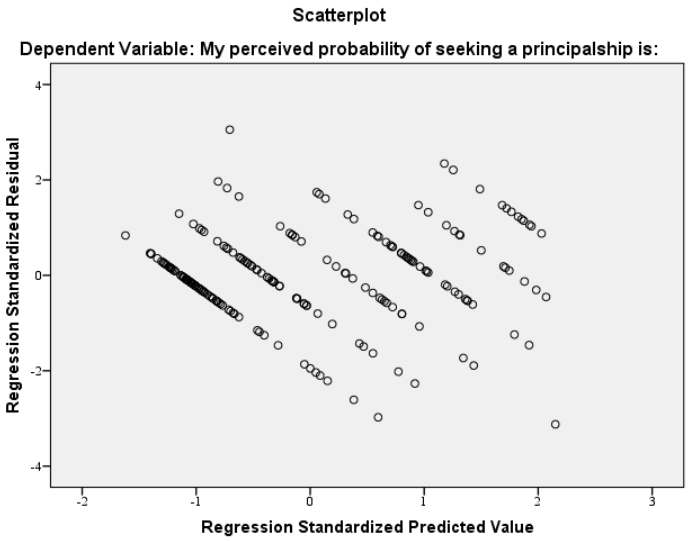

Figure 11. Scatterplot for Probability of Seeking a Principalship

Scatterplot indicates that residuals are homoscedastic (there is no heteroskedasticity).

Regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job choice theory variables predict educators' probability of being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. $R^2 = .25$, indicating that 25.00% in the variance of probability of being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future is explained by job choice theory variables. The results of ANOVA were significant, $F(12, 192) = 5.44$, $p < .001$. We therefore must reject the null hypothesis that the slope of the regression line is zero and conclude job choice theory variables predict educators' probability of being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. Subjective scale–factor 1 is the only significant predictor of probability of being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future ($p = .001$). The other predictors were not significant.

Table 26

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results: Being Offered a Position- Step 1

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficients		
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
(Constant)	1.90	.18		10.65	.00
Objective	.21	.21	.11	1.03	.30
Subjective–factor 1	.80	.24	.42	3.39	.001
Subjective–factor 2	.07	.23	.04	.29	.77
Subjective–factor 3	-.31	.19	-.17	-1.63	.11
Work–factor 1	.25	.21	.17	1.19	.24
Work–factor 2	.17	.19	.09	.88	.38
Work–factor 3	-.20	.25	-.10	-.81	.42
Work–factor 4	-.32	.24	-.17	-1.34	.18
Work–factor 5	-.10	.17	-.05	-.56	.58
Work–factor 6	.17	.19	.10	.88	.38
School Context	-.002	.15	-.001	-.02	.99
Critical Contact	.34	.18	.18	1.87	.06

Dependent variable: Probability being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future

Regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job choice theory variables and demographic factors predict probability of being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. $R^2 = .41$, indicating that 41.00% in the variance of probability of being offered an educational leadership position is explained by the job choice theory predictor variables and the demographic factors. R^2 change = .16, and significant $F(7, 185) = 6.95$, $p < .001$, and indicates that adding that adding gender, age, race, marital status, probability to seek educational leadership certification, and the number of years in professional educational career significantly add to the model. The results of ANOVA were significant, $F(19, 185) = 6.74$, $p < .001$. We therefore must reject the null hypothesis that the slope of our regression line is zero and conclude that the job choice theory predictors and demographic factors predict the probability of being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. Subjective scale–factor 1 ($p = .01$), probability to seek educational leadership certification ($p < .001$), gender ($p = .02$), and highest degree earned ($p = .002$) were significant positive predictors. The other predictors were not significant.

Table 27

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results: Being Offered a Position- Step 2

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficients	t	p
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.35	.74		1.82	.07
Objective	.18	.19	.09	.94	.35
Subjective–factor 1	.56	.22	.29	2.51	.01
Subjective–factor 2	.12	.21	.07	.56	.57
Subjective–factor 3	-.28	.17	-.16	-1.63	.11
Work–factor 1	.24	.20	.16	1.21	.23
Work–factor 2	-.15	.18	-.09	-.84	.40
Work–factor 3	-.14	.23	-.07	-.63	.53
Work–factor 4	-.25	.22	-.14	-1.14	.26
Work–factor 5	-.09	.16	-.05	-.56	.58
Work–factor 6	.12	.18	.07	.66	.51
School Context	.10	.14	.05	.69	.49
Critical Contact	.29	.17	.16	1.76	.08
Probability to seek educational leadership certification	.92	.22	.31	4.28	.00
Gender	-.53	.22	-.14	-2.38	.02
Age	.02	.13	.01	.13	.90
Race	.27	.42	.04	.64	.52
Marital Status	.30	.22	.08	1.36	.17
Highest Degree Earned	.39	.12	.22	3.22	.00
The number of years in professional educational career	-.02	.02	-.13	-1.42	.16

Dependent variable: Probability being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future

Regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job choice theory variables, demographic factors, and GaPSC educational leadership certification factors predict the probability of being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. $R^2 = .57$, indicating that 57.00% in the variance of probability of being offered an educational leadership position is explained by the job choice theory

predictor variables, demographic factors, and GaPSC requirements. R^2 *change* = .12, and significant $F(5, 180) = 13.14$, $p < .001$, and indicate that adding probability of obtaining a Tier I degree, probability of obtaining Tier II certification only, probability of a Tier II degree, probability of obtaining Tier I certification only, and probability of obtaining certification under the GaPSC rule significantly add to the model. The results of ANOVA were significant, $F(24, 180) = 9.83$, $p < .001$. We therefore reject the null hypothesis that the slope of the regression line is zero and conclude job choice theory predictors, demographic factors, and GaPSC requirements predict the probability of being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. Gender ($p = .009$), highest degree earned ($p = .003$), and probability of obtaining certification under the GaPSC rule ($p < .001$) are significant predictors of the probability of being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. The other predictors were not significant.

Table 28

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results: Being Offered a Position- Step 3

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficients	t	p
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	.69	.66		1.04	.30
Objective	.15	.17	.07	.89	.37
Subjective–factor 1	.38	.20	.20	1.95	.05
Subjective–factor 2	.04	.19	.02	.21	.84
Subjective–factor 3	-.26	.15	-.15	-1.70	.09
Work–factor 1	.25	.17	.17	1.46	.15
Work–factor 2	-.14	.16	-.08	-.90	.37
Work–factor 3	-.15	.20	-.08	-.75	.45
Work–factor 4	-.18	.19	-.10	-.94	.35
Work–factor 5	-.10	.14	-.06	-.72	.47
Work–factor 6	-.04	.16	-.02	-.24	.81
School Context	.12	.12	.06	1.01	.32
Critical Contact	.28	.15	.15	1.92	.06
Probability to seek educational leadership certification	.18	.24	.06	.78	.43
Gender	-.51	.20	-.14	-2.63	.009
Age	.07	.12	.05	.58	.56
Race	.02	.37	.003	.05	.96
Marital Status	.28	.19	.08	1.47	.14
Highest Degree Earned	.32	.11	.18	2.97	.003
The number of years in professional educational career	-.02	.01	-.09	-1.06	.29
Probability of obtaining a Tier I degree	.08	.07	.10	1.07	.29
Probability of obtaining Tier I certification only	-.18	.10	-.23	-1.85	.07
Probability of obtaining a Tier II degree	-.04	.08	-.05	-.52	.61
Probability of obtaining Tier II certification only	.18	.10	.21	1.75	.08
Probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC Rule	.45	.10	.52	4.62	.00

