Factors that Impact on Principal-Class Leadership Aspirations

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Master of Education
Graduate Diploma of Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language
Diploma of Teaching (Primary) Honours: Practical Teaching

Submitted in total fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

December 2002

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The University of Melbourne
Abstract
This research investigated the factors that impact on the career decisions of teachers in government primary and secondary schools in the state of Victoria, Australia. In particular, this research examined the factors that influence teachers in choosing to apply for principal class positions and the factors that influence other teachers to decide not to apply for such positions. Data were collected from current principals, assistant principals, classroom teachers with leadership responsibilities, and classroom teachers with no additional leadership responsibilities. Within the teacher and assistant principal groups, data were also sought from those who were aspiring to principal roles and those who were not aspiring to such roles. The purpose of the research was to understand the factors that influenced teachers (including those in leadership roles) in their decision making to apply, or not to apply for principal class leadership roles.

The research methodology included both qualitative and quantitative data sources. The survey was the initial data source. Its design and construction was based on a conceptual framework developed by the researcher. This framework emerged from a review of literature relating to aspirations, work motivation, and career decision making. The results of the survey were used to inform the construction of a series of nine focus groups. There were four focus groups comprising primary teachers, leading teachers, assistant principals, and principals and four focus groups comprising secondary teachers, leading teachers, assistant principals, and principals. The ninth focus group included teachers thirty years of age or younger. The focus group interviews were used to confirm and clarify themes and patterns raised by the survey data and inform aspects of the conceptual framework that were not included in the survey.

Teachers’ career decisions and leadership aspirations are influenced by many factors. This study has revealed a number of factors that develop and support principal class and principal level leadership aspirations. These include increased opportunities within the principal role for individual growth and self actualisation; teachers with leadership aspirations seek jobs that provide a personal challenge. Those who have an appreciation of the balance between job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction inherent in the principal role are more likely to aspire to the role than those who only perceive the role to be demanding, stressful and time-consuming. Principals and assistant principals identified the outcomes of the work of a principal as strong incentives to promote. Teachers and assistant principals are more likely to aspire to and subsequently apply for principal positions if the strong link between the principal role and the learning environment is made explicit. Strategic succession planning at an organisational and school level would enhance leadership aspiration and increase application rates. This may include schools providing teachers with more opportunities for acting in leadership roles providing increased opportunities for part-time and shared leadership roles. The study also revealed a number of factors that inhibit principal class and principal level leadership aspirations. Paradoxically, while the nature of the work is one of the sources of satisfaction for principals and an incentive to promote to principal, aspects of the nature of the work are simultaneously strong sources of dissatisfaction and disincentives to promote. The interpersonal relations, particularly with teachers and parents provide
enormous challenges and frustration. Personal factors such as time required by
the job, the perceived stress level of the job, and effect on family, are strong
disincentives to promote, particularly for women. Many teachers believe that
the current role expectations of principals would not allow them to balance the
demands of their personal life and their work life; the administrative demands
and community expectations of the role are, in particular, seen as too
demanding. A major inhibiting factor for teachers’ leadership aspirations is
their lack of an understanding of the high levels of job satisfaction that
balance the stresses of the principal role. Until the job satisfaction of
principals becomes as explicit as their job dissatisfaction, few teachers will
aspire to this role. It was also found that lack of succession planning at an
organisational and school level inhibits teachers’ principal class leadership
aspirations. The research identified the policy, planning and research
implications that arise from the findings.
Declaration of originality

This is to certify that:
1. the thesis comprises only my original work except where indicated in the preface,
2. due acknowledgment has been made in the text to all other material used,
3. the thesis is less than 100,000 words in length, exclusive of tables, bibliographies, and appendices.

Signature:

KATHRYN ANNE LACEY
Preface

Sections of chapters one, two, four and five have appeared in abridged form in published works by the candidate.

Dedication
This thesis is dedicated to Keith Neville Finlay.
13th May 1922 – 24th September 2002
My father, my mentor, my friend, and my fair hero.
Acknowledgments

I would like to extend my deep gratitude to my supervisor, Doctor David Gurr. Generous in advice, support and time, Doctor Gurr’s challenging and rigorous intellectual insights have been much appreciated and are acknowledged here. I am grateful to the University of Melbourne for the award of a Melbourne Research Scholarship in 2002. This award enabled the research to be completed on a full-time basis.

Special thanks go to the many teachers, assistant principals and principals who gave of their time through the surveys and focus group interviews. The interest in, and support for this research has been enormously satisfying. The support of the Department of Education, Employment and Training for this research project is gratefully acknowledged. Margery Evans and Julie Hyde have ensured access to Departmental data and shown great commitment to assisting me in my quest to answer the research questions.
### Abbreviations

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AEU</td>
<td>Australian Education Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>AP</td>
<td>Assistant principal</td>
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<tr>
<td>ASCD</td>
<td>Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>DE&amp;T</td>
<td>Department of Education and Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>DEET</td>
<td>Department of Education, Employment and Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>Degrees of freedom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DoE</td>
<td>Department of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>DSE</td>
<td>Department of School Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>EFT</td>
<td>Effective Full-time Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERS</td>
<td>Educational Research Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETWR</td>
<td>Experienced Teacher With Responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEA</td>
<td>Local Education Authority</td>
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<tr>
<td>NAESP</td>
<td>National Association of Elementary School Principals</td>
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<tr>
<td>NASSP</td>
<td>National Association of Secondary School Principals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPQH</td>
<td>National Professional Qualification for Headship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRIP</td>
<td>Teacher Release to Industry Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
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<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
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<tr>
<td>VTU</td>
<td>Victorian Teachers’ Union</td>
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# Table of Contents

CHAPTER ONE – CONTEXT 1
INTRODUCTION 1
PURPOSE 1
RESEARCH QUESTIONS 2
BACKGROUND 2
AN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE ON LEADERSHIP ASPIRATIONS 3
INTERNATIONAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY 7
A NATIONAL PERSPECTIVE ON LEADERSHIP ASPIRATIONS 7
LOCAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY 9
METHODOLOGY 10
SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS 11

CHAPTER TWO - REVIEW OF LITERATURE 18
INTRODUCTION 18
FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE CAREER DECISIONS AND ASPIRATIONS 18
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK 18
MOTIVATION 19
Work Motivation 23
Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction 24
The impact of work motivation on teachers’ leadership aspirations 30
CAREER AND LIFE PLANNING 31
Personal factors 31
Organisational factors 46
External factors 65
VALUES 67
Organisational values and women’s values 69
The impact of individual and organisational values on teachers’ leadership aspirations 70

FINDING SOLUTIONS 71
Attracting applicants to the principal role 71
Retaining current principals 73
SUMMARY 75

CHAPTER THREE - METHODOLOGY 84
INTRODUCTION 84
FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESES 84
RESEARCH DESIGN 86
RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS 89
RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY 90
NATURE OF THE SAMPLE 93
SURVEY 97
Survey construction 97
Statistical techniques employed 102
Exploratory Factor Analysis 108
Interpreting factors 111
FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS 111
Focus group composition 112
Focus group schedule 115
Transcription of interviews 116
Coding data 117
TRUSTWORTHINESS 121
Credibility 122
Transferability 122
Dependability 123
Confirmability 124
LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY 124
SUMMARY 124

CHAPTER FOUR - RESEARCH FINDINGS 131
SURVEY – DATA ANALYSIS 131
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF SURVEY DATA 131
Response of respondents by region 131
Response by school type 131
Response by school size 133
Response by age 133
Response by sex 133
Career profile 134
Response by current position and classification 134
INFERENTIAL ANALYSIS OF SURVEY DATA 136
Aspirations 136
Sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction 139
Incentives and disincentives for promotion to principal 144
Succession planning 150
Access to a mentor 150
Access to succession planning processes 151
Impact of succession planning program 153
Leadership programs 153
FACTOR ANALYSIS 154
Data reduction 154
Rotation of factors 155
Interpretation of factors 156
Description of each factor 158
FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS - DATA ANALYSIS 165
MOTIVATION 165
Aspiration 165
Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction 167
LIFE AND CAREER PLANNING 170
Personal life factors 170
Personal and organisational career planning 172
Incentives and disincentives 175
Perceptions of the role 176
Personal style 178
VALUES ALIGNMENT 180
OTHER 182
‘Other’ differences between males and females 182
Appeal of the assistant principal role 184
Opportunities provided by an aging profession 185
SUMMARY 185
CHAPTER FIVE - DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS 198
INTRODUCTION 198
LEADERSHIP ASPIRATIONS OF TEACHERS IN VICTORIAN GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS 198
FACTORS THAT IMPACT ON LEADERSHIP ASPIRATIONS 200
SECTION ONE - WORK MOTIVATION 200
Hypothesis one- Principal class leadership roles provide a source of job satisfaction 201
Hypothesis two- Seeking a job that provides personal challenge is a motivating factor for some teachers 204
SECTION TWO - CAREER AND PERSONAL LIFE PLANNING 207
Hypothesis three - Perceptions of incentives and disincentives to promote to principal class positions influence teachers’ career decisions 207
Hypothesis four - Teachers’ perceptions of principals’ job satisfaction is a key factor in influencing teachers in choosing to apply for principal class leadership positions 210
Hypothesis five - Career and personal life planning factors significantly influence whether women choosing to move into principal class leadership roles 212
Hypothesis six - The organisation’s succession planning processes influence teachers’ leadership aspirations 215
SECTION THREE - VALUES ALIGNMENT 220
Hypothesis seven - An alignment of personal and organisational values is a key factor in influencing teachers to choose to apply for principal class positions 220
Other findings 222
CHAPTER SIX – CONCLUSIONS 227
INTRODUCTION 227
IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY AND PLANNING 229
Succession planning – strategic overview 229
Recruitment 230
Development 231
Retention 232
IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH 232
REFERENCES 235
APPENDICES 255
APPENDIX A 255
*Letter accompanying survey from Director of Schools* 255
APPENDIX B 257
Survey 257
APPENDIX C 265
*Written instructions to the focus group assistants* 265
APPENDIX D 268
*Focus group Schedule* 268
APPENDIX E 269
*Sample of Focus Group analysis* 269
List of Tables

Table 1 - Primary/Secondary, Male/Female DEET teaching staff 2
Table 2 - Percentage of teachers in the entire government school teaching population by region, sex, and school type 95
Table 3 - Percentage of teachers in the sample of 2000 teachers by region, sex, and school type 95
Table 4 - Difference between the entire population and the sample 96
Table 5 - Difference between entire population and achieved sample 97
Table 6 - Survey items relating to sources of satisfaction in current role 100
Table 7 - Survey items relating to incentives and disincentives for promotion 101
Table 8 - Categories of mean comparisons conducted by the researcher 103
Table 9 - Statistical tests used to compare means 104
Table 10 - Initial focus group composition 113
Table 11 - Actual focus group composition 114
Table 12 - Focus group coding 119
Table 13 - Response rate of respondents by region 131
Table 14 - Response by school type 132
Table 15 - Achieved sample by school size 133
Table 16 - Percentages of total respondents by sex 133
Table 17 - Frequency of responses for the anticipated age at retirement/resignation 134
Table 18 - Response by current position 134
Table 19 - Response by current classification 135
Table 20 - Years of experience in the current role 135
Table 21 - Reasons for leave-without-pay 135
Table 22 - Career aspirations when respondents began teaching 137
Table 23 - Current career aspirations 138
Table 24 - Sources of satisfaction in current role (percentage for each rating, modal, and mean score) 140
Table 25 - Current overall level of satisfaction 144
Table 26 - Incentives and disincentives for promotion to principal (percentage for each rating, modal, and mean score) 145
Table 27 - Individuals who have helped in the respondent's career progress to date 150
Table 28 - Access to a mentor during respondent's career 151
Table 29 - Percentage of formal and informal mentor relationships 151
Table 30 - Percentage of respondents who had worked in a school with a succession planning process 153
Table 31 - Percentage of formal and informal succession planning processes 153
Table 32 - Impact of succession planning processes on respondent's career 153
Table 33 - Impact of leadership program on respondent's career 153
Table 34 - Eigenvalue > 1 154
Table 35 - Items in each factor with a correlation of ≥ 0.3 157
Table 36 - Percentage of female principals by region at June 2001 218

List of Figures

Figure 1 - Factors that influence career decisions and aspirations 18
Figure 2 - Thierry's classification of motivation theories 20
Figure 3 - Research hypotheses flowchart 86
Figure 4 - Data matrix 89
Figure 5 - Factor Scree Plot 155
Figure 6 - Factor one leading to principal class leadership aspirations 131
Figure 7 - Factor two leading to principal class leadership aspirations 162
Figure 8 - Factor three leading to principal class leadership aspirations 164
Figure 9 - Research hypotheses flowchart 200
Figure 10 - Percentage of principals who are female by school type and region at June 2001 219
Chapter One – Context

Introduction

The principal is a key factor in determining the motivation of teachers and the quality of teaching that takes place in classrooms (Day, Harris, Hadfield, Tolley and Beresford, 2000:6). Over the past decade there has been a growing acceptance that the principal plays a key role in creating and sustaining high performing schools. Research supports the contention that effective schools have strong leadership (Carter, 2000, 1999; Sergiovanni, 1984; van de Grift and Houtveen, 1999). The National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) and the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) in a joint report titled The Principal: Keystone of a High Achieving School provide an overview of the research on the principal and school effectiveness. They note that since the eighties effective schools’ research links excellent schools with excellent leaders (ERS, 2000:6). This report also notes that observations of effective schools made in a variety of situations also support the contention that high performing schools are characterised by effective leadership (ERS, 2000:7; NAESP, 2000).