Dependent variable: Probability of being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future

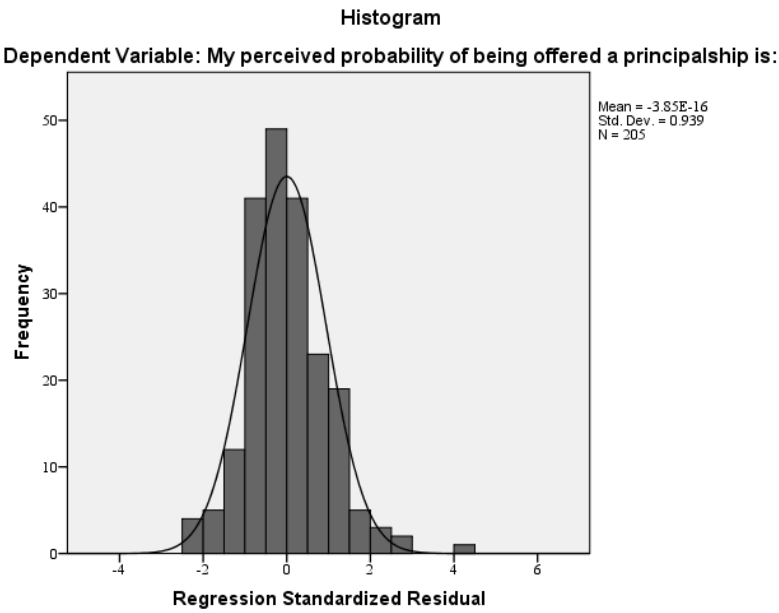

Figure 12. Histogram for Perceived Probability of Being Offered a Principalship

Histogram confirms that residuals are normally distributed. Furthermore, there are more than 30 observations, so according to the Central Limit Theorem for every n > 30, data tend to be normally distributed.

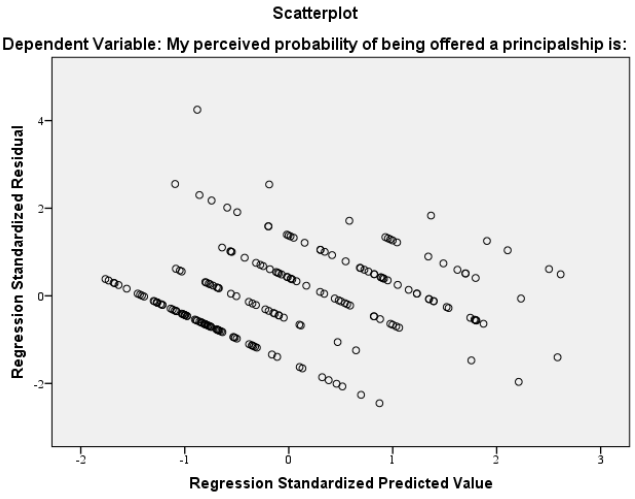

Figure 13. Scatterplot for Perceived Probability of Being Offered a Principalship

Scatterplot indicates that residuals are homoscedastic (there is no heteroskedasticity).

Regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job choice theory variables predict educators' probability of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. $R^2 = .35$, indicating that 35.00% in the variance of probability of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future is explained by job choice theory variables. The results of ANOVA were significant, $F(12, 193) = 8.70$, $p < .001$. We therefore must reject the null hypothesis that the slope of the regression line is zero and conclude job choice theory variables predict educators' probability of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. Subjective scale–factor 1 ($p = .001$) and work–itself–factor 2 ($p = .03$) are significant predictors of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. The other predictors were not significant.

Table 29

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results: Accepting a Position- Step 1

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficients		
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
(Constant)	1.87	.19		9.93	.00
Objective	.25	.22	.11	1.11	.27
Subjective–factor 1	.83	.25	.38	3.32	.001
Subjective–factor 2	-.02	.24	-.009	-.07	.95
Subjective–factor 3	.04	.20	.02	.18	.86
Work–factor 1	.24	.22	.14	1.05	.29
Work–factor 2	.45	.20	.22	2.24	.03
Work–factor 3	-.25	.26	-.11	-.96	.34
Work–factor 4	-.21	.25	-.10	-.86	.39
Work–factor 5	.11	.18	.05	.59	.55
Work–factor 6	-.01	.20	-.006	-.06	.95
School Context	.02	.16	.01	.15	.88
Critical Contact	.11	.19	.05	.59	.56

Dependent variable: Probability of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future

Regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job choice theory variables and demographic factors predict probability of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. $R^2 = .58$, indicating that 58.00% in the variance of probability of accepting an educational leadership position is explained by the job choice theory predictor variables and the demographic factors. R^2 change = .23, and significant $F(7, 186) = 14.59$, $p < .001$, and indicates that adding that adding gender, age, race, marital status, probability to seek educational leadership certification, and the number of years in professional educational career significantly add to the model. The results of ANOVA were significant, $F(19, 186) = 13.58$, $p < .001$. We therefore must reject the null hypothesis that the slope of our regression line is zero and conclude that the job choice theory predictors and demographic factors predict the probability of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. Subjective scale–factor 1 ($p = .03$), probability to seek educational leadership certification ($p < .001$), highest degree earned ($p = .01$), and number of years in professional educational career ($p = .02$) were significant positive predictors. The other predictors were not significant.

Table 30

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results: Accepting a Position- Step 2

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficients	t	p
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.41	.70		2.01	.05
Objective	.16	.18	.07	.88	.38
Subjective–factor 1	.46	.21	.21	2.15	.03
Subjective–factor 2	.12	.20	.06	.58	.56
Subjective–factor 3	.10	.17	.05	.58	.56
Work–factor 1	.14	.19	.08	.75	.46
Work–factor 2	.07	.17	.04	.42	.68
Work–factor 3	-.26	.22	-.12	-1.19	.24
Work–factor 4	-.17	.21	-.08	-.81	.42
Work–factor 5	.06	.15	.03	.43	.67
Work–factor 6	.02	.17	.01	.13	.90
School Context	.12	.13	.06	.90	.37
Critical Contact	.11	.16	.05	.67	.50
Probability to seek educational leadership certification	1.63	.21	.48	7.94	.00
Gender	-.09	.21	-.02	-.42	.67
Age	.06	.13	.03	.46	.65
Race	-.21	.38	-.03	-.56	.58
Marital Status	.15	.21	.04	.73	.46
Highest Degree Earned	.29	.11	.15	2.53	.01
The number of years in professional educational career	-.04	.02	-.19	-2.44	.02

Dependent variable: Probability of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future

Regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job choice theory variables, demographic factors, and GaPSC educational leadership certification factors predict the probability of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. $R^2 = .73$, indicating that 73.00% in the variance of the probability of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future is explained by job choice theory

predictors, demographic factors, and GaPSC requirements. R^2 change = .11, and significant $F(5, 181) = 20.84$, $p < .001$, and indicate that adding probability of obtaining a Tier I degree, Probability of obtaining Tier I certification only, probability of obtaining a Tier II degree, Probability of obtaining Tier II certification only, and probability of obtaining certification under the GaPSC rule significantly add to the model.

The results of ANOVA were significant, $F(24, 181) = 20.83$, $p < .001$. We therefore reject the null hypothesis that the slope of the regression line is zero and conclude job choice theory predictors, demographic factors, and GaPSC requirements predict the probability of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. Probability to seek educational leadership certification ($p = .001$), highest degree earned ($p = .046$), number of years in professional educational career ($p = .04$), probability of obtaining Tier II certification only ($p = .04$), and probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC rules ($p < .001$) are significant positive predictors of probability of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. The other predictors were not significant.

Table 31

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results: Accepting a Position- Step 3

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficients	t	p
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	.52	.58		.90	.37
Objective	.12	.15	.05	.78	.43
Subjective–factor 1	.27	.17	.12	1.54	.13
Subjective–factor 2	.01	.16	.006	.07	.95
Subjective–factor 3	.14	.14	.07	1.07	.29
Work–factor 1	.18	.15	.11	1.17	.25
Work–factor 2	.07	.14	.04	.50	.62
Work–factor 3	-.29	.18	-.13	-1.68	.10
Work–factor 4	-.10	.17	-.05	-.57	.57
Work–factor 5	.06	.12	.03	.52	.60
Work–factor 6	-.14	.14	-.07	-.99	.32
School Context	.15	.11	.07	1.38	.17
Critical Contact	.07	.13	.03	.53	.60
Probability to seek educational leadership certification	.72	.21	.21	3.43	.001
Gender	-.08	.17	-.02	-.46	.65
Age	.12	.10	.07	1.12	.27
Race	-.38	.32	-.05	-1.19	.24
Marital Status	.14	.17	.03	.82	.41
Highest Degree Earned	.19	.10	.10	2.01	.046
The number of years in professional educational career	-.03	.01	-.14	-2.12	.04
Probability of obtaining a Tier I degree	.07	.07	.08	1.09	.28
Probability of obtaining Tier I certification only	-.10	.09	-.11	-1.15	.26
Probability of obtaining a Tier II degree	-.04	.07	-.04	-.52	.61
Probability of obtaining Tier II certification only	.19	.09	.19	2.08	.04
Probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC Rule	.45	.09	.46	5.17	.000

Dependent variable: Probability of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future

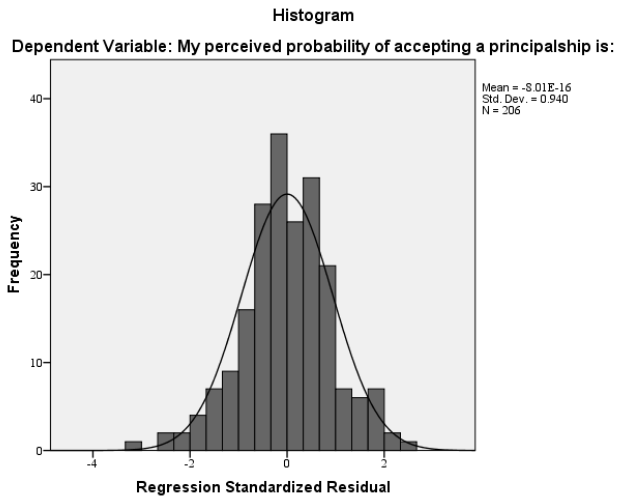

Figure 14. Histogram for Perceived Probability of Accepting a Principalship

Histogram confirms that residuals are normally distributed. Furthermore, there are more than 30 observations, so according to the Central Limit Theorem for every n < 30, data tend to be normally distributed.

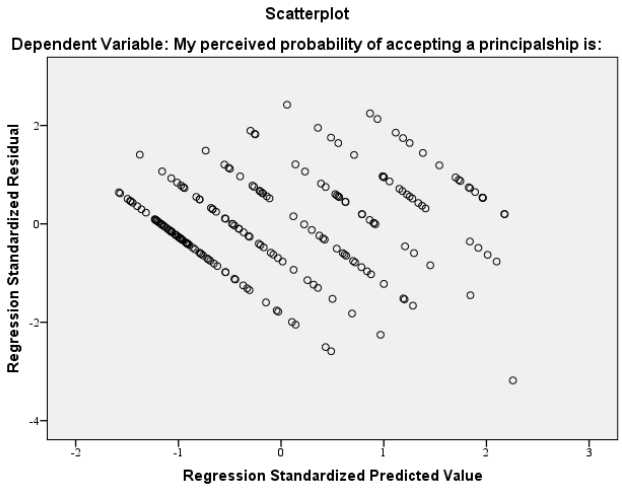

Figure 15. Scatterplot for Perceived Probability of Accepting a Principalship

Scatterplot indicates that residuals are homoscedastic (there is no heteroskedasticity).

Summary

The primary purpose of the study was to use job choice theory to investigate the factors influencing educators to pursue leadership certification in preparation for the principalship and determine how the leadership certification rule changes in Georgia have impacted educators who aspire to become leaders. The secondary purpose was to examine educators' perceptions of the overall attractiveness of the principalship and their job intentions, particularly their likelihood of seeking, being offered, and accepting a leadership position in the foreseeable future.

To answer Research Question 1, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine whether objective, subjective, work-itself, school context, critical contact factors, demographic factors, and GaPSC requirements predict job desirability. Subjective scale–factor scale 1 ($p = .03$), probability to seek educational leadership certification ($p < .001$), highest degree earned ($p = .04$), probability of obtaining a Tier II certification only ($p = .006$), probability of obtaining leadership certification under GaPSC rule certification requirements ($p < .001$), and number of years in professional educational career ($p = .02$) are significant predictors of job desirability.

To answer Research Question 2, descriptive statistics and hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine whether objective, subjective, work-itself, school context, critical contact factors, demographic factors, and GaPSC requirements predict job attractiveness. Probability to seek educational leadership ($p = .002$), age ($p = .02$), probability of obtaining Tier II certification only ($p = .02$), probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC rules ($p = .02$) are significant predictors of job attractiveness.

To answer Research Question 3, descriptive statistics and hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine whether objective, subjective, work-itself, school context, critical contact factors, demographic factors, and GaPSC requirements predict the probability of seeking, being offered, and accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. Probability to seek educational leadership certification ($p = .002$), probability of obtaining Tier II certification only ($p = .01$), and probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC rules ($p < .001$) are significant predictors of probability of seeking an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. Gender ($p = .009$), highest degree earned ($p = .003$), and probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC rules ($p < .001$) are significant predictors of probability of being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. Probability to seek educational leadership certification ($p = .001$), highest degree earned ($p = .046$), number of years in professional educational career ($p = .04$), probability of obtaining Tier II certification only ($p = .04$), and probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC rules ($p < .001$) are significant positive predictors of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The role of the principal has significantly evolved over the past two decades. Leadership certification programs have been restructured, along with modifications to educational leadership certification rules. House Bill 455 and House Bill 923 were among the significant changes. HB 455 and HB 923 requires educators receiving placement on the salary scale for advanced degrees in educational leadership to be serving in a leadership position pursuant to rules of the State Board of Education, GaPSC, Department of Education or requirements of local policy or job description. Prior to HB 455 and HB 923, educators could receive placement on the salary scale for advanced degrees in educational leadership without holding a leadership position. In 2018, Buckman et al. found Georgia was issuing an average of approximately 1,725 less leadership certifications per year than before the rule changes associated with HB 455 and HB 923 were enacted. This is alarming when coupled with predictions of leadership shortages since the beginning of the century (Whitaker, 2001). Stone-Johnson (2014) found the number of principal vacancies far surpass the number of interested applicants. The last two decades brought about significant changes to the role of a school principal. Currently, there is intensified pressure of increasing academic achievement, enhancing school culture, and developing proficient educators compared to the role of the principal in the past which mainly consisted of managerial tasks (Leithwood, Seashore-Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004).