If effective principals were seen as the key to effective schools then it follows that a shortage of quality applicants to principal positions would result in fewer effective schools. Such shortages have become apparent in the United States of America and the United Kingdom (Barnard, 1998; ERS, 2000; Howson, 1999, 2000; Jacobson, 1990; Jordan, McCauley and Comeaux, 1994; Olson, 1999; Pawlas, 1989; Pyke, 1997; Steinberg, 2000). There is anecdotal evidence of a potential shortage of principals in Victoria and other Australian states (Lawnham, 2000; Rootes, 2001; VPF, 2000).

Purpose

This research investigated the factors that impact on the career decisions of teachers in government primary and secondary schools in the state of Victoria, Australia. In particular, this research examined the factors that influence teachers in choosing to apply for principal class positions and the factors that influence other teachers to decide not to apply for such positions. Data were collected from current principals, assistant principals, classroom teachers with leadership responsibilities, and classroom teachers with no additional leadership responsibilities. Within the teacher and assistant principal groups, data were also sought from those who were aspiring to principal roles and those who were not aspiring to such roles. The purpose of the research was to understand the factors that influenced teachers (including those in leadership roles) in their decision making to apply or not to apply for principal class leadership roles.

The research methodology included both qualitative and quantitative data sources. A survey and focus group interviews were chosen as the most appropriate methodologies, as the combination of these provided breadth and depth of insights into the complex social phenomenon of aspiration. The survey was the initial data source. Its design and construction was based on a conceptual framework developed by the researcher. This framework emerged from a review of literature relating to aspirations, work motivation, and career decision making. The results of the survey were used to inform the construction of the focus groups. The interviews were used to confirm and
clarify themes and patterns raised by the survey data and inform aspects of the conceptual framework that were not included in the survey.

**Research questions**

The primary aim of this research was to contribute to the knowledge and understanding of teachers’ leadership aspirations. The study was conducted to answer the key questions:

1. What are the leadership aspirations of Victorian government school teachers?
2. What are the factors that impact on leadership aspirations?

The literature review was used to inform the researcher about current knowledge of the appeal, or lack thereof, of principal class leadership roles to teachers. This lead to views being actively sought from teacher aspirants and non-aspirants, and people currently in principal class leadership positions about the factors that influenced teachers’ leadership aspirations. In Victoria, this includes principals, assistant principals and campus principals (in multi-campus schools). Policy and planning implications have been drawn from the identification of the teachers’ leadership aspirations and the factors that impact on these aspirations.

**Background**

The research took place in the state of Victoria, located on the southeastern mainland of Australia. Victoria is geographically the smallest mainland state. However, it is the second most populous with a population of 4.5 million from a total in Australia of 19 million. Education is compulsory. There are three types of schools available for Victorian students. There is an education system provided by the state government, a Catholic education system, and a number of independent schools. At the time of this research there were 1625 government schools with an enrolment of 535,412 students. In the non-government school sector there were 491 Catholic schools with 180,872 students enrolled and 205 independent schools with 96,583 students (DEET, 2002).

This study focused on government schools within Victoria. The Department of Education and Training (DE&T) conducts the government schools. The Department of Education has changed its name with great regularity and appears in this report as the Department of Education (DoE), the Department of Education, Employment and Training (DEET) and DE&T. At the time of the study there was an effective full time teaching (EFT) staff of 37,520. This comprised:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1 - Primary/Secondary, Male/Female DEET teaching staff</th>
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<tr>
<td>Teaching staff</td>
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<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
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<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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(DEET, 2002)

Government schools include primary, secondary, P-12, and specialist schools. Primary schools cater for students from their preparatory first year at school (Prep) to Year 6. Secondary schools cater for students from Year 7 to Year 12. The DE&T has classified a number of other schools as P-12. These include those that cater for students from Prep to Year 12, and schools
catering for a range of other year levels such as Years 11 and 12, Prep to Year 8, Years 7-10 and Years 9-12. Specialist schools cater for students with disabilities and impairments. There are also a number of English language schools and alternative settings for students with specific educational needs. This study included teachers in all schools, with the exception of specialist schools for students with disabilities and impairments. For administrative purposes, DE&T divides Victoria into four metropolitan and five country regions. This study involved teachers from all nine regions. Primary, secondary, and P-12 schools range in size and are staffed according to a formula based on the school’s budget. A new career structure was implemented in January 2001 (DEET, 2001). This career structure reduced the promotion levels to two classes – principal and teacher class. A single classification level with ten remuneration ranges was developed for principals. The principal class also included a single classification level for assistant principals with six remuneration ranges. The teacher class included beginning and experienced classroom teachers who had no additional leadership responsibilities, experienced teachers with additional responsibilities, and ‘leading teachers’ who hold more significant leadership roles. Principal remuneration was determined by the size of the school budget. Assistant principal remuneration was determined at the school level. An assistant principal of a large school, that is a school with a larger budget could therefore receive a higher salary than the principal of a smaller school (one with a smaller budget). This research explored teacher attitudes towards promotion to all principal class positions; thus aspirations towards both principal and assistant principal positions were examined. Throughout this research the term principal has been used to refer to the educational and administrative leader/manager of a school and the term assistant principal to the next most senior teacher. In other countries this position is known by various terms. In the United Kingdom this position is generally referred to as the headteacher or the ‘head’. In the United States of America principals are frequently referred to as administrators. The administration generally refers to the principal and assistant principal and the assistant principal is also referred to as the deputy principal or deputy. In the United Kingdom the assistant principal is generally the deputy head/teacher.

**An international perspective on leadership aspirations**

Prior to the late 1980s there do not appear to be any studies of the supply and demand trends for school leaders. Studies of these trends begin to become apparent from 1989 (Pawlas, 1989) but concerns over a potential shortage do not emerge until the mid 1990s. In 1990, Begley, Campbell-Evans and Brownridge noted in a study of aspiring and incumbent principals that ‘considerably less is known about the factors that bring individuals to pursue school leadership positions’ (Begley, Campbell Evans and Brownridge, 1990:1). In 1994, the first predictions of possible shortages of administrators were noted by Jordan, McCauley and Comeaux. They predicted a shortage of school administrators in southwestern Louisiana within five years. By 1995, articles began to appear in the press on the shortages of headteachers and deputy heads in the United Kingdom (McGavin, 1995).
In 1997, Barker noted a drop in the number and quality of principal applicants in Washington state. Barker identified a number of recommendations aimed at increasing the number of applicants for principals and for central administrators. The recommendations for increasing the number of principal applicants included a more systematic approach to succession planning through coaching, mentoring, ‘talent-spotting’, job-sharing, and promoting the benefits of the role. She advised that central administrators provide increased coaching, mentoring, and internships; lobby for increased salaries for principals; and delineate a clearer role for assistant principals with career path towards principalship (Barker, 1997:91).

Studies into the factors impacting on teachers’ and assistant principals’ decisions not to apply for principal positions first appeared in 1998. James and Whiting conducted research through a survey and interviews with primary and secondary deputy headteachers in two Local Education Authority’s (LEA) – one each in England and Wales (James and Whiting, 1998a, 1998b). They found that eighteen per cent of primary and seventeen per cent of secondary duty heads were currently actively seeking headship. A further twenty-five per cent of primary and fifteen per cent of secondary deputies had never applied for headship but planned to do so in the future. They were surprised to find that ‘fewer than half of the respondents were actively seeking, or regarded themselves as potential aspirants for, headship’ (James and Whiting, 1998b:13). James and Whiting identified six factors that had influenced the career decisions of these deputies not to seek headship. These included the role overload, contentment with current job, negative impact on the individual’s family, self-doubt, concerns over public accountability, and external factors such as inadequate funding for schools and the scale and pace of bureaucratic initiatives.

Concerns about the ability of public education to attract quality people to principalships were again highlighted in a national study of elementary (primary) school principals in the United States published in 1998 (Doud and Keller, 1998). This study noted that there had been a 42% turnover in the principalship in the previous ten years. This trend was expected to continue. Two thirds of respondents believed that education was not attracting a pool of well-qualified candidates. While Doud and Keller’s (1998) study made a number of recommendations to address this concern, they were not based on research into factors impacting on candidates’ decisions not to apply for principal positions.

By 1999, articles began to appear in the United States’ press regarding the lack of applicants for principal positions. In both the United States and the United Kingdom, the number of articles appearing in the press increased over the next few years. In 2000, there were four articles in the US press whereas by 2001 there were at least twenty-six articles. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) produces a daily bulletin alerting subscribers to educational articles in the press – generally from the USA but also some international articles of interest. From the 1st January 2001 to 1 January 2002 there were eighteen articles in the ASCD bulletins which referred to the shortage of applicants for school principal positions in USA. The same level of interest has not been apparent in the Australian press. Articles did not appear in the press until 2000, with one article appearing in 2000, and two in 2001.
Until 2000, research continued to focus on the factors that influenced current principals to choose to become principals (Van Cooley and Jianping Shen, 1999) and the perceptions of principals and superintendents as to the factors that discourage potential applicants (ERS, 2000; Whitaker, 2000). There was a paucity of research seeking data from the non-aspirants themselves. This previous research, while not directly based on data from non-aspirants, provides a number of useful findings. Similar themes emerged from the Van Cooley, Whitaker and ERS studies. All three studies revealed that current principals, and those currently aspiring to the role, believe that the principal’s salary is not commensurate with the level of responsibilities that the job holds. Respondents also stated that the demands of the role have a negative impact on a person’s home life. A third common finding was that prospective applicants are only interested in particular principal positions, such as those close to their current residence and those where there is a positive relationship between the current school board, and the administration and teachers, and a supportive local superintendent. Van Cooley and the ERS study also found that the ‘demands of a modern society have complicated and intensified the administrator’s work responsibilities’ (Van Cooley and Jianping Shen, 1999:75). Insufficient compensation, compared to the responsibilities, was a key factor in both Van Cooley and the ERS study. It was the second most influential factor out of ten factors in Van Cooley’s study, exceeded only by the importance of the relationship among the school board, administration, and teachers. Sixty per cent of respondents in the ERS study identified it as a key factor discouraging potential applicants. This was the strongest disincentive identified in the ERS study.

Coleman (2001), in a study of the reasons for the shortage of female headteachers in secondary schools in England and Wales, also based her findings on data from current female secondary heads ‘who had beaten the odds’ (Coleman, 2001). Coleman identified a number of constraints for women associated with their domestic and family commitments and constraints imposed by the organisation. This study revealed external barriers to the career progression of women such as overt and covert discrimination, access to informal opportunities, and development and selection and promotion processes (Coleman, 2001:83). These external barriers discriminate against women being selected for headteacher positions. Coleman’s study also revealed career constraints that act as disincentives for women to apply for headteacher roles. These included women’s domestic and family commitments, and a number of organisational constraints such as the predominantly male culture in secondary education, and confidence and career planning. Coleman found that sixty-seven per cent of female secondary headteachers were married and approximately half had children, while ninety-eight per cent of male secondary headteachers were married and ninety-three per cent had children. Coleman contends that ‘for some women taking on leadership roles in schools has meant that they have had to choose a career over family’ (Coleman, 2001:79). The predominantly male culture has the effect of marginalizing and isolating women who do become heads and make it harder for women who aspire to headship. Coleman found that women, more than men, harbour doubts about their ability to obtain headship and this lack of confidence prevents them from aspiring to become heads as early in their careers as men (Coleman, 2001:86).
In 2001, Copland also notes that there are signs indicating that schools and school systems are beginning to address some of the root causes of the lack of candidates for principal positions. He states that some of the causes of the principal shortage have been caused by factors such as the steady expansion of expectations of principals since the 1980s, ‘adding never subtracting,’ and an increase in accountability and public scrutiny. He contends that the now overwhelming expectations of principals act as a deterrent to aspirants. He states that to increase the number of principal aspirants, schools need to deflate the myth that the principal is all things to all people. He also believes that there are positive signs that this is beginning to occur. He cites examples of leadership being embedded in various contexts within schools, a recognition of the need for policy that supports school leadership, the increase in research into shared leadership and evidence that school systems are promoting supports that are designed to help principals deal affirmatively with high expectations (Copland, 2001).

It was not until 2001 that the first research on the lack of aspiration for the principal role with findings based on data from non-aspirants, rather than current principals, appeared. Wallace and Rogers (2001) explored the reasons why teachers in small primary schools in Wales were not taking up the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) (Wallace and Rogers, 2001). Their findings related to teachers in small, predominantly rural primary schools, and as such still do not increase our understanding of the attraction or lack of attraction for principal roles in secondary schools or urban and/or larger primary schools.