The certification rule changes specific to Georgia include the implementation of a tiered certification system (GaPSC, 2014). Educators are now required to obtain Tier I certification to be an assistant principal or a leader who does not supervise others. If an educator is interested in advancing to a position such as the principalship, requiring the supervision of other leaders, an additional Tier II certification is required. Prior to tiered certification, when educators obtained traditional certification they could choose between a building-level or system-level certification. Therefore, if an educator was only interested in being a principal or assistant principal, they only had to obtain one leadership certification as compared to now having to obtain two sequential and separate certifications. The tiered-certification system increased time and cost requirements for educators interested in simply being a building-level principal.

The structure of educational leadership preparation programs changed considerably during the same time the leadership certification rules were modified. In the past, programs were labeled as traditional programs consisting of thesis-style and research-based courses. Currently, programs are performance-based and require on-the-job training and an increased amount of field experience compared to traditional programs in the past (Nixon, Dam, Cooper, & Henderson, 2011). Program admission requirements are more stringent for performance-based programs. McRoy (2019) conducted a study examining whether the move from traditional programs to performance-based programs increased principal performance. The sample included a group of public elementary schools in Georgia led by principals certified through more the traditional route; the other group of schools were led by principals certified after using a performance-based program of study. The dependent variables of McRoy's study

included teacher retention, student achievement, and Georgia School Personnel Survey responses. Data was collected over a three-year span from 2014-2017. The study found no significant difference between school performance of Georgia schools led by principals attaining traditional certification and those obtaining performance-based certification.

The intent of educational leadership preparation and certification reform was to better prepare leaders to increase academic success in schools and improve the knowledge and quality of leaders emerging with leadership certification (Pannell, Peltier-Glaze, Haynes, Davis, & Skelton, 2015). There is limited research on whether the intended purpose of the reform produced the desired outcome of more successful leaders. It is projected 13,000 principal positions will be vacant nationwide between 2012 and 2022 (White, Fong, & Makkonen, 2010). The demanding job attributes of the principalship, Georgia educational leadership certification reform, and the projected shortage of qualified leaders sparked the need for the current study.

The purpose of this study was to explore the factors influencing educators to pursue leadership certification in preparation for the principalship and determine how the Georgia leadership certification rule changes affected educators' decisions on entering leadership positions such as the principalship. Job choice attributes specific to the principalship were investigated to identify the influence job choice factors have on educators' willingness to obtain leadership certification in preparation for the principalship. A secondary purpose of the study included examining educators' perceptions of the overall attractiveness of the principalship, specifically their job intentions in seeking, being offered, and accepting a leadership position in in the

foreseeable future. It is important to note the probability of accepting a position assumes a position would be offered.

The study answered the following research questions:

1. How do principal job attributes, factors associated with the certification rule change, and demographic variables predict an educator's willingness to pursue a degree or certification in educational leadership in Georgia?
2. What perceptions do educators have regarding the overall attractiveness of an educational leadership position, such as the principalship?
3. What perceptions do educators have regarding the probability of seeking, being offered, and accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future?

Overview of the Study

Elementary, middle, and high school level educators throughout North Georgia were invited to participate in responding to the Principal Job Survey (Barksdale, 2003; Pounder & Merrill &, 2001). The survey consisted of four sections. The first section included demographic questions. The second section of the survey included 65 job attributes specific to the principalship. These job attributes were categorized by job choice theory and included subjective, objective, work-self, and critical contact factors. Respondents rated the influence each job attribute had on influencing their decision of seeking leadership certification in preparation for the principalship using a 5-point Likert-scale. The third section focused on their attraction to the position of principal and asked questions specifically related to seeking, applying for, and accepting a leadership position such as the principalship using a 6-point Likert scale. The final portion of the survey was

related specifically to Georgia educational leadership certification. Respondents rated their likelihood of seeking leadership certification based on costs and GaPSC rule requirements pertaining to educational leadership certification using a 6-point Likert scale.

The survey was distributed to 1,920 educators representing four rural school districts in the North Georgia area. Approximately 26% of the target population initiated the survey with 327 educators serving as the sample for the study. There was a substantial disparity in gender representation of the respondents with 80% being female and only 20% male. A similar disparity existed between marital status having 80% percent of the respondents married and 20% single. There was a significant difference in ethnicity representation. Approximately 94% of respondents were Caucasian, 2% Hispanic, .30% African American, .60% Asian, and 3% other ethnicities.

The mean number of years in a respondents' professional educational career was 15.36 (M = 15.36). A majority of respondents, totaling 39%, held a specialist degree; 34% had a master's degree followed by those with a bachelor's degree at 21% and 6% holding a doctorate degree. Elementary educators had the highest representation of 42% compared to middle school educators at 16%, high school educators accounting for 28%, 3% of counselors participating, and other positions consisting of 11% of the respondents. Only 10% of participants were between 20-29 years old. Most respondents were middle aged educators reflecting in 28% being 30-39 and 33% between the ages of 40 to 49 years old. Approximately 25% of all educators were 50-59 years old and only 3% of respondents were 60 years and older.

Only 44% of respondents indicated potential interest in being willing or having a desire to seek educational leadership certification while 53% were not interested. Taking into account one's future career plans, 24% of the respondents indicated their intent was to remain in their current position while 7% planned to leave the field of education. Retirement planned by 16% of all respondents, 8% intended to seek an elementary principalship, 6%, respectively, aspired to move to a middle or high school principalship. Finally, 9% expressed interest in seeking a district position in administration (other than superintendency) as well as the same percentage pursuing a similar position in a different school. Outside PreK-12 educational systems, 6% of the respondents wish to move to a position in a college/university; a state office of education or other type of educational service agent was of interest to 1% of the participants. Nine (3%) individuals cited unknown when asked about their future career plan while 15 (5%) simply indicated they had other plans.

The study was conducted using a cross-sectional quantitative design with survey research methods. Descriptive statistics was used in the demographic analysis. Analyzing the relationship between the independent variables (objective, subjective, work itself, school context, and critical contact), demographic variables, Georgia factors, and the dependent variable, the job desirability index, employed a three-step hierarchical regression. The job desirability index (Merrill, 1999) was calculated by averaging educator's results on the following survey items: perceived attractiveness of the principalship, perceived probability of seeking the principalship, and the perceived probability of accepting the principalship in the foreseeable future. The probability of accepting a principal position assumes they would be offered a position.

Summary of Findings

The primary purpose of the study was to use job choice theory to investigate the factors influencing educators to pursue leadership certification in preparation for the principalship and determine how the leadership certification rule changes in Georgia have impacted educators who aspire to become leaders. The secondary purpose was to examine educators' perceptions of the overall attractiveness of the principalship and their job intentions, particularly their likelihood of seeking, being offered, and accepting a leadership position in the foreseeable future.

Principal component analysis (PCA) was used to reduce the data and give more specific measures of the subjective and work-itself scale. The following procedures were followed for each scale. Communalities for items having a common variance less than .40 were deemed not important for an efficient factor extraction and removed from the analysis (Yong & Pearce, 2013). The KMO statistic was verified to be greater than .50 to ensure the sample was adequate along with the Bartlett's test being statistically significant at $p < .05$ (Harrington, 2009; Pallant, 2013). After both assumptions were met, the factor analysis was carried out. The factor extraction method was the principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation being used with Kaiser normalization (Braeken & van Assen, 2017). The Guttman-Kaiser criterion was only used with components whose eigenvalue was 1.00 or higher. The subjective and work–itself scale had subscales identified through existing literature. The subscales of the subjective scale were positive impact, stress/accountability, and support system. Problems/dilemmas, fiscal management, external relations, professional development, time demands, and management tasks identified the work–itself subscales. These same subscales were very

similar to findings in Pounder & Merrill's (2001) study in that a principal component analysis with a varimax rotation found Dilemmas/Problems, Time Demands, External Relations, Management Tasks, and Fiscal management to be additional subscales. Overall, the total percentage of the variance explained for each variable scale was higher than the suggested minimum of 50.00% (Hair et. al., 2010).

Reliability analysis was conducted to determine whether the objective, subjective (factor 1–positive impact, factor 2–stress/accountability, and factor 3–support system), work-itself (factor 1–problems/dilemma, factor 2–fiscal management, factor 3–external relations, factor 4–professional development, factor 5–time demands, and factor 6–management tasks), school context, critical contact, job desirability index, and the Georgia educational leadership certification scales. Internal consistency and reliability for all the variable scales were determined using Cronbach's alpha. All scales had optimal internal validity and reliability Cronbach's alpha between .70 and .90 (Creswell, 2018).

Summary of Research Questions

Research Question #1: How do principal job attributes, factors associated with the certification rule change, and demographic variables predict an educator's willingness to pursue a degree or certification in educational leadership in Georgia?

For Research Question 1, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine whether objective, subjective, work-itself, school context, critical contact factors, demographic factors, and GaPSC requirements predict job desirability. Subjective scale–factor 1 (positive impact), probability to seek educational leadership certification, highest degree earned, number of years in professional educational career,

probability of obtaining Tier II certification only, and probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC rules were significant predictors of job desirability. The number of years in professional educational career was a significant negative predictor of job desirability, suggesting participants with fewer years of experience are more willing to seek educational leadership certification.

Research Question #2: What perceptions do educators have regarding the overall attractiveness of an educational leadership position, such as the principalship?

To answer Research Question 2, descriptive statistics and a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine whether objective, subjective, work-itself, school context, critical contact factors, demographic factors, and GaPSC requirements predict job attractiveness. The mean overall attractiveness of an educational leadership position, such as the principalship is 3.11 ($M = 3.11$; $SD = 1.48$). Therefore, an educational leadership position is on average moderately attractive since the overall attractiveness scale ranges from 1 to 6. Significant positive predictors of job attractiveness include probability to seek educational leadership, age, probability of obtaining Tier II certification only, and probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC rules.

Research Question #3: What perceptions do educators have regarding the probability of seeking, being offered, and accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future?

To answer Research Question 3, descriptive statistics and hierarchical multiple regressions were conducted to determine whether objective, subjective, work-itself, school context, critical contact factors, demographic factors, and GaPSC requirements

predict the probability of seeking, being offered, and accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. The mean probability of seeking an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future is 2.68 (M = 2.68; SD = 1.62). Probability to seek educational leadership certification, probability of obtaining Tier II certification only, and probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC rules are significant predictors of probability of seeking an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. The mean probability of being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future is 2.57 (M = 2.57; SD = 1.50). Gender, highest degree earned, and probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC rules were significant predictors of probability of being offered an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future. The mean probability of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future is 2.78 (M = 2.78; SD = 1.73). Significant positive predictors of accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future included probability to seek educational leadership certification, highest degree earned, number of years in professional educational career, probability of obtaining Tier II certification only, and probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC rules. Therefore, the probability of seeking, being offered, and accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable future is on average somewhat attractive to participants.

Discussion

The conceptual framework for this study was job choice theory. Job choice theory is the process an applicant goes through when evaluating and making decisions regarding potential employment (Behling, Labovitz, and Gainer, 1968). Barksdale (2003), Pounder & Merrill (2001), and Newton & Witherspoon (2007) have used job

choice theory in similar studies to examine what motivates educators to enter leadership positions. In this study, the theory was used to examine the reasons influencing an educators' willingness to seek leadership certification in preparation for the principalship in addition to the Georgia educational leadership certification requirements. The objective, subjective, and critical contact elements of job choice theory were used in this study to evaluate job choice attributes of the principalship. Characteristics of each theory were analyzed to identify attributes influencing an educators' decision to seek leadership certification in preparation for the principalship. The study analyzed the relationship between the independent variables (objective, subjective, work itself, and school context), demographic variables, Georgia factors, and the dependent variable, the job desirability index, by employing a three-step hierarchical regression model for each research question.

For research question 1, the first step of the hierarchical regression was conducted to determine if job choice theory variables predicted the job desirability index. Job choice theory attributes accounted for 39% of the variance. Subjective scale–factor 1 (positive impact) was a significant positive predictor and work–itself–factor 2 (fiscal management) was a significant predictor of job desirability. In the second step of the hierarchical regression, demographic variables were added to the model. The addition of the demographic variables contributed 24% additional variance in predicting the job desirability index. Subjective scale–factor 1 (positive impact) was a significant positive predictor, probability to seek educational leadership, highest degree earned, and the number of years in professional career were significant predictors in the second model. In the third step of the hierarchical regression, GaPSC factors were added. The addition

of the GaPSC variables contributed 15% additional variance in predicting the job desirability index. In this model, subjective scale–factor 1 (positive impact), probability to seek educational leadership, highest degree earned, number of years in professional education career, probability of obtaining Tier II certification only, and probability of obtaining leadership certification under GaPSC requirements were significant predictors of the job desirability index. The subjective scale–factor 1 (positive impact) was the only consistent job choice attribute predicting job desirability of the principalship. Factors increasing the job desirability of the principalship were an educator's probability to seek educational leadership certification, highest degree earned, and number of years in professional educational career. The number of years in professional educational career was actually a negative predictor indicating educators with less years of experience are more interested in the principalship. Barksdale's (2003) study of job desirability found years in one's educational career to be a negative predictor of probability of being offered a job.