Beaudin, Thompson and Jacobson (2002) examined the perceived attractors and detractors of administrator (principal) positions, also seeking data from current administrators and teachers holding administrator qualifications but not yet in administrative positions. Using a survey, they asked administrators and teachers to list the factors that attract, or detract educators from considering first or new public school administrator positions. They also asked respondents to identify policy initiatives that could be used by state and local districts to attract and retain a more diverse pool of candidates for administrative positions (Beaudin, Thompson and Jacobson, 2002:14). This research is significant. It is the first study that explicitly identified the attractions of the job as perceived by aspirants and current administrators, as well as detractors – again as perceived by both groups. Findings confirm that an inadequate salary and benefits for the level of responsibility act as a detractor for a large number of people. Forty-five per cent of potential aspirants and forty-four per cent of current administrators noted inadequate salary and benefits as a detractor. However, salary also appears as an attractor. Sixty-two per cent of potential aspirants and sixty-nine per cent of current aspirants indicated that ‘a salary and benefits commensurate with the amount of time, both the length of workday and length of school year, and level of responsibilities were critical factors in their decision to pursue new positions.’ (Beaudin et al., 2002:24). Of the remaining four detractors and attractors, two factors acted as both an attractor and a detractor. These were the distance between the applicant’s home and school, and the political climate of the school. Both current teachers and potential aspirants are only interested in applying for schools that are close to their current residence and where there is a supportive political climate. These findings confirm findings
from Van Cooley (1999), Whitaker (2000) and the ERS study (2000), all of which only sought data from current principals or superintendents. The Beaudin et al. study also confirmed the previous finding that the time required by the job was a significant detractor for potential applicants. Almost one quarter of teachers not yet holding administration positions identified the longer day and hours as a detractor. Beaudin et al. ’s study identified two factors that acted as strong attractors. Nearly half (49.7%) of the administrators and thirty-nine per cent of the teachers indicated that they would be attracted to a position that presented a new challenge where they could make a difference. Eighteen per cent of administrators and twenty-seven per cent of teachers noted that an attractive position was one that provided opportunities for their own professional growth (Beaudin et al., 2002:24). These findings confirm Begley et al. ’s (1990) earlier finding that for some people internal processes such as the challenge of principalship, a commitment to life-long learning, and a belief that they can make a difference act as strong motivators.

Four strategies emerged from Beaudin et al. ’s study that they suggest should be implemented to address the attractors and detractors of administrative positions as identified in their study. They recommend that remuneration be aligned with job responsibilities, that school leadership roles be redefined, school board and school administration roles be clarified, and finally that professional support and development opportunities for new and continuing administrators be provided (Beaudin et al., 2002:27).

International significance of the study

In summary, it is evident that there is a paucity of research into the factors impacting on teachers’ principal-level leadership aspirations, particularly from the non-aspirants’ point of view. This study will add significantly to the limited current knowledge of why deputy headteachers/assistant principals choose to not apply for promotion to principal roles. This study will also provide findings based on data gathered from aspirants and non-aspirants from a range of promotion levels from teacher through to current principals. To the researcher’s knowledge, there is a limited number of studies that include data from all these points-of-view (Beaudin et al., 2002; Draper and McMichael, 2000; Williams, 2001). Therefore, this study will add significantly to an international understanding of these phenomena.

Beaudin et al.’s (2002) recent study of the factors that act as attractors and detractors to American teacher aspirants and non-aspirants will allow comparisons to be made between the findings for the American context and the Victorian context. It will now be possible to identify and study the differences and similarities between the two government school systems. Both studies gathered data from aspirants and non-aspirants, and teachers from a range of promotion levels.

A national perspective on leadership aspirations

A detailed description of the history of the appointment process for principal class positions is described in the following chapter on page 55. Suffice to say at this stage that until 1984 for secondary schools and 1985 for primary schools, principals were appointed according to seniority. From the mid
nineteen eighties local school councils were given the power to select their principal and assistant principal. This process spawned a number of research projects on local selection processes (Hedding, 1989; Riseley, 1986; West, 1987). This was followed by a number of studies into the impact of the selection processes for women, in particular (AEU, 1999; Blair, 2000; Chapman, 1986; Dedman, 2000; TFV, 1986). Until the turn of the century Australian research remained focused on the selection process and the impact of those processes on particular groups such as women, and teachers in rural and remote schools. Two other recent studies, although not directly related to teacher leadership aspirations, help place this study into the context of the late 1990s and early twenty-first century. The findings from a Senate Inquiry into the Status of the Teaching Profession were reported in 1998 (Senate Employment Education and Training References Committee, 1998). This was a national study of teachers at all promotional levels in all school sectors. However, the findings on workload and the perceived role of the principal specifically mentioned these aspects in relation to the state of Victoria. The Inquiry noted that teachers believed that the growth in devolution had increased their workload and diverted them from core teaching tasks. This increase in workload had been coupled with a loss of central support and most significantly a change in their relationships with their principal, and personnel within the department. Formally department staff were seen as supporting teachers. Now they directed them. In the same way, principals had been seen, by teachers, by themselves and by education departments, as primarily teachers whose role it was to support their teachers. Now, with fixed term contracts depending on satisfactory management performance, they are seen by teachers as agents of government. (Senate Employment Education and Training References Committee, 1998:154-155) The second report of interest to this study is the Victorian Auditor General’s Report into Teacher Workforce Planning. This report found strong evidence of a lack of succession planning processes in Victorian schools. The report noted that while schools were encouraged to complete a work force plan there was no requirement to do so. ‘over 20 per cent of large schools and nearly 50 per cent of small schools had no documented work force plan that linked their strategic plan (the School Charter) with their budgeting and staffing projections. Only 20 per cent of schools had a work force plan that covered at least three years’ (Auditor General, 2001:7) As part of the devolution processes implemented by successive governments in Victoria, schools are now responsible for the recruitment of staff. As the Auditor General’s Report notes: ‘This requires effective and efficient local workforce planning to minimise staff shortages and to plan for the recruitment of teachers with appropriate skills, expertise and qualifications.’ (Auditor General, 2001:71) This lack of work force planning at the local level is reflected at the systemic level with a lack of systemic work force planning for leadership. Interest in, or evidence of, a real or potential shortage of principal class applicants does not emerge in research literature in Australia until 2000. D’Arbon (2000) surveyed newly appointed catholic school principals to identify factors that had encouraged them to seek promotion. D’Arbon, Duignan, Duncan and Goodwin (2001) surveyed all assistant principals, subject coordinators, and religious education coordinators in the 564 catholic schools in the state of New South Wales (NSW). Their survey explored the
reasons why teachers would not apply for principalship in catholic schools in NSW and what factors would encourage them to apply. D’Arbon et al. ’s study is the first Australian study of this type to gather data from such a wide range potential aspirants. However, a significant difference between d’Arbon et al. ’s study and this study, is the religious aspect of d’Arbon et al. ’s findings. This study explored the factors impacting on the career decisions of teachers in government schools. Nonetheless, d’Arbon et al. ’s findings that are not related to the religious aspects of the school’s culture are pertinent to this study. Their study identified that the strongest disincentive to applying for promotion was the impact that the job would have on the person’s family and personal life. The next strongest disincentive was an unsupportive external environment. D’Arbon et al. contend that ‘the job of being a principal in today’s society has grown beyond what one person can do’ (d’Arbon, Duignan, Duncan and Goodwin, 2001:11). Their study also confirmed previous studies that a number of potential aspirants are too content with their current role to consider applying for a role that they see will reduce the time that they have with their families and will not provide adequate remuneration for this increase in responsibility and workload. D’Arbon et al. ’s study also reveals that the selection process is perceived to be too complex and intrusive. 
Tasmania appears to be the only state that has taken active steps to address any of the issues that have been identified as disincentives to promotion. Rootes (2001) notes that over the last few years there has been a decline in the number of male applicants for principal and assistant principal positions to the extent that short-listing results in most applicants being interviewed (Rootes, 2001:14). Interestingly, the number of female applicants has remained steady. (Rootes does not comment on the proportion of male and female applicants compared to their relative proportion in schools in Tasmania.) To address the problem the Tasmanian Education Department piloted a change in the application process that previously consisted of a 3000-word narrative style application addressing six selection criteria, two written referee reports, and a selection interview with a common set of questions for each applicant. There was a concern that this process was too codified and panels were unable to gain a true picture of the applicants. The narrative application has been replaced by a two-part pro forma. In part A applicants use a narrative style to demonstrate their capacity with respect to specified criterion. In part B applicants list one or more tasks in dot form, activities or roles that demonstrate they have the skills and experience to undertake the activities specified by each criterion. They must specify a referee/s to verify each claim. The interview has moved away from a formulaic set of questions to a more conversation style based upon each applicant’s unique experiences. As yet, no research on the effectiveness of these changes has been conducted. Following d’Arbon et al. ’s (2001) findings that the selection process for teachers in catholic schools in NSW is perceived to be a disincentive to promotion, this initiative could support an increase in the number of applicants.
It was not until 2001 that succession planning at a strategic level was evident. Canavan states that there ‘is not much evidence that Catholic organizations have embraced succession strategies, apart form an ardent prayer that there will be someone “out there” somewhere who will be able to fill the vacancy’ (Canavan, 2001:73). He then goes on to fill this void. Canavan appears to be
the first writer to provide a twelve-phase succession plan appropriate for individual schools or groups of schools. His plan includes processes aimed at three phases of succession planning - attracting, selecting and retaining leaders.

**Local significance of the study**

National interest has been triggered in the existence and extent of a declining supply of school leaders and explanations for this paradox. A three-year study involving three Australian states (New South Wales, South Australia and Victoria) has been funded to examine the shortage of applicants for school leadership. It is anticipated that the study will provide explanations for the possible shortage of principal applicants. The study includes all education sectors, that is state, catholic, and independent schools. However, the study began in 2002 and will not be completed until 2005 (Thomson, 2001). On a state, national, and international level this research fills a significant gap in previous research on teacher leadership aspirations. It also provides planning directions for schools and school systems (government school systems in particular), to help them to develop and implement coordinated and coherent succession planning processes that will address the issues of attracting, selecting, developing, and retaining, high quality people to lead schools as principals and assistant principals.

**Methodology**

A mixed methodological inquiry was purposefully chosen rather than relying singularly on a qualitative or quantitative method. The mixed method provides increased validity by allowing the researcher to understand complex issues (such as aspirations) more fully and to generate deeper and broader insights (Greene and Caracelli, 1997). No single research methodology provides a perfect answer. Using multiple methods can help to counteract inherent imperfections. A social phenomenon such as aspiration is extremely complex ‘so different kinds of methods are needed to understand the important complexities of our social world more completely’ (Greene and Caracelli, 1997:7).

This study used a complementary design (Caracelli and Greene, 1997). The results from the survey were used to inform the construction of the focus groups. The results of the focus groups were also used to confirm and clarify themes and patterns raised by the survey data. The survey provided breadth and representativeness while the focus group interviews provided depth and contextual relevance.

Research questions suitable for a written survey include, but not exclusively, questions about attitudes/opinions, characteristics and expectations. ‘Why’ questions were avoided, as they are more suited to interviews. ‘Surveys are appropriate for self-reported beliefs or behaviours’ (Neuman, 2000:247). The survey sought data on respondents’ characteristics, attitudes towards job satisfaction, and incentives for promotion and career expectations. The survey was not seen as an appropriate source of data on perceptions or values. These were best explored through a qualitative methodology. Focus group interviews were considered to be the most suitable process to provide the additional data.
The survey was mailed to 2000 randomly selected teachers, assistant principals, and principals from primary, secondary and P-12 schools from metropolitan and country regions in Victoria. One thousand, three hundred and forty-four useable surveys were returned providing a 67.2% response rate. Six hundred and seventy-three of the respondents (50%) indicated a willingness to be interviewed. Focus group interviews were considered to be the most appropriate method of including a wide range of participants in the interview process. Nine focus group interviews were held. Primary and secondary teachers, leading teachers, assistant principals, and principals were interviewed in eight separate groups. Each of these focus groups included males and females and representatives from country and metropolitan schools. Following an analysis of the focus groups the age profile indicated that no participants had been aged under 30. Therefore, a ninth focus group interview was conducted with participants who were thirty years of age or younger. The focus group interviews were audio recorded and an assistant also took detailed notes of each interview. The tapes were transcribed and analysed for themes using the research hypotheses developed from the conceptual framework and noting additional themes were noted as they emerged. These findings were checked against the perceptions of the assistant/note-taker present at each interview. The scale of the survey and the high percentage of respondents, coupled with the scope of the focus group interviews, provided enormous breadth and depth to the research findings. The survey numbers allowed for rigorous statistical analysis while the breadth of the focus group interviews provided data from multiple perspectives, including aspirants and non-aspirants, females and males, country and metropolitan, teachers from various promotional levels, and teachers of various ages and years of experience.