For research question 2, the first step of the hierarchical regression was performed to determine if job choice theory variables predicted the job attractiveness of the principalship. Subjective scale–factor 1 (positive impact) was a significant predictor of job attractiveness. Demographic variables were added to the second step of the hierarchical regression model. The addition of the demographic variables contributed 17% additional variance in predicting the job attractiveness. The probability to seek educational leadership certification was the only significant predictor in this model. GaPSC factors were added in the third step of the model. The addition of the GaPSC variables contributed 9% additional variance in predicting the job attractiveness. The

probability to seek educational leadership certification, age, probability to obtain Tier II certification only, and probability of obtaining leadership certification under GaPSC requirements were significant predictors of job attractiveness.

Subjective scale–factor 1 (positive impact) was the only job choice attributes predicting job attractiveness of the principalship, but it was only a significant predictor in the first step of the regression before demographic and GaPSC variables were added. Factors enhancing job attractiveness included an educator's probability to seek educational leadership, age, probability of obtaining Tier II certification only, and probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC rules. The Tier II survey item focused on the cost of the program. The GaPSC survey item focused on the requirements of obtaining Tier I and Tier II certification to become a principal. It is evident the cost and time requirements to obtain proper credentials heavily influence educators' attractiveness to the principalship. In addition, age contributes to the attractiveness of the position.

For research question 3, three separate hierarchical multiple regressions were conducted to determine if job choice theory attributes, demographic factors, and GaPSC factors predicted the probability of seeking, being offered, and accepting a principal position. For each regression, the predictability of participants seeking, being offered, and accepting a principal position increased when demographic and GaPSC variables were added to the model.

Subjective scale–factor 1 (positive impact) and work–itself–factor 2 (fiscal management) were the only job choice variables predicting educators' perceived probability of seeking and accepting an educational leadership position in the foreseeable

future. Subjective scale–factor 1 (positive impact) was the only job choice variable predicting the probability of being offered a principal position. Factors consistently improving the prediction were probability to seek educational leadership certification, highest degree earned, number of years in professional educational career, probability of obtaining Tier II certification only, and probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC rules. These were all significant positive predictors in the third step of the regression models. Highest degree earned and number of years in professional career indicate experience as being a factor in the willingness to accept a position. Tier II certification cost, along with GaPSC certification requirements factored into the decision of an educator to accept a leadership position.

Limitations

There are several limitations to the study needing to be acknowledged. First, there was limited research available on the impact federal and state specific educational leadership certification requirements have had on educators. The literature reviewed for this study focused on the history and reformation of educational leadership programs and the shortage of highly qualified leaders.

A second limitation included sample size. A substantial sample size is required for quantitative research. The responses acquired from the relatively small sample group of the study may not accurately represent the perceptions of educators located throughout the state of Georgia. The number of respondents may have been affected by the timing in sending the survey. The survey was distributed just prior to the traditional Thanksgiving school break. November is a very busy month as educators try to impart as much content

to their students before the lengthy Thanksgiving and Christmas break. Thus, the survey may have been disregarded during this time.

A third limitation is the respondent's comprehension level of the questions provided, especially in the second section of the survey consisting of 65 job choice attributes of the principal position. Because this study sought to identify the reasoning behind educators' decisions to seek educational leadership certification, a limited knowledge of the principal's role could have hindered their perception of the job choice attributes.

Recommendations for Future Research

Further research is essential to better understand how job choice attributes and certification requirements influence an educators' willingness to seek leadership certification in preparation for the principalship. More research is necessary to focus on the increased time and costs associated with the certification rule changes in Georgia. A qualitative study stemming from the results of the current study could provide more flexibility and present themes offering a clearer portrayal as to how these changes impact educators' decisions regarding seeking certification.

The results of this study indicated many educators are not interested in seeking educational leadership certification in preparation for the principalship. This emphasizes the importance of current school leaders seeking out teacher leaders who could be recruited and encouraged to pursue positions in leadership. Research is needed on how principals successfully groom teacher leaders and convince them to enter leadership. This would aid school systems in developing a plan and possible a program for aspiring leaders.

An additional recommendation for further research expanding on the results of this study include focusing on factors deterring an educators' willingness to seek leadership certification in preparation for the principalship. A qualitative or mixed method study could provide more insight into the reasoning behind their reluctance. An interesting area of focus would be conducting a study with educators, surveying their willingness to obtain leadership certification under the pre-certification reform requirements. The pre-certification requirements would include completing a traditional leadership program and receiving an increase on the salary scale, regardless of holding a leadership position. More in-depth research is also needed on how the factors specific to Georgia educators are impacting their decisions.

Conclusion

The primary purpose of this study was to determine how job choice attributes, demographic factors, and GaPSC requirements influence educators' willingness to seek leadership certification in preparation for the principalship. The secondary purpose was to determine how these factors influence their willingness to seek, apply for, and accept a principal position. Previous studies investigated the impact job choice attributes and demographics had on these decisions, but the vital objective of this study was adding the Georgia specific factors and investigating how all these variables, when combined, predict educators' willingness to seek leadership certification and potentially enter a principal position. Descriptive statistics was employed, along with a series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses to determine the predictive relationships.

The key findings revealed out of all the subjective, objective, work-itself, and critical contact factors, positive impact and fiscal management were the reoccurring

significant predictors of willingness to enter educational leadership. Positive impact is the sense of empowerment to make a difference in the lives of staff and students, forming positive relationships with stakeholders, and growing both personally and professionally. The results indicate educators who want to make a positive impact are more willing to enter leadership. Subjective factors are closely related to intrinsic needs. Fiscal management is a large part of a principal's roles and responsibilities. It includes overseeing budgets, creating master schedules, defining staff roles, and understanding laws and policies. Since this aspect is an important factor in educators' willingness to enter leadership, districts need to ensure they are providing the training and support needed for administrators to tackle this portion of the principal position.

The demographic variables that consistently proved significant included probability to seek educational leadership certification, number of years in professional educational career, and highest degree earned. Therefore, it is imperative districts place a focus on identifying those educators potentially interested in entering leadership early on in their career. This may influence their choices of obtaining higher degrees in educational leadership and entering administrative positions. By being proactive in this approach, districts can potentially increase the pool of applicants for principal positions and offset the shortage.

The key findings in the final step in the series of regression analysis were vital to achieving the main purpose of this study. When Georgia specific factors were added to the regression models, most job choice factors and demographic factors were no longer significant predictors, indicating the powerful influence Georgia specific factors have on

educators' willingness to obtain certification and enter educational leadership positions. The probability of obtaining Tier II certification only and the probability of obtaining certification under GaPSC rule were consistent significant predictors of willingness to seek educational leadership certification in preparation for the principalship. These findings suggest certification requirements are influencing their decisions to enter leadership more than the job itself. This finding is alarming and suggests the leadership certification system in Georgia needs to be reexamined. The Georgia specific survey questions were based on cost and multi-step time requirements for leadership certification, so the results indicate these are deterrents to educators' willingness to enter the leadership field.

The results of this study support the findings of the studies previously cited and provide new research to the literature, especially the portion of the study focusing specifically on the Georgia educational leadership certification requirements. The role of principal has greatly evolved over the last 20 years. Many educators are hesitant to enter the leadership field. The findings of this study emphasize the seriousness of the leadership shortage and the fact more attention needs to be placed on attracting and retaining educators who are interested in taking the career leap into leadership. As other studies revealed, there is not just one approach to job choice theory that explains a candidate's decisions, but an integration of the different theories combined. Not only has the role of the principal become more challenging over recent years, but Georgia certification requirements have also made it more time consuming and expensive for educators to become principals. Therefore, policymakers should consider the challenges associated with the position, the factors influencing their willingness, and the

requirements for obtaining the proper credentials and balance those out with added incentives for becoming a principal to attract more highly qualified candidates and offset the impeding shortage of educational leaders.

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APPENDIX A

Institutional Review Board Approval

Institutional Review Board (IRB)
For the Protection of Human Research Participants

PROTOCOL EXEMPTION REPORT

Protocol Number: 04229-2021 **Responsible Researcher(s):** Jennifer Reed

Supervising Faculty: Dr. Michael Bochenko

Project Title: *Seeking Educational Leadership Certification in Preparation for Applying for the Principalship: A Job Desirability Perspective.*

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD DETERMINATION:

This research protocol is **exempt** from Institutional Review Board (IRB) oversight under 45 CFR 46.101(b) of the federal regulations **category 2**. If the nature of the research changes such that exemption criteria no longer apply, please consult with the IRB Administrator (irb@valdosta.edu) before continuing your research study.

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:

- *This protocol has been approved to begin at the following school districts:*
  - *Gilmer and Murray County Schools (**10.14.2021**), Pickens County Schools (**11.01.2021**), Whitfield County Schools (**10.18.2021**).*
- *Upon completion of the research study collected data must be securely maintained (locked file cabinet, password protected computer, etc.) and accessible only by the researcher for a minimum of 3 years. At the end of the required time, collected data must be permanently destroyed.*

☒ ***If this box is checked, please submit any documents you revise to the IRB Administrator at irb@valdosta.edu to ensure an updated record of your exemption.***

Elizabeth Ann Olphie *10.14.2021*
Elizabeth Ann Olphie, IRB Administrator

Thank you for submitting an IRB application.
Please direct questions to irb@valdosta.edu or 229-253-2947.

Revised: 06.02.16

APPENDIX B

Permission Request to School District

Date:

Superintendent Name
School District
Mailing Address
City, GA Zip Code

Dear _____:

As a candidate for the Ed.D degree in Educational Leadership at Valdosta State University and the Department for Curriculum, Leadership, and Workforce Development, I am requesting permission to conduct research for my doctoral dissertation with your district's certified personnel at the elementary, middle, and high school level during the 2021-2022 school year.

The study uses quantitative methods by means of an online survey to investigate the factors influencing educators to pursue leadership certification in preparation for the principalship and determine how the leadership certification rule changes in Georgia have impacted educators who aspire to become leaders.

Upon agreement to participate, an email will be sent to each principal in your school system. The goal is to invite approximately 4500 certified educators throughout the North Georgia RESA district to participate in the study. Participation is voluntary and anonymous. An affirmative response from the educator provides consent and access to the electronic survey. The survey will be sent using Qualtrics. Contact association will be removed and personal information will not be recorded. No one, including the researcher, will be able to associate response with one's identity. Privacy and confidentiality will be precisely observed.

Questions or concerns may be directed to the email address noted below. Thank you for your consideration of this proposal.

Sincerely,

Jennifer Reed

Questions regarding the purpose or procedures of the research should be directed to Jennifer Reed at jenreed@valdosta.edu. This study has been exempted from Institutional Review Board (IRB) review in accordance with Federal regulations. The IRB, a university committee established by Federal law, is responsible for protecting the rights and welfare of research participants. If you have concerns or questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the IRB Administrator at 229-253-2947 or irb@valdosta.edu

APPENDIX C

Confidentiality & Consent to Participate in Research

You are being asked to participate in a research study entitled "Seeking Educational Leadership Certification in Preparation for Applying for the Principalship: A Job Desirability Perspective," which is being conducted by Jennifer Reed, a student at Valdosta State University. The purpose of this study is to investigate the factors influencing educators to pursue leadership certification in preparation for the principalship and determine how the leadership certification rule changes in Georgia have impacted educators who aspire to become leaders. This research study is anonymous. No one, including the researcher, will be able to associate your responses with your identity. Your participation is voluntary. You may choose not to participate, to stop responding at any time, or to skip questions that you do not want to answer. You must be at least 18 years of age to participate in this study. Your participation serves as your voluntary agreement to participate in this research project and your certification that you are 18 or older.

Questions regarding the purpose or procedures of the research should be directed to Jennifer Reed at jenreed@valdosta.edu. This study has been exempted from Institutional Review Board (IRB) review in accordance with Federal regulations. The IRB, a university committee established by Federal law, is responsible for protecting the rights and welfare of research participants. If you have concerns or questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the IRB Administrator at 229-259-5045 or irb@valdosta.edu.

APPENDIX D

Principal Job Survey

Principal Job Survey

You are being asked to participate in a research project, determining the reasons as to why, or why not, an individual might seek leadership certification in preparation for principalship (principal/assistant principal), being conducted by Jennifer Johns Reed, a graduate student at Valdosta State University. The survey is anonymous. Your response will not be associated with your identity. Participation in the survey is voluntary. You may opt out of the survey, stop responding at any time, or omit questions you do not wish to answer. To participate in this study, you must be at least 18 years of age. Submission of the survey indicates you are 18 years of age or older and represents your voluntary agreement to participate in this research project.

Please direct questions involving the purpose or procedures of the research to Jennifer Johns Reed at 706-695-2434 or jenreed@valdosta.edu. This study has been exempted from Institutional Review Board (IRB) review in accordance with Federal regulations. The IRB, a university committee established by Federal law, is responsible for protecting the rights and welfare of research participants. Please contact the IRB Administrator at 229-259-5045 or irb@valdosta.edu if you have concerns or questions about your rights as a research participant.

1. What is your gender? Male Female

2. What is your age?
20-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60+

3. What is your ethnicity?
Hispanic Caucasian African-American
Native American Asian Other

4. What is your marital status?
Single Married

5. What is your current professional assignment?
Elementary Teacher Guidance Counselor
Middle School Teacher Other_____
High School Teacher

6. What is your highest degree earned?
Bachelors Specialist Degree (Ed.S)
Master's Doctorate Degree

7. What is the number of years in your professional educational career? _____

8. Career plans for the next three to five years: (Circle number to all that apply)
   1. Remain in my present position
   2. Leave the field of education
   3. Retirement
   4. Seek an Elementary School Principalship
   5. Seek a Middle School Principalship
   6. Seek a High School Principalship
   7. Seek a district position in administration (other than superintendency)
   8. Seek a Superintendency position
   9. Seek my same position in a different school
   10. Seek a position in a college/university setting
   11. Seek a position in the state office of education or other type of educational service agent
   12. Unknown
   13. Other _____ (Please Specify)

9. Are you willing and/or have a desire to seek educational leadership certification? Yes No

Section 2: How Job Responsibilities/Duties/Traits Influence Your Career Decisions

Below you will find a list of job responsibilities and job traits (attributes) common to the position of school principal. On the Likert Scale at the right of each attribute, rate the attribute as to the influence it has on your decision to seek leadership certification in preparation for seeking the position of a school principal/assistant principal. **(Note that the survey is not asking you to evaluate your current assignment but rather to determine which attributes are most important to your career decision-making.)**

The questions are rated as follows:

- 2 Strong Negative Influence on my Decision
- 1 Somewhat Negative Influence on my Decision
- 0 No Influence on my Decision
- +1 Somewhat Positive Influence on my Decision
- +2 Strong Positive Influence on my Decision
- N/A Not applicable to the position as I understand it

Job Attributes	Rating
1. Realizing an increased starting salary and career salary growth potential	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
2. Defining staff (certified and classified) roles and assignments	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
3. Handling budget constraints	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
4. Managing student-teacher ratio issues (FTE management)	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
5. Receiving opportunities to attend conferences	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A

6. Dealing with issues related to students with disabilities (IDEA and Section 504)	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
7. Being empowered to influence school change	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
8. Your physical health as it relates to the demands of the position	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
9.Building a master class schedule	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
10. Experiencing job stress	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
11. Interviewing/hiring school employees (teachers, counselors, secretaries, etc.)	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
12. Having adequate funding to do job	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
13. Developing and monitoring school budgets	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
14.Organizing/implementing parent-teacher conferences	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
15.Understading and functioning within federal, state, and district laws, regulations and policies	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
16. Dealing with teacher and staff issues	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
17.Developing curriculum	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
18.Rotating principalship assignments by district supervisors	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
19.Being supported by parents and students	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
20. Developing school policies	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
21.Administering/Supervising the athletic program	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
22. Registration of students	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
23. Developing positive community relations (PTA, Alumni, Business Groups)	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
24. Having flexibility in choosing vacation periods	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
25. Managing the school's career ladder program	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
26. Working with site-based councils	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
27. Years remaining until retirement	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
28. Developing business partnerships/raising funds to support school programs	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
29. Attending required meetings, workshops, conferences	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
30. Being required to extend the work day to fulfill administrative responsibilities	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
31. Supervising extracurricular activities/required attendance at evening activities	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
32. Gaining respect/esteem/prestige derived from position	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
33. Dealing with societal problems within school	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
34. Receiving staff loyalty and support	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
35. Having authority to influence others in the educational community	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
36. Salary compensation as it relates to the demands of the position	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
37. Experiencing ethical dilemmas in decision making	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
38. Developing personal/professional relationship with others inside and outside the school	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A

39. Having the opportunity to display and use leadership skills	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
40. Developing and selling a vision to the school community	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
41. Filling the desire to make a difference in the lives of students and staff	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
42. Having opportunities for personal and professional growth and development	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
43.Securing increased retirement benefits	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
44. Planning and conducting staff training and development	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
45. Having increased prospects for professional advancement	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
46. Balancing the competing demands of job and family	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
47. Being supported by district supervisors and the school board	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
48. Terminating unfit employees	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
49. Experiencing public visibility and accountability	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
50. Handling teacher grievances/working with unions	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
51. Dealing with student management and behavior issues	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
52. Being encouraged by family and friends to take/remain in a principalship	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
53. Countering the steady flow of problem situations	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
54. Being encouraged by professional educators to take/remain in a principalship	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
55. Completing written and verbal reports to supervisors	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
56. Observing, supervising, and evaluating staff	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
57. Experiencing pressure from special interest groups	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
58. Finding ways to successfully educate at-risk students	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
59. Assuming accountability for all that happens in the school	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
60. Having autonomy to lead and manage the school without outside interference	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
61. Enrollment size of school	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
62. Reputation of the school	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
63.Socio/economical composition of the school	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
64. Geographical location of the school	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A
65.Selection process used by your district to choose principals	-2 -1 0 +1 +2 N/A

Section 3: Future Career Decisions/Opportunities

1. Considering all the elements of the position of principal rate the over-all attractiveness of the position to you:

Very Attractive
Attractive
Somewhat Attractive
Somewhat Unattractive
Unattractive
Very Unattractive

2. My perceived probability of ***seeking*** a principalship is:

Very Likely
Likely
Somewhat Likely
Somewhat Unlikely
Unlikely
Very Unlikely

3. My perceived probability of ***being offered*** a principalship is:

Very Likely
Likely
Somewhat Likely
Somewhat Unlikely
Unlikely
Very Unlikely

4. My perceived probability of ***accepting*** a principalship is:

Very Likely
Likely
Somewhat Likely
Somewhat Unlikely
Unlikely
Very Unlikely

Section 4: Georgia Educational Leadership Certification

1. The average cost for a Tier I educational leadership master's degree program in Georgia is $16,107.00. My perceived probability of obtaining this degree is:

Very Likely
Likely
Somewhat Likely
Somewhat Unlikely
Unlikely
Very Unlikely

2. The average cost for a Tier I educational leadership certification only program in Georgia is $7,738.00 and requires holding a level five (5) or higher certificate prior to enrollment. My perceived probability of obtaining this certification is:

Very Likely
Likely
Somewhat Likely
Somewhat Unlikely
Unlikely
Very Unlikely

3. The average cost for a Tier II educational leadership specialist degree in Georgia is $13,824.00. My perceived probability of obtaining this degree is:

Very Likely
Likely
Somewhat Likely
Somewhat Unlikely
Unlikely
Very Unlikely

4. The average cost for a Tier II educational leadership certification only program in Georgia is $8,535.00 and requires holding an Educational Leadership – Tier I certificate or Educational Leadership – Tier II Standard Professional certificate and a minimum of an Educational Specialist degree prior to enrollment. My perceived probability of obtaining this certification is:

Very Likely
Likely
Somewhat Likely
Somewhat Unlikely
Unlikely
Very Unlikely

5. The current Georgia Professional Standards Commission Rule 505-2-.153 Educational Leadership Certificate requires educators interested in being an assistant principal or district level leader not responsible for supervising principals to obtain Tier I certification. Educators interested in going on to become a principal, superintendent, or leader responsible for supervising principals requires additional Tier II certification. Considering the additional certification requirements, my perceived probability of obtaining leadership certification is:

Very Likely
Likely
Somewhat Likely
Somewhat Unlikely
Unlikely
Very Unlikely

APPENDIX E

Permission to Use Survey (Barksdale, 2003)

Cassandra Barksdale Stanley

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October 20, 2020

Ms. Jennifer Reed
Valdosta State University
James L. and Dorothy H. Dewar College of Education & Human Services
1310 N. Patterson St.
Valdosta, GA 31698

Dear Ms. Reed,

I was excited to learn of your research interests, and in particular, your interest in studying the principal job factors that encourage or discourage teachers from initially seeking leadership certification. This letter serves as a formal reply to your request to use the adapted version of the Principal Job Survey (Merrill, 1999) that was used in my 2003 dissertation research. I hereby grant you permission to use the adapted version of the Principal Job Survey (Merrill, 1999) in your research study.

I kindly request that you share your research findings with me at the conclusion of your study. I wish you much success in your academic endeavors.

Best regards,

Cassandra Barksdale Stanley, Ed.D.
stanleyc3@vcu.edu

APPENDIX F

Permission to Use Survey (Merrill, 1999)

October 6, 2020

To Whom It May Concern:

This is to confirm that Jennifer A. Reed is granted permission to use the survey that was first published in my dissertation entitled *Attraction and Retention of High School Principals in the State of Utah* (1999), University of Utah.

Sincerely,

Dr. Randall J. Merrill
1045 East 965 North
Orem, Utah 84097