**Summary of chapters**

Chapter two presents a review of the literature deemed to be relevant to the study. Wide ranging in scope, owing to the nature of the phenomenon under investigation, it serves to highlight the researcher’s understanding of the literature as well as supporting the development of the conceptual framework used to explore teachers’ leadership aspirations. Chapter three deals with the methodological issues related to the study. The formulation of the specific research hypotheses is discussed and the research design and specific instruments used in the study are described. This chapter also contains an explanation of the specific statistical techniques that were employed when analysing the survey data. The composition, schedule, and analysis techniques of the focus group interviews are detailed. The final section of chapter three discusses the limitations of this study. Various sections in chapter four describe the research findings. The findings from the analysis of the survey data are described in three sections. Descriptive, inferential, and factor analyses were conducted, and are described. Findings from the focus group interviews are described using the researcher’s unique conceptual framework. Discussions of the results of the study are presented in chapter five. The literature discussed in chapter two is used here to illuminate the findings related to the leadership aspirations of teachers. The findings, as they relate to each of the specific research questions, are discussed in detail. The leadership aspirations of teachers in Victorian government schools are detailed. The factors impacting on teachers’ leadership aspirations are
identified and discussed in detail through an examination of the findings as they relate to each of the research hypothesis. Finally, the policy and planning implications of the identified factors that impact on leadership aspirations are outlined in Chapter six. This chapter concludes with a presentation of the research conclusions and a discussion of future research directions.
Appendix A contains a copy of the letter accompanying the survey from the Director of Schools. Appendix B comprises a copy of the survey. The written instructions to focus group assistants is included in Appendix C. Appendix D includes the focus group schedule and Appendix E shows a sample of the focus group analysis.
Chapter Two - Review of Literature

Introduction

This chapter is primarily concerned with reviewing the literature on the factors that influence teachers’ career decisions and aspirations. The chapter comprises a context and framework for the research study by providing a research design, and conceptual framework; informing what is already known about teachers’ career decisions and aspirations, and identifying possible gaps in current knowledge in the area of the research questions. The following sections describe in detail the personal and organisational factors that influence career aspirations of teachers. These factors have been presented through a conceptual framework developed by the researcher. The conceptual framework comprises three key factors influencing teachers’ career decisions. The chapter contains a description of all factors, and a description of the place of each within the framework. It also outlines what is already known about teachers’ career decisions and aspirations, and identifies gaps in current knowledge.

Factors that influence career decisions and aspirations

According to the Shorter Oxford English Dictionary to ‘aspire’ is to ‘to have a fixed desire or ambition for something at present above one. To seek or attain’ (Oxford, 1973). Career aspiration for teachers has traditionally been defined as moving up a hierarchy (Shakeshaft, 1989). Such definitions depict the career desires of people who do not aspire to promotion, as lacking aspiration. This type of definition does not view aspiration in terms of the quality of the job held or its relationship to the person’s life outside work (Shakeshaft, 1989). Individual aspirations are constantly shaped by external factors (Grant, 1987). For the purposes of this research, aspiration has been defined as the level and type of position which teachers ultimately hope to attain. People’s individual career decisions and aspirations are influenced by many factors. These factors include work motivation, career and life planning, and values. Each of these three factors is influenced by personal and organisational components. Work motivation, career planning, and values provided the framework for this research project through which teachers’ aspirations were explored. The study follows the Oxford definition of motivation, namely that motivation is ‘that which induces a person to act in a certain way’ (Oxford, 1973). This study has explored what it is that induces individuals to behave in certain ways in relation to their work and career aspirations. Career has been defined as the various stages of an individual’s work life and aspirations. Values, the third factor in the conceptual framework, has been defined as the set of principles and rules that help teachers make decisions, choose between alternatives, and resolve conflicts.

Conceptual framework

The following diagram outlines the factors that influence teachers’ career decisions and aspirations. The rationale for the development of this framework is described in the following sections.

Figure 1 - Factors that influence career decisions and aspirations
Motivation

According to the Shorter Oxford English Dictionary ‘motive’ is defined as ‘that which moves or induces a person to move in a certain way’. There are numerous motivation theories (Kanfer, 1990). It has been claimed that this wide variety of definitions can cause confusion for researchers and practitioners wishing to apply them to work settings (Leonard, Beauvais and Scholl, 1999:970). To make some sense of the breadth of motivation theories, the researcher has relied on a matrix presented by Thierry (1998) in the Handbook of Work and Organizational Psychology. Thierry developed a method of organising current theories and places them within a matrix (See Figure 2, page 20). His framework of general motivation theories is an extension of an earlier organisational framework for reviewing motivational theories developed by Kanfer in 1990 (Kanfer, 1990). Thierry’s framework is confirmed by two other recent reviews of studies employee motivation published in 1999 (Ambrose and Kulik, 1999; Leonard et al., 1999). Ambrose and Kulik (1999) reviewed 200 studies of employee motivation published between 1990 and 1997. Among the motivation theories included in their study were those classified by Thierry as cognitive theories, all of which they claimed had considerable empirical support. Leonard et al. (1999) attempted to organise the plethora of work motivation theories by providing a meta-theory of work motivation. Their meta-theory again provided a rationale for the inclusion of cognitive motivation theories in studies of work motivation.
Thierry reviewed ten major theories and located each within a matrix. This matrix placed each theory on one of two continuum: Reinforcement and Cognitive theories, and Content and Process theories. (Figure 2 - Thierry's classification of motivation theories page 18).


Content theories view what it is in the person and/or the environment that attracts attention; causes behaviour to occur, and to keep doing so. Content theories explore people’s needs and the type of outcomes that individuals pursue (Herzberg 1968, 1993; Maslow 1970; and Deci 1970). Process theories such as Adams, Vroom, Locke and Latham address how behaviour is energised, maintained, or changed (Thierry, 1998; Vroom, 1964). Both content and process theories explore the dynamic nature of motivation, and the way the variables relate to one another (Thierry, 1998).

Figure 2 - Thierry's classification of motivation theories

The following section provides a brief discussion of the key differences between each of these theories. The classifications are general and provide relative comparisons of these major motivational theories.

(i) Hull’s Drive Reduction Theory defines human and animal behaviour in terms of stimulus and response. The theory has been criticised for its neglect of cognitive variables and its limited ability to describe human behaviour, as only the satisfaction of specific human needs is explained. (ii) Rotter’s Internal-External Control Theory is based on the human expectation that certain behaviour will lead to a specific result, and the perceived value of that result. An individual’s internal or external locus of control is based on
personality factors. This theory fails to examine the interaction with situational variables. (iii) Bandura’s Social Learning Theory is based on the premise that learning takes place in a social setting in which it occurs and is assessed by observing the behaviour of others. Bandura prefers to use the term ‘regulation’ instead of ‘reinforcement’. This regulation is informational and motivational in nature. When imposing self-regulation, individuals set their own behavioural norms and punish or reward themselves (Thierry, 1998:260). Information gained from the observation allows individuals to define effective behaviours. Motivation arises from the expectation of the effects of observed behaviours. There have been no studies to date that have verified all aspects of social learning theory. (iv) Skinner developed a Behaviour Modification Theory where reinforcement is described as the strengthening of a response through the effect with which it is linked. According to Thierry, Skinner’s theory does not recognise cognitive variables and processes (Thierry, 1998).

In the past, motivation theories have been classified as ‘need’ theories and ‘goal’ theories. Early ‘need’ theories assumed the existence of basic physiological needs oriented towards survival. Later, ‘need’ theories were broadened to include psychological needs. Goal theories assume that when a person considers particular goals (or outcomes) to be attractive or worthwhile behaviour will be occur to achieve them. Unattractive outcomes result in behaviour to prevent the outcome. According to Thierry, motives are cognitively represented through goals (Thierry, 1998). Some motivational theorists contend that motivation is an internal state that directs individuals towards goals. In the workplace, managers can create expectations on the part of the employees that their goals will be satisfied. Maslow (1970) argued that human needs could be viewed in a hierarchical fashion. Lower order needs for physical safety and security must be satisfied to some extent before higher order needs for self-esteem and self-actualisation can be addressed. He argued that needs lose their motivating power once they have been satisfied. Maslow’s theory has received much support, and is frequently linked to Herzberg’s (1968) dissatisfaction variables. Maslow fails to take into account the concept that individuals can be at different levels in the motivational hierarchy at different times, causing different needs to be aroused. Herzberg (1968) suggested a two-factor theory of motivation that is based on Maslow’s hierarchy. He conducted a worldwide survey aimed at an understanding of the factors contributing to satisfaction and dissatisfaction at work. His study found that five key factors influenced people’s satisfaction at work: achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. He found the aspects that resulted in dissatisfaction were company policy, administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, and working conditions. Herzberg noted that the satisfiers or motivators are intrinsic. They ‘describe man’s relationship to what he does’(Herzberg, 1968:74), whereas the job dissatisfiers ‘describe his relationship to the context or environment in which he does his job’(Herzberg, 1968:74). Herzberg labelled these dissatisfiers as hygiene or maintenance factors: ‘the hygiene or maintenance events led to job dissatisfaction because of a need to avoid unpleasantness; the motivator events led to job satisfaction because of a need for growth or self-
actualisation’ (Herzberg, 1968:74). These motivator and maintenance factors are not linked to each other.

The opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction but rather no job satisfaction; similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction, not satisfaction with one’s job. (Herzberg, 1968:74).

Locke and Latham developed a theory of motivation based on goal setting which is considered to be one of the most valid contemporary theories (Thierry, 1998). Their goal setting theory is based on the following hypotheses.

There is strong motivation to increase performance when:
- the goal is set high (i.e. is rather difficult)
- the goal is precisely formulated (i.e. it specifies what must be done when)
- there is regular feedback (i.e. in terms of the goal to be achieved);
- the goal is accepted by those concerned. (Thierry, 1998:266)

Locke and Latham’s theory conveys ways in which individuals wish to put their values into practice, and indicates which actions need to be performed to achieve this.

Deci (1970), in his Cognitive Evaluation theory, contends that people have two basal survival oriented needs: the need to be competent, and the need to be personally the cause of one’s own behaviour. People seek out situations that will challenge them only to a certain point. Intrinsically motivated behaviour is that behaviour which people choose to make themselves feel competent and self-determining. Deci sees the relationship between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic outcomes as a negative one (Thierry, 1998).

Adams’ Equity theory (Berkowitz and Walster, 1976; Katz, 1970) states that each person strives to achieve a balance between inputs and outcomes compared to referent others. Inputs include both investments and costs. Outcomes include aspects such as performance, pay, recognition, and criticism (Thierry, 1998). Seeking equity between inputs and outputs leads to satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Vroom’s Expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) identified three models: motivation, valence (job satisfaction), and performance. Motivation towards specific behaviour is considered to be dependent upon the expectation that this behaviour will lead to specific outcomes, and to the valence or attractiveness of these outcomes.

All motivation theories are flawed to some extent. Reinforcement theories have limited application to human behaviour, as many of them rely on personality variables, or do not recognise cognitive variables and processes. (Thierry, 1998). Each of the cognitive theories has weaknesses. For example:
4. Herzberg fails to take into account individual differences.
5. Maslow does not recognise that behaviour is simultaneously satisfying needs at various levels.
6. Deci does not recognise that behaviour is frequently complicated by interactions between personality traits and situational variables.
7. Adams’ theory breaks down if the person and referent are not in a direct relationship.
8. Vroom and Locke and Latham’s assumption that people actually set goals and develop expectations about the ways these goals can be achieved has been challenged (Thierry, 1998).
While all of these theories have been challenged at some level, each of the cognitive theories shares many strengths, and the common notion that people actively process information. Career decisions for promotion rely on teachers making conscious decisions.

This study explored work motivation through the cognitive motivation theories. Satisfaction and dissatisfaction are key factors in cognitive motivation theories, and these have been discussed in more detail in the section below.

The proliferation of work motivation theories has lead researchers to develop integrative approaches 'in an attempt to improve on the predictive validities typically obtained when using each theory alone' (Kanfer, 1990:139). This study used the amalgamation approach which is a combination of cognitive motivation theories, including aspects of Maslow’s higher order needs for self-esteem and self actualisation, Herzberg’s sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, Locke and Latham’s goal setting and values alignment, Adam’s equity theory, and Vroom’s expectancy theory in the workplace. The need for self-actualisation, sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and equity and expectancy theories as they relate to teachers’ aspirations was explored through a survey. Goal setting and values alignment were explored through a series of focus group interviews which were also used to confirm findings from the survey.

**Work Motivation**

This study was limited to an exploration of the career aspirations of teachers, including assistant principals and principals. The study was limited to investigating what motivates teachers in their work. Work motivation can be defined as a process by which behaviour is energised, directed, and sustained in organisational settings (Leonard et al., 1999:970). Leonard et al. contend that current theories of work motivation have identified three sources of motivation: intrinsic processes, extrinsic rewards, and motivation based on goal internalisation. Intrinsic motivation comes from the work itself. Individuals enjoy the work and feel rewarded simply by performing the task. Intrinsic motivation theory is based on the work of Herzberg who noted that satisfiers or motivators were intrinsic (Herzberg, 1968:74). Extrinsic rewards are a motivating force when individuals believe that certain behaviours will lead to certain outcomes. Deci explored the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation (Deci and Vroom, 1970; Leonard et al., 1999:970)]. Goal internalisation is a third source of motivation when the organisational goals and expected behaviours are congruent with an individual’s own value system. Locke and Latham based their goal setting theory on this premise. These three sources of motivation are generally accepted among researchers as valid sources of work motivation. Thierry placed intrinsic and extrinsic process motivation, and goal internalisation motivation theories on the cognitive side of his motivation matrix. The intrinsic motivation derived from the work itself is influenced by the individual’s feelings of job satisfaction and
dissatisfaction. Attitudes towards extrinsic rewards are influenced by the individual’s perception of the ‘reward’ or benefit.

This research further explored teachers’ and school leaders’ motivation through identifying and measuring levels and sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction; identifying and measuring teachers’ and school leaders’ perceptions of rewards or benefits, and identifying perceptions of organisational and individual values alignment.

**Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction**

Satisfaction plays a role in motivation theory (the extent to which a particular need is satisfied or a motive achieved). In the workplace, job satisfaction is a key concept. ‘Job satisfaction concerns the degree to which a person is satisfied with (aspects of) his/her job and job situation. It implies that a need is satisfied, a motive is achieved, and a goal is met’ (Thierry, 1998:276).

**Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among teachers**

Although Herzberg’s work provided the impetus for many studies of job satisfaction, it has had its critics. Major criticisms (Hanson, 1996; House and Wigdor, 1967) included the view that critical incidents alone were used to identify sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Raters were used to evaluate behaviours of respondents, possibly leading to rater contamination. Critics also state that the research lacked a measure of overall satisfaction, and that Herzberg assumed that all employees were basically alike (Graham and Messner, 1998:196). While there have been criticisms of Herzberg’s work, it has been used as the basis for many studies of work related sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction for many occupational groups, including teachers.

From the mid-sixties studies have confirmed Herzberg’s two-factor theory. Sergiovanni’s study into the factors which affect satisfaction and dissatisfaction of teachers (Sergiovanni, 1967, 1966) confirmed Herzberg’s findings for teachers. In the late 1980s Nias used Herzberg’s model to explore the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction for a group of teachers early in their career, and followed-up the same group of teachers mid-career (Nias, 1989). Nias’ study developed the understanding of Herzberg’s dissatisfaction factors. Nias found that compared to Herzberg’s findings, sources of dissatisfaction for teachers were more complex and varied. Herzberg had placed interpersonal relationships among the hygiene (maintenance) factors and in his work this referred to relationships with supervisors. But, Nias argues that in schools relationships with children, teachers, and
parents form an integral part of the work itself, rather than providing just the context within which the work is done.

The complexity and variation within dissatisfaction factors was further developed by (Dinham, 1996). In the early 1990s Dinham conducted an interview study of former teachers and school executives. His study was designed to explore a number of factors including aspects of their work that these former employees found most satisfying and dissatisfying. The study confirmed findings by other writers who have developed the ‘two-factor’ models of teacher satisfaction (Nias, 1989; Sergiovanni, 1967). Sources of dissatisfaction related to the context of teaching. Dinham classified these sources of dissatisfaction as structural, administrative, and societal. He also discovered that a third domain impacting on teacher satisfaction and dissatisfaction was emerging. This third factor was found outside the school, and included teacher status, imposed educational change, and the negative portrayal of teachers in the media. The interview study indicated that broader societal forces were intruding into, and influencing teacher satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Dinham and Scott conducted a further study to explore the impact that teaching can have on families of teachers (Dinham and Scott, 2000a). This second study confirmed the findings in the earlier study regarding sources of teacher satisfaction and dissatisfaction. In 1996, Dinham and Scott published the findings from research into career motivation and satisfaction for teachers and school executives in 71 primary, secondary and special purpose schools in New South Wales, Australia (Dinham and Scott, 1996). This study has now been replicated in New Zealand, United States of America, and England, with over 2000 participants (Scott, Stone and Dinham, 2000). Their findings confirm the ‘two-factor’ theory of teacher satisfaction. Dissatisfiers were related to the extrinsic aspects of teaching, both structural and systemic. Sources of dissatisfaction were related to factors extrinsic to the core business of teaching. Systemic and societal factors such as the status of teachers, the amount and intensity of educational change, and changes in social expectations of schools, support Herzberg’s categorisation of hygiene factors. Dinham and Scott classified another group of factors as potential sources of dissatisfaction – those relating to the conditions of work. These were found to be either neutral or moderately satisfying or dissatisfying and showed the most variation from school to school (Dinham and
Factors in this group included aspects such as, school leadership and decision-making factors, community relations, and school communication. When the initial study was replicated in New Zealand, England, and the USA, Dinham and Scott found that the extrinsic or societal factors varied in their intensity and influence (Dinham and Scott, 1998b). These variations were due to national, state, and systemic contexts. The differences included the amount and nature of educational change, media and public criticism of teachers and schools, and the status of teachers. These factors were critical in determining the level of dissatisfaction teachers feel with their occupation. Teacher satisfaction/dissatisfaction with both the conditions of their work, and what they saw as their core business, was weakened by negative factors comprised by this third domain.

This study further explored sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and the classification of the interpersonal relationship factors. In particular, the study examined interpersonal relationships with students, other teachers, and parents as an integral part of the work itself, and as such, a source of job satisfaction.

Sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction for principals

Herzberg’s theory has been, in recent years the focus of a number of studies of job satisfaction for principals and assistant principals (Duke, 1988; Graham and Messner, 1998; Hill, 1994a, 1994b; Marshall, 1993; Sutter, 1996). Each of these studies, while recognising some limitations with Herzberg’s ‘two-factor’ theory, confirmed the view that sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposite ends of a single continuum. School principals identify sources of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction arising from their job (Dinham and Scott, 1998a; Duke, 1988; Graham and Messner, 1998; Hill, 1994a; Johnson and Holdaway, 1991; Johnson and Holdaway, 1990; Scott, Cox and Dinham, 1998; Sutter, 1996). Sources of satisfaction continue to be found from the work itself. Recent studies have identified sources of dissatisfaction for school principals (Graham and Messner, 1998; Hill, 1994a). These studies confirm that some of the factors resulting in dissatisfaction are extrinsic to the job. Herzberg’s hygiene factors identified in these studies include, school district policy and administration (Duke, 1988; Johnson and Holdaway, 1990), and salary (ERS, 2000; Graham and Messner, 1998; Johnson and
Holdaway, 1990). However, these studies identify aspects of Herzberg’s theory that require further study. *This study compared sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction for teachers and principals.*

Comparisons have been made to determine if there are significant differences in the source and level of satisfaction between teachers and school leaders, and between principals and assistant principals.

Duke (1988:12) interviewed four young, successful principals, each of whom was considering leaving the principalship role. The job provided satisfaction for all four principals. They identified sources of satisfaction that were intrinsic to the job itself, such as recognition, personal relations, building a new staff, and instituting program changes. The principals did not mention responsibility and advancement – two motivators frequently mentioned in other job satisfaction studies.

They also identified a number of sources of dissatisfaction: policy and administration, lack of achievement, sacrifices in personal life, lack of growth opportunities, lack of recognition and too little responsibility, and relations with subordinates.

Duke found that certain aspects of principals’ work appear to produce satisfaction while at the same time contribute to concern and frustration. These aspects include, personal relations, the job itself, recognition, personal growth, and achievement. These principals cared about, and were committed to, supporting the needs of others but they frequently felt overburdened by the weight of their responsibilities. The increases in administrative demands meant that the job was often boring and mundane, and yet the educational leadership aspects provided a ‘rich diversity of challenges’ (Duke, 1988:311). These challenges were rewarding to a point. Each challenge demanded energy and resources, which frequently necessitated time-consuming and unrewarding negotiations with supervisors. These principals enjoyed the recognition from a range of sources such as parents, students, teachers and the community but felt pressurised by the high expectations placed upon them. The more they achieved, the more was expected. They recognised the symbolic value of their leadership presence at important (most) school functions. They also felt that they could never relax and ‘let their hair down’. They knew that they had professionally developed in some areas but felt that they had neglected others. Routine managerial skills had been improved in order to handle increased administrative workloads but this was at the expense of leadership skill development. The principals had
contradictory feelings about their achievements. They acknowledged that they had accomplished many goals but each felt that their achievements seemed to only bring more work. While this was a minor study of only four principals, Duke’s work raises some interesting challenges to Herzberg’s clear separation of sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Johnson and Holdaway (1990) studied perceptions of school effectiveness and principal effectiveness, and job satisfaction, comparing the results of elementary (primary), junior and senior school principals. Their findings confirmed that at each of the three sectors, principals had moderate levels of satisfaction, and expressed satisfaction with working relationships at school. All three sectors expressed dissatisfaction with decision-making processes and negotiations with district superordinates. Time required by the job was identified as a dissatisfier by elementary principals, inadequate salary and benefits was identified by junior high principals, and senior high school principals identified a lack of professional development opportunities, as sources of dissatisfaction. As stated by Johnson and Holdaway, job satisfaction research is complex and requires further study (1990:289). One area of study that could throw more light on this complex issue, would be a study of the interconnectedness between work variables and individuals’ personal lives. Johnson and Holdaway contend that the relationship between work variables and an individual’s personal life has a strong influence on job attitudes (Johnson and Holdaway, 1990).

This research explored the relationships between personal life planning, individual and organisational values and career aspirations.

Hill (1994a) presents the findings from a survey of 287 primary headteachers in one local education authority in the UK, investigating satisfaction with their jobs and future career aspirations. Hill found that nearly two and a half times as many Heads (principals) expected to be in the same job in five years’ time than expressed that as their aspiration (Hill, 1994a:230). As in previous studies, Hill also found that regardless of school size or sex, job satisfaction for Heads came from interpersonal relationships with teachers, parents and governors, as well as from their autonomy. Dissatisfaction resulted mainly from administrative tasks, work-overload, and from the low status that they felt was accorded to their job (Hill, 1994a:223). Hill found little difference in the aspects of headship that brought satisfaction for men and women. However, differences were found between
sources of dissatisfaction for men and women. Men were twice as likely as women to mention pay as a source of dissatisfaction and many more men than women mentioned a ‘lack of sympathy with government policy’ as a source of dissatisfaction. Hill found that the size of the school did have some impact on the level and source of dissatisfaction for Heads. Heads of small schools were ‘more likely to cite the changing nature of the job’ (Hill, 1994a:228).

This research compared sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction for male and female teachers, assistant principals, and principals. The study also explored the impact of school size and school location on sources, and levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Hill contends that the sources of dissatisfaction are not as discrete as Herzberg’s theory maintains. Heads in Hill’s study indicated that the work itself could be a source of dissatisfaction. This is a result of the changing nature of the job, particularly with increases in managerial administration that take away from educational leadership roles.

Graham and Messner, in a survey of 500 mid-west elementary, middle, and senior high school principals found that 92.9% of principals were generally satisfied with their current job (Graham and Messner, 1998). High levels of satisfaction were reported with colleagues and co-workers (91.2%), and with the level of responsibility (88.9%). Fewer principals reported satisfaction with the level of pay (60%) or opportunities for advancement (61.5%). Graham and Messner’s research challenges Hill’s finding relating to satisfaction with remuneration. They found that although both groups had relatively low levels of satisfaction, males were more satisfied with pay than females (61.4% - 53%).

This study compared the levels of satisfaction with remuneration for male and female teachers, assistant principals, and principals.

In 2000 the NAESP, NASSP and ERS published ‘The Principal, Keystone of a High Achieving School: Attracting and Keeping the Leaders We Need’. This document was commissioned by the NAESP and the NASSP as a follow-up report to an earlier study conducted in 1997. It also summarised the findings from the 1997 study that confirmed there was cause for serious concern over the potential shortage of candidates for principalship. The 2000 report reviewed literature on the importance of effective principals, discussed reasons for the current shortage, and discussed a number of strategies to overcome barriers to
effective recruitment, and provide support for aspirants and current principals. The report confirmed that relationships with students and teachers, and the work itself provided sources of satisfaction. Again, the later also provided a source of dissatisfaction. The increase in administrative tasks took time away from educational leadership. Time to devote to quality professional development, multiple demands, increased accountability, and a salary level that is not commensurate with the level of responsibility were all identified as sources of dissatisfaction (ERS, 2000). Both principals and teachers find the work itself a source of satisfaction. For teachers, their job can be described as classroom centred and related to the task of teaching and working with children (Scott et al., 2000). Building and maintaining relationships with children, parents, and colleagues is an integral part of the task of teaching (Dinham and Scott, 1996; Nias, 1989; Scott, Dinham and Brooks, 1999). For principals, their work centres on building and maintaining relationships with students, teachers, parents and the wider educational community (Duke, 1988; ERS, 2000; Hill, 1994a; Johnson and Holdaway, 1991; Johnson and Holdaway, 1990). For both groups, sources of dissatisfaction were extraneous to the school. Dissatisfaction resulted from the impact of societal, structural, and systemic factors (Dinham and Scott, 2000a; Duke, 1988; Hill, 1994a; Johnson and Holdaway, 1991; Johnson and Holdaway, 1990; Scott et al., 2000). For principals, some of the factors classified by Herzberg as motivators or satisfiers have been identified as strong sources of dissatisfaction as well as sources of satisfaction. These include lack of achievement, lack of recognition, and lack of growth (Duke, 1988).

This study examined individual factors contributing to satisfaction and dissatisfaction for teachers and school leaders. Comparisons have been made between factors identified as sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction for each group, and the validity of separating the sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

The impact of work motivation on teachers’ leadership aspirations

A review of the literature has revealed that work motivation is influenced by aspects of the job that result in job satisfaction, and those aspects that result in job dissatisfaction. The researcher contends that teachers’ career decisions are influenced by their level of work motivation. As key components of work motivation, job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and perceptions of the levels and sources of job
satisfaction and job dissatisfaction of others are key factors influencing teachers’ career decisions.
As indicated in the conceptual framework on page 18, the researcher also contends that work motivation itself can be influenced by aspects of career and life planning, and aspects of individual and organisational values.
This research explored the links between career and life planning, and work motivation.

Career and life planning
The following section explores the factors relating to teachers’ career and life planning. These factors can be grouped into personal factors (Coleman, 2001; Gutteridge, 1986; Hall, 1990b), organisational factors (Coleman, 2001; Gutteridge, 1986; Hall, 1990b), and external factors (Burke and McKeen, 1994; Maclean, 1991a, 1992). Personal factors include an exploration of teachers’ careers and personal life planning. Organisational factors include an exploration of the role of the principal and succession planning processes. External factors include an examination of the impact of the broader social and political environment on teachers’ careers.
This research studied the career and life planning related activities, attitudes, values, and behaviours of teachers throughout their work life.

Personal factors
The following section explores teachers’ careers and the personal factors that impact on their career decisions. These include personal life planning, and perceptions of incentives and disincentives to seek promotion.

Teachers’ careers
According to the Shorter Oxford English Dictionary, career is defined as ‘a person’s course or progress through life (or a distinct portion of life)’, and more recently ‘a profession affording opportunities for advancement.’ The term career has come to have many different meanings (Evetts, 1994), and is further confused when combined with other words such as career development, career planning, or career management. Many people infer a career to have upward mobility, others only relate the term to specific high status occupations (Gutteridge, 1986). Gutteridge (1986:54) defined career as “the sequence of a person’s work-related activities and behaviours and associated attitudes, values and aspirations over the span of one’s life.” This appears to be a more useful definition as it is inclusive of all employees. For the purposes of this study, a career will be considered as the sequence of past and current stages in an individual teachers’ work life, and their work aspirations from initial employment as a teacher to retirement. This definition includes all career movement - those who seek advancement as
promotion, those who seek lateral movement, and those who seek to regrade to a lower level.
Drawing on data from a study of Australian teachers in the state of Tasmania, Maclean studied the career and promotion patterns of teachers in the 1980s (Maclean, 1991a, 1992, 1991b). He found that the horizontal and vertical career movements of teachers were planned rather than random. Both horizontal and vertical movement were important features of teachers’ careers. There were substantial differences in the career patterns and perceptions of teachers according to their age, level of experience, gender, marital status, academic and professional qualifications, promotion position occupied, and sector of the Education Department in which they were employed. Teachers who had gained a promotion generally had a career plan and timetable. Teachers developed a perspective that influenced the level of promotion that satisfied their career needs. Career perspective changed at different stages in the teachers’ careers.

Evetts has developed a typology to describe the main types of careers for women (Evetts, 1990). This typology describes five career types: accommodate, antecedent, two-stage, subsequent, and compensatory. The most important difference between the five career types was the relationship between personal and public goals: how women manage these two responsibilities, and how successful they are with their strategies, affects their attitudes to their working careers at different times in their lives. Other factors include the woman’s attitude to promotion, the woman’s self image, and her main source of motivation (Evetts, 1990:66).
In the accommodated career, the teacher’s family or personal out-of-school commitments have first priority. Usually, promotion is not sought. The teacher sees themselves primarily as a wife and mother or some other role such as artist, with these roles providing them with their main sources of satisfaction. Evetts cites a study by Bennett (Evetts, 1990:67) of secondary art teachers who also developed what Evetts labels as accommodated careers. They saw themselves primarily as artists.
A positive attitude towards promotion is a factor in each of the following four career types. (i) The ‘antecedent’ career describes those who have promotion aspirations from the beginning of their careers. They are highly committed to their work and their self-image is primarily derived from their occupation. Work provides their greatest source of satisfaction. For these teachers work and personal lives blend with no clear
distinction between the two. (ii) A second promotion career strategy is the ‘two-stage’ career. These teachers are highly committed to their career as well as marriage and parenthood. As both are important to their self-image, they are willing to delay one to achieve the other. Both provide sources of satisfaction. (iii) The ‘subsequent’ career describes those teachers who had no clear ambition early in their careers. Their family goals were met first. At some stage in their career being a wife and/or mother no longer required them to abandon their teaching career. This category also includes mature age students who enter teaching after they have raised their families. These teachers see themselves as having a balanced home, family, and career. They derive pleasure from work, and are likely to be involved with leisure and community pursuits. (iv) Some teachers, due to a change in their circumstances, develop a ‘compensatory’ career strategy. In an attempt to compensate for a failure in their personal lives, their career and work becomes an important part of their self-image and source of satisfaction.

This research studied the impact of each of these career types on leadership aspirations.

Individual attitudes to work and careers are influenced by a number of factors (Evetts, 1990; Maclean, 1991a, 1992, 1991b). Evetts found that the most important factors for women primary teachers were their own personal circumstances, and responsibilities, expectations, and ideals in the sphere of home and family life (Evetts, 1990:84). The five career types identify the main differences in the strategies that women primary teachers use to cope with, and manage, dual responsibilities in their private and public lives. These differences in perceived responsibilities of men and women result in different career experiences and result in gender linked variations in attitudes to promotion. There are as many differences in attitudes to promotion between women as there are differences in attitudes between men and women (Evetts, 1990:146). However, data suggest one specific difference between men and women – generally women have been slower to start seeking promotion because of ‘career breaks, part-time work, movement around the country in support of husbands’ careers.’ While in Australia, overt discrimination against women is illegal, the fact that women tend to take the overall responsibility for family and home, influences the timing of when some female teachers are willing and/or able to take on management roles in education (Coleman, 2001, 1996a; Grant,
They may well be professionally but not personally ready for leadership roles. This study explored both professional and personal factors that impact on teacher career aspirations. Rothwell noted that people make six types of career movements in any organisation: in, out, up, down, across, or progress in place (Rothwell, 1994:22). Many teachers in government schools make all of their career moves within the one organisation. They move ‘in’ on their first appointment and ‘out’ when they retire. Prior to the introduction in Victoria of extended family leave of seven years, many women resigned rather than return to work and juggle the needs of their young family and work commitments. With the introduction of family leave entitlements in 1984 more women moved ‘out’ temporarily and returned to their previous position within the next seven years. Teachers move ‘up’ by taking on positions with increasing responsibility, such as year level co-ordinator, head of department, assistant principal, or principal. ‘Downward’ career movements occur when teachers regrade from a position of responsibility to a lower level position. Some women returning from family leave voluntarily choose to regrade, frequently to part-time positions, as a strategy to manage their paid and unpaid workloads. In the past, few promotional positions were available on a part-time basis. For teachers, organisationally imposed demotion is unusual. Lateral transfer is a common career move in teaching. Teachers frequently take up similar positions in different schools or in the case of larger schools transfer to another similar position within the school. In recent years, lateral transfers from one school to another have been harder to obtain. Principals have endeavoured to provide opportunities for staff to ‘progress in place’ by providing career development and professional growth opportunities for teachers who have not been able to transfer. Teaching is an occupation with a bureaucratic career structure. In Australian schools there is a system of clearly defined promotion levels, made up of team leaders (such as heads of departments and year level co-ordinators), assistant principal, and principal, a path traditionally taken by many male principals. Women’s careers are less likely to move through such a formal career structure (Evetts, 1987:16). The assistant principal position has been seen by many as a transitional role; one that will prepare them to move up the administration hierarchy (Marshall, 1992b; Marshall, Mitchell and Gross, 1990). Having achieved
this role, assistant principals have generally followed one of Rothwell’s six career movement patterns. The ‘upwardly mobile’ assistant principals in Marshall’s study (Marshall et al., 1990) actively wanted to be principal. They ensured that they had a sponsor or mentor to support their aspirations. The ‘career’ assistant principals did not want to be a principal. They were satisfied with their current role. The ‘career’ assistant principal was less likely to have a sponsor or mentor and did not actively seek one. The ‘plateaued’ assistant principal wanted promotion and had applied for many principal positions but had been rejected. The ‘plateaued’ assistant principal typically lacked a strong mentor or sponsor. The ‘shafted’ assistant principal had capably and successfully met most of the criteria for the ‘upwardly mobile’ assistant principal but had had little chance of promotion. This was usually due to an inappropriate placement or changes that had resulted in the reversal of the candidate’s expectations. This could include loss of the sponsor’s support due to retirement or promotion. The ‘considering leaving’ assistant principal felt over-qualified and under-valued for their contribution. The ‘downwardly mobile’ assistant principal reversed their career orientation either voluntarily or involuntarily. Voluntary reversals were usually because of health reasons, such as wanting to reduce stress and workload, or those who had become disillusioned with the job and opted to return to a job with tasks they preferred.

One strategy designed to increase the supply of trained and enthusiastic applicants to principal positions would be to increase the number of upwardly mobile assistant principals. 

This research explored the factors that altered the career paths of assistant principals. Assistant Principals who aspire to the principal role often find that their current role is not a good training ground for principalship (Gorton, 1987; Kelly, 1987; Webb and Vulliamy, 1995). Kelly, in a study of Canadian assistant principals, and Gorton in a similar study of assistant principals in the United States, found that assistant principals spend most of their time performing roles they will not do as principals, such as student attendance and discipline management. Webb and Vulliamy (1995) confirmed these findings in a study of deputy headteachers in the United Kingdom. In the United Kingdom, the pressure to reduce class sizes has lead to a reduction in the number of non-teaching duties. There appears to be little opportunity for assistant principals to be involved in instructional
leadership or administration (Gorton, 1987; Kelly, 1987; Webb and Vulliamy, 1995). A number of researchers have made recommendations for addressing concerns regarding the assistant principal role as a preparation for principal (Gorton, 1987; Kelly, 1987; Marshall, 1992a, 1992b; Marshall, 1993; Marshall et al., 1990; Webb and Vulliamy, 1995). Gorton has provided a useful framework for viewing these recommendations. He suggested that the assistant principal role could be expanded, principals need to become advocates for the importance of the assistant principal role, the rewards of the job should be increased, and professional growth facilitated (Gorton, 1987:2).

This study examined the teachers', assistant principals', and principals' perceptions of the assistant principal role, and compared the differences in these perceptions. Sources and levels of job satisfaction for groups of teachers, including assistant principals and principals, were also examined.

The principal has a major influence over the job satisfaction and aspirations of assistant principal/s (Kelly, 1987; Sutter, 1996). Principals set the formal duties of their assistants and as such can provide the structures for assistant principals to take a more active role in instructional leadership, administration, policy making, and human and financial resource management. They can provide the forums for assistant principals to take a public leadership role. Principals can become public advocates for the importance of assistant principals. ‘The working environment has a profound effect on the attitudes and aspirations of assistant principals’ (Marshall et al., 1990:29). Principals play a key role in encouraging and supporting appropriate candidates (Grady, 1989; Marshall et al., 1990). They have a significant impact on their own workplace environment by providing access to training experiences, and nurturing growth and leadership (Malone and Caddell, 2000). As sponsors or mentors they are often the first to plant the idea that a teacher should consider applying for principal level positions. A positive relationship has been found between teachers seeking an administrative position, and those who were encouraged to seek an administrative position (Grady, 1989). A third important role for principals is that of advocate for the role. Principals have a significant impact on the attitudes of teachers towards the role of school principal. It is difficult for teachers to really understand the intrinsic rewards of the role of principal. ‘Aspiring
administrators may hear that the rewards must be derived from within, but actually understanding what that means while performing such a demanding job can be difficult’ (Malone and Caddell, 2000:162).

This study examined perceptions of the principal role and their advocacy of the principal role.

Current principals play a role in improving their own workplace employment conditions, the characteristics of leadership roles within their own school, and the workplace environment. Principals in government schools in Victoria cannot increase the salary received by those appointed to established leadership positions. However, there is some flexibility in determining the number and level of leadership positions available at a particular school. There is also the ability to offer financial incentives as part of the performance management process. The principal can have a significant impact on the workplace environment by nurturing growth and leadership, providing professional development opportunities such as shadowing and informal mentoring, and becoming committed to the concept of developing leaders (Barker, 1997).

This study examined principals’ commitment to developing leaders for both their own school and for the Victorian government education system; that is leaders for all government schools.

In August 2000, the DE&T published a report on a study of the characteristics of outstanding school leaders in Victorian schools (Power, Stuchberry, Abbott and O'Connor, 2000). The HayGroup was commissioned by the DE&T to develop a set of capabilities that described excellence in school leadership. These capabilities were identified using expert panels and in-depth interviews of principals, assistant principals, and leading teachers. The data were gathered from effective practitioners nominated by DE&T personnel.

[The] research identified thirteen individual capabilities, all of which were present among the sample of highly effective Principals. Twelve of the same set of capabilities were demonstrated by the outstanding Assistant Principals (Power et al., 2000).

The thirteen capabilities comprised: achievement focus, analytical thinking, big picture thinking, contextual know-how, ensuring accountability, gathering information, influencing others, leading the school community, management of self, maximising school capability, passion for teaching and learning, supporting others, and taking initiative. These thirteen capabilities were grouped into four key areas: Driving
School Improvement; Delivering Through People; Building Commitment; and Creating an Educational Vision. ‘Developing others’ does not appear among the capabilities. These capabilities were developed through a series of interviews with school leaders who had been nominated by the DE&T as highly effective. ‘Developing others’ was not articulated as a key capability throughout the research process which raises a few questions. Why did the school leaders involved in the research project not identify ‘developing others’ as an important capability? What are the implications of not including developing others as a key capability? The DE&T’s own accountability requirements include reporting on staff perceptions of the school leadership’s support of their professional growth and career development. The importance of developing the leadership team was not reflected in the capabilities specified for effective school principalship. Does the DE&T believe that developing others should be a key capability of highly effective principals?

In this study, teachers, assistant principals, and principals provided some insight into their perceptions of key aspects of the principal role. Career supporters have been identified. The significance of career support provided by principals and assistant principals has been examined. Staff perceptions of whether or not the principal regarded developing others as an important aspect of their role, was compared with principal perceptions.

To summarise, the literature has identified a number of different career types and identified common differences in these career types between males and females. Women’s careers are more likely to be influenced by their personal circumstances and responsibilities, and their own expectations and ideals in the home and family sphere. A number of career types specifically within the assistant principal role have been discussed. The principal has been identified as having a significant impact on the attractiveness or otherwise of the assistant principal role and perceptions of their own role. This section has explored common career paths for both male and female teachers. In the following section, personal life planning factors that impact on teachers’ career decisions will be explored.

**Personal life planning**

A number of studies in recent years (AEU, 1999; Bittman and Pixley, 1997; Drago, Caplan and Costanza, 2000; Loughlin, 2000) have examined the difficulties of combining paid work with family
responsibilities. The personal and professional lives of teachers, and particularly women teachers, are intertwined (Grogan, 1996). Research undertaken in Australia and elsewhere (Barrera, Finlay, Saggers and Stuart, 1999; Bittman and Pixley, 1997; Burke and McKeen, 1994) indicates that generally the major responsibility for domestic tasks fall on women. In 1999, the Australian Education Union published findings from a national research project exploring the context of women teacher’s work in the late 1990s. They found that teachers employed full-time were working an average of over 48 hours per week (Victorian teachers were working an average of 49.6 hours). Women who taught part-time were officially employed for an average of 22 hours per week but were working an average of over 30 hours per week. Women principals and assistant principals were working an average of 54 hours per week (AEU, 1999:11).

In Victorian government schools, as in most schools nationally and internationally, most teachers are female. According to the DE&T June 2002 payroll analysis, 68% of Victorian government school teachers were female. Many females are also the primary carers for children and/or parents. Two thirds of Victorian teachers have children, and almost 50% of teachers have children under the age of 18. Just over a quarter of Victorian teachers have caring responsibility for aged family members (Whiting and Probert, 1999b). Many of the teachers with young children are also responsible for aged family members. It is inevitable therefore, that many teachers experience work-family conflict at some stage in their career. Work-family conflict has been cited by a number of researchers as having detrimental outcomes for organisations and individuals (Grandey, 2000).

It appears that for some women the impact of taking on leadership roles forces them to choose between career and family. In a study of secondary headteachers in England and Wales, Coleman found that 66% of female headteachers were married or had partners and approximately half had children (Coleman, 1996a). In a subsequent study Coleman found that 98% of male headteachers were married and 93% had a child or children (Coleman, 2001:79). Women’s personal life situations would appear to have a direct impact on leadership aspirations.

Family friendly policies designed to meet the family needs of employees have been one solution adopted by organisations. High expectations surround the introduction of such policies (Grandey, 2000). Family
friendly policies fall into two categories: policies that assist the employee to deal with family demands but still focus on work; and policies that allow employees to restructure their work in order to more clearly focus on both work and family demands (Grandey, 2000:7). On-site childcare is an example of a policy that helps employees to more efficiently manage the demands of the family, and thus focus on work. Personal/parental leave, part-time employment, flexi-time, a compressed work week, telecommuting, and job sharing allow employees to restructure their work time to cope with family demands.

Women often use part-time work to accommodate the demands of work and family. However, while this strategy keeps them in the workforce, the part-time nature of their employment is frequently interpreted as making their work less important and less difficult because the perception is that important, difficult work is carried out on a full-time basis (Loughlin, 2000:25). Part-time working women are then seen as less able to do the hard work. In a research project conducted by the Australian Education Union (AEU) in 1999, teachers indicated there was a need for an increase in the number of part-time and job-sharing positions (Whiting, 1999a). Teachers believe that while family-friendly policies are in place, there is little done to promote these employment opportunities. The AEU Women’s Publications Research project found that women were also fearful that their long-term career prospects could be adversely affected by part-time employment (Whiting, 1999a). In Victoria there has been only a handful of official flexible work arrangements for school leaders, particularly assistant principals, and principals.

This study examined the desirability of increased access to flexible work arrangements for teachers in leadership positions.

Family commitments can have an impact on the way in which an employee’s work commitment is perceived. Commitment to work is generally characterised by long hours, and putting the needs of the organisation first. Productivity is often measured by presence. Putting in long hours demands actual face-time at the workplace. There is a belief that those who have commitment to the organisation will be available at all times. The perception that long face-time hours equals work commitment can affect women’s careers. However, we need to be wary of attributing the lack of women’s career progress to their high commitment to family. Women seldom identify family reasons for lack of
advancement (Cox, 1996; Loughlin, 2000). Male managers tend to attribute a lack of career progress to a lack of ambition. Male managers tend to believe that women are more committed to their family, whereas women themselves link a lack of career progress to other factors, such as a lack of professional and personal support (Burke and McKeen, 1994), and the impact of career breaks (Coleman, 2001). Recent studies are beginning to challenge this perception of a positive correlation between high-involvement organisations and organisational effectiveness. In a study of approximately 2000 employees in a professional services firm, Burke found that the values associated with family-friendliness are similar to those associated with organisational effectiveness (Burke, 1997:227). Burke’s study also found that high involvement organisations make it more difficult to achieve a balance in work lives (Burke, 1997:225). Achieving a balance between work demands and family/personal life is an aim now shared by some men. Burke’s study of approximately 300 managerial men found strong links between work/life balance, values and positive work experiences, increased job and career satisfaction, and more favourable well-being outcomes (Burke, 2000:85).

This research studied attitudes to work and personal life balance by both males and females.

Organisations such as DE&T are becoming increasingly aware of the need to create an environment that supports a diverse, flexible and adaptive workforce. In 1998, the DE&T published documents that supported a flexible work options policy. The documentation comprised a Handbook, Managers’ Guide, Telecommuting Guidelines, and a Flexible Work Staff Kit. The range of flexible work options available to DE&T employees included part-time employment, job-sharing, working from home, telecommuting, flexible hours, compressed hours, flexi-time, time-in-lieu and make-up time, sabbatical leave, and 48/52. 48/52 arrangements provide non-teaching staff access to an additional four weeks annual leave, and an annual salary calculated at 48/52 of the full annual salary. This policy was implemented in recognition of changes in the profile of the workforce.

[DE&T] employs around 45,000 teachers and other staff in schools and around 1300 staff in non-school based workplaces, who have family and life commitments. Women make up 70% of the school-based workforce and 52% of the non-school based workforce. 44% of Department of Education employees are aged forty-five years and over.
compared to 30% in the Australian workforce. (DEET, 1998:3)

An AEU study (Whiting and Probert, 1999b) revealed that these family friendly work practices are not generally perceived by teachers to be available. Twenty-eight per cent of Victorian teachers did not believe that part-time employment was available, 81% did not believe job-sharing to be available, and 91% did not believe that flexible work hours were available. While the provision of flexible work options might be part of DE&T policy, there is a strong perception by most staff that flexible work options do not exist.

In the early 1990s, three companies - Corning, Xerox, and Tandem Computers - each with a reputation as a leader in the field of work and family - agreed to investigate the specific barriers that keep work/family programs from fulfilling their promise of creating a more flexible and equitable workplace (Rapoport and Bailyn, 1996). They used a broad definition of family that included ‘all aspects of an individual’s personal life and those involvements and commitments, both at home and in the community that an individual has outside his/her employment’ (Rapoport and Bailyn, 1996:15). They found the problems to include, inequities between men and women in the workplace and at home, career repercussions for those who use family leave provisions, and a perceived unfairness by those who did not use the flexible family arrangements and were burdened by a heavier workload as a result.

Rapoport and Bailyn (1996) found that even in companies with a genuine commitment to achieving work/family balance, problems arise when work/family issues are viewed as individual concerns to be addressed only through flexible work practices, sensitive managers, and individual accommodations. Following the findings, these companies brought work/family concerns in the workplace out into the open and reframed them as systemic problems in the way in which work gets done, rather than as individual liabilities of particular employees (Rapoport and Bailyn, 1996:20). This process moved personal issues to the collective level and helped people see that work/family balance problems are not just of their own making but frequently stem from the way work is organised.

This study explored perceptions of access to flexible work arrangements for teachers at different promotion levels within the DE&T.

The literature clearly shows that achieving a balance between work and family responsibilities and
expectations is particularly difficult for women. The
tlow number of women principals in Victoria compared
to males, supports this contention. Although, 68% of
teachers are female, only 35% of all principals are
female (DE&T payroll analysis June 2002).
This study explored the personal life planning factors
that women believe impact negatively on their career
decision making, and the conditions that women
consider are necessary to provide a greater incentive
for them to promote to principal positions.

Perceptions of incentives and disincentives to
promote

Peoples’ personal career decisions are influenced by a
number of factors. These include the person’s life
situation as discussed in the previous section, and the
perceived incentives and disincentives of the job (Crow
and Glascock, 1995; Duke, 1988; Jacobson, 1990;
NAESP, 1998, 2000; Olson, 1999; Pounder and
Young, 1996; Riseley, 1986; Van Cooley and Jianping
Shen, 1999).
The key incentives generally fall into one of two
categories: the nature of the work and the outcomes of
the work. The nature of the work includes an
opportunity to have a greater voice in decision making,
the potential recognition that the position provides, and
the increased opportunity to build relationships (Crow
and Glascock, 1995; Jacobson, 1990; Pounder and
Young, 1996). Often it is the nature of the work, in
terms of working with people, ideas, and organisations
that are appealing. An outcome of the work is the
opportunity to create and change, and to motivate, and
inspire others. This includes the ability to impact on,
and improve the learning environment, the opportunity
to shape a new vision, and the active seeking of
resources to effect change (Crow and Glascock, 1995;
Jacobson, 1990). Jacobson (1990) found a particularly
interesting incentive to seek promotion was that it
provided an escape from the classroom. This is at odds
with another of Jacobson’s findings that one of the
disincentives is the prevailing perception that the
responsibilities of the principal are unrelated to the
main interests of teachers dedicated to instruction.
Shakeshaft asserts that women enter teaching to be near
children. The more they perceive the administration
role as taking them away from having a direct impact
on children’s learning the less likely they are to aspire
to this role (Shakeshaft, 1989).
This study examined teachers’ views on whether
principals maintained a connection to the teaching and
learning program, and if this was seen as an incentive or disincentive.

A number of studies have identified the economic impact of an increased salary as an incentive to promote (Crow and Glascock, 1995; Jacobson, 1990; Pounder and Young, 1996). While an increased salary is acknowledged as an incentive, it is the least appealing to educators (Pounder and Young, 1996). Teachers are influenced by the impact they can have, the opportunity to author change, and their aspiration to lead a particular type of school rather than principalship as a generic occupation (Crow, 1990).

Much has been written on the disincentives for teachers to apply for principal level positions (Crow and Glascock, 1995; Jacobson, 1990; James and Whiting, 1998b; NAESP, 1998, 2000; Olson, 1999; Van Cooley and Jianping Shen, 1999). Crow and Glascock suggest that disincentives fall into two key categories – the nature of the job and external influences. The factors impacting on the nature of the job include the increasing workload (Crow and Glascock, 1995; Jacobson, 1990; NAESP, 1998, 2000; Olson, 1999; Van Cooley and Jianping Shen, 1999), increasing time required by the job (Crow and Glascock, 1995; NAESP, 1998, 2000), and a change in the role of principal (Jacobson, 1990; NAESP, 2000; Olson, 1999; Van Cooley and Jianping Shen, 1999). External influences include factors such as the impact of societal problems, requirements of the bureaucracy (James and Whiting, 1998b), and the impact of the current economic situation.

The AEU study of women teachers’ work in the 1990s (AEU, 1999) cited a wide range of reasons that prevented teachers from applying for promotion. A lack of remuneration for the level of extra stress experienced was cited as a significant barrier to promotion. Insufficient compensation compared to the level of responsibility was identified in the ERS study as the key factor discouraging people from the principal position (ERS, 2000:26). The AEU study explored teachers’ current career aspirations. It was found that 40% of teachers wanted to either remain a classroom teacher or obtain a co-ordination position, 13% of teachers aspired to any school leadership position, and 18% of teachers plan to develop careers outside teaching (AEU, 1999:28).

This study examined the current career aspirations of Victorian government school teachers. A comparison was also made between their current career aspirations
and respondents’ stated as career aspirations when they began teaching.

A strong disincentive emerging from the mid-1990’s, is low monetary compensation, considering the increase in level of responsibility and accountability (Barnard, 1998; Crow and Glascock, 1995; ERS, 2000; Jacobson, 1990; Malone and Caddell, 2000; NAESP, 1998, 2000; Rafferty, 1996; Van Cooley and Jianping Shen, 1999). It is interesting to note that while monetary compensation was not found to be an incentive, it was seen as a disincentive. The 1998 NAESP report quotes that it was regarded as a disincentive by 60% of potential principals. It has been found that employees have higher levels of job satisfaction when they perceive that they have pay equity with employees with similar levels of responsibility outside their organisation. Employees are also more satisfied when they perceive that their pay is fair in relation to their contribution to the organisation compared to the pay levels of others inside the organisation (Igalens and Roussel, 1999). American principals in the ERS study felt that the compensation was not adequate for the level of responsibility (ERS, 2000:26), indicating a lack of external equity. If the principal salaries do not rise in relation to salary increases for teachers, principals may also perceive internal inequity.

In the last 15 years, teachers and principals have experienced enormous changes in the nature of the job (Murphy and Forsyth, 1999b, 1999a; Scott et al., 2000; Senate Employment Education and Training References Committee, 1998). There have also been changes in social and family structures (Drago et al., 2000; White and Rogers, 2000), and the role played by the school in educating young people (AEU, 1999; Senate Employment Education and Training References Committee, 1998). Schools are frequently expected to respond to students’ educational, social, psychological, emotional, and physical needs (AEU, 1999; Dinham and Scott, 2000a; Doud and Keller, 1998; Murphy, 1998; Murphy and Forsyth, 1999b, 1999a; Scott et al., 2000).

Teachers and school leaders are expected to have a broader range of technical knowledge and skills. They are now seen as change agents rather than school managers. Over the previous decade there has not been so much of a change in the role of principal but a role overload has resulted from principals taking on increased responsibilities without divesting any already held. A role conflict is developing between what
principals have traditionally been expected to do, and
the future needs of the role (Barker, 1997; Olson,
1999).

This study explored the perception of the role and
workload of principal from the point of view of
teachers, assistant principals, and principals.

Career and life planning is one of the three key factors
that influence teachers’ career planning and aspirations.
The personal factors involved in career and life
planning choices have been discussed above. The
following section discusses the organisational factors
that impact on individual teacher’s career decision
making.

Organisational factors
An organisation’s succession planning policies and practices
have an impact on individual career aspirations. The following
section examines definitions of organisational succession
planning. This is followed by an exploration of the impact of
succession planning processes on career development and
leadership aspirations, and an exploration of changes in the
principal role.

Succession planning
The traditional view of succession planning was that it
was top down, frequently with little input from the
employees at all. Succession planning began as a
reactive process of job replacement. Organisations set
about locating the best individual for a particular job as
the need arose. This later evolved to developing the
skills of a pool of individuals for future positions within
a company (Hall, 1986b). Replacement planning was a
form of risk management. Managers began to
recognise that the continued survival of the organisation
depended on the availability of the right person to fill
the right job at the right time.

Rothwell described succession planning as ‘any effort
designed to ensure the continued effective performance
of an organisation, division, department or work group
by making provision for the development and
replacement of key people over time’ (Rothwell,
1994:5). Succession planning assumed that
employment levels were stable and that employees
remained with the one employer throughout their
career. It provided individuals with experiences to
prepare them for specific leadership positions. The
focus was short term. Current requirements and current
personnel were matched, generally by the organisation.

More recently, succession planning has become a
proactive process that takes a longer-term view
(Leibman, Bruer and Maki, 1996). Leibman et al.
define succession planning as the deliberate and
systematic effort made by an organisation to identify, develop, and retain individuals with a range of leadership competencies who are capable of implementing current and future organisational goals (Leibman et al., 1996:22). Succession planning now recognises that people will change employers and careers several times in their working life. Individuals are viewed in the context of the leadership team. There is a longer-term strategic planning focus. Future leaders are prepared by developing a pool of people with a range of leadership competencies. The focus is on future requirements, and providing high potential and high performing employees with developmental experiences that will skill them to meet these future demands of the business. The responsibility for career development now rests with the individual (Leibman et al., 1996).

Organisations need to ensure that their human resource practices support the recruitment, development, and retention of appropriate leadership personnel. Effective succession planning is now seen as more than replacement planning. Succession planning should be based on agreed principles, provide a breadth of experiences critical to leadership, and be active at all levels of the organisation (Friedman, Hatch and Walker, 1998). Effective succession planning identifies future organisational needs (capabilities), and potential future leaders; inspires leadership aspirations; bases the selection processes and program design on future leadership capabilities; creates pools of talent; and recognises multiple paths to leadership (Leibman et al., 1996). It provides for the development of future leaders and the on-going development and retention of current leaders. Strategic succession planning provides opportunities for current leaders to develop capabilities, and access new challenges. Succession planning encourages leaders to review the demands of the business and identify and provide solid developmental experiences for high performance and high potential employees. It aligns organisational thinking, the external environment, and the development needs of individuals (Brigland, 1999; Hall, 1986b; Leibman et al., 1996). When succession planning is left completely to individuals to manage by themselves, job incumbents tend to groom successors who resemble them in appearance, background, and values (Loughlin, 2000; Rothwell, 1994:8). This practice perpetuates the glass ceiling, and other forms of discrimination. Where succession planning is formalised, all staff have access
to development and training plans, managers and subordinates discuss an individual’s career path, and the human resource planning process becomes more comprehensive (Rothwell, 1994). Leadership development now frequently includes:

1. accelerated learning through substantive assignments and job rotations;
2. tailoring assignments to meet individual and specific business needs;
3. building global perspective early in careers;
4. identifying individual aptitudes for working in teams;
5. ensuring more rapid, effective implementation of job-related learning and development;
6. customising management education and training;
7. comparing internal applicants with the best external;
8. recruiting talent one level below key positions; and
9. providing wider pay ranges and more flexible total compensation. (Walker, 1998)

Strategic succession planning includes policies and processes for recruitment, development, and retention of staff (Friedman et al., 1998). Recruitment involves more than just the selection processes. The recruitment aspects of succession planning also need to include processes and policies to attract the highest quality applicants. Recruitment and retention are posing a challenge for many education systems, including the Victorian government school system (d’Arbon et al., 2001). Shortages of teachers (Auditor General, 2001; Cook, 2001; Hessels, 2001; Mathews, 2001; Senate Employment Education and Training References Committee, 1998) and school leaders (Auditor General, 2001; Barker, 1997; Evetts, 1992; Jacobson, 1990; Lawnham, 2000; Malone and Caddell, 2000; Olson, 1999; Pyke, 1997) in the USA, UK, and Australia would indicate inadequate current recruitment and retention processes. The Teacher Workforce Planning Report (Auditor General, 2001) notes that:

Approximately forty-five per cent of the government teaching workforce will be progressively reaching retirement age over the next ten years. The aging of the teacher workforce, coupled with natural attrition, will mean that the Victorian teacher labour market is likely to be in a position of shortage over this period unless there is an increase in the number of new entrants into the profession. (Auditor General, 2001:5)

The shortage of teachers is also a shortage of potential future educational leaders (Canavan, 2001).
The resignation of senior personnel before reaching a retirement age of 55 poses challenges for the retention of staff. The average age of teacher resignation is 44.7 (DE&T personnel records). In 2001, 32% of the principal class aged between 54 and 59 years ceased employment. For those in the principal class aged 54, the percentage ceasing employment in 2001 was 47.6%. Whereas, 30.5% of teachers aged 54 ceased employment. High numbers of teachers and principals resign at age 54 and 11 months due to a financial incentive for teachers with particular superannuation conditions to resign before reaching the retirement age of 55 years. These data indicate that at the age when many teachers would be ready to consider principal class leadership roles, they leave teaching through resignation or early retirement.

This research provided an indication of the retirement and resignation plans of DE&T teachers, assistant principals, and principals. It also provided an exploration of the reasons why some teachers choose to remain in their current position until they resign or retire, in preference to moving into a more senior leadership role.

A review of the literature indicates that until recently there have been no examples of strategic succession planning processes for schools and/or education systems. In an attempt to remedy this situation, Canavan (2001) has developed a ‘twelve phase management process designed to facilitate leadership succession in Catholic education (Canavan, 2001:75). These succession planning processes include strategies to link the organisation’s strategic and succession plans, and processes for recruitment (attracting and selecting potential leaders), development (of future and current leaders) and retention (of future and current leaders). This research provides a review of succession planning processes in the DE&T at a system and school level.

In the past, teachers in government schools have tended not to change employers during their career. There might be a significant change in the future as the current generation of teachers retires. Teachers in the age group of 21-39 are in the group referred to as generation x or Gen Xers (Jurkiewicz, 2000). Gen Xers witnessed the corporate and private sector restructuring through the experiences of their parents. Gen Xers learnt that you could not rely on institutions or the government providing a job for life. They grew up in a time of electronic communications. As a result of watching their parents’ career plans shattered through
down-sizing, they do not expect job security, pensions, or a traditional career model (Jurkiewicz, 2000:58). They value a sense of belonging and teamwork, the ability to learn new things, autonomy and entrepreneurship, security, flexibility, feedback, and short term rewards (Jurkiewicz, 2000:52). It has been found that generation Xers change their jobs more frequently than baby boomers - those born between 1946 and 1962 (Jurkiewicz, 2000:59), as frequently as every eighteen months (Jurkiewicz, 2000:56). If young teachers in Victoria change careers several times in their working life, as predicted, succession planning will need to consider strategies to attract teachers back to schools to take up leadership roles following experiences in other careers, and with other employers. Recent research has found that the even with these differences in experiences and expectations between generation Xers and baby boomers, there are strong similarities in what generation Xers and baby boomers want from their jobs (Jurkiewicz, 2000). Jurkiewicz (2000), in a study of 241 public servants in the United States, found that both groups gave similar ranking to their desire for a stable and secure future; a chance to engage in satisfying leisure activities; a chance to exercise leadership; a chance to use their special abilities; a chance to make a contribution to important decisions; a chance to benefit society; friendly and congenial associates; a high salary; opportunities for advancement; variety in work assignments; and working as part of a team. Baby boomers only ranked two items significantly higher than generation Xers - the chance to learn new things, and freedom from pressures to conform both on and off the job. Generation Xers only ranked one item significantly higher than the baby boomers – freedom from supervision. The Jurkiewicz study found that regardless of generational affiliation, employees tend to share the same concerns and needs as they progress through the life stages of graduate, young family, growing family, empty nester, to retirement (Jurkiewicz, 2000:67). Succession planning processes for the next generation of teachers need to be based on research rather than myth. This study explored the career intentions and values of young teachers (below 31 years) and compared these with the career patterns and values of older teachers. The third key element of effective succession planning is career development. The career development of current and potential leaders is an essential element of more recent thinking on succession planning (Friedman
et al., 1998; Leibman et al., 1996). Both the organisation, and the individual employee need to take responsibility for aspects of career development. Career planning for an individual is the deliberate process of career choice, followed by career related choices made during employment. These include the identification of career opportunities, constraints, choices, and consequences; setting career goals; and ensuring that, as far as possible, work and education provide the appropriate experiences and qualifications to attain the career goals.

Organisational career development includes processes of human resource development and training that match employee capabilities and interests with organisational human resource needs. Organisational career development that incorporates both individual career planning and organisational career planning will have outcomes that are aligned with the organisation’s strategic plans, and provide growth for both the individual and the organisation (Hall, 1986a). Organisational career development planning focuses on ensuring that there will be a match between the career plans, interests, and capabilities of individual employees and specific organisational career opportunities (Gutteridge, 1986).

In a bureaucratic structure, line managers have a key role to play in career development (McDougall and Vaughan, 1996; Yarnall, 1998). Yarnall summarised the role of the line manager into three main categories: promoting career development concepts to their staff; spending time with staff individually on career development issues; and taking actions to further their staff’s development. Yarnall drew on existing literature to summarise the key elements under each category.

Promoting career development:
− Communicating the importance and meaning of career development
− Raising awareness of the benefits of career development
− Creating a climate suitable for development e.g. providing opportunities for staff to share learning experiences with their peers
− Encouraging the use of development resources

Spending time with staff individually on career development issues:
− Acting as a coach and counsellor
− Providing feedback on individual performance
− Providing information on future opportunities in the organisation
− Supporting individuals who are examining their career goals and plans
− Being a resource and source of ideas for development options
− Acting as a sounding board
− Setting realistic expectations

Taking actions to further their staff’s development:
− Championing career interests
− Redesigning jobs to create more challenging opportunities
− Reinforcing development through reward of staff (Yarnall, 1998:381)

If line managers are to take an active role in the career development of their team members, support from top management is imperative. However, studies show that it is difficult to gain the support of senior management (Yarnall, 1998:383). Career development is seen as too expensive, too time consuming. If the line manager is both coach and boss there are inherent conflicts. Where the manager influences salary and on-going employment, the employee is likely to be defensive towards coaching feedback. There is evidence to suggest that career satisfaction and effectiveness are influenced by the level of discussion on development an employee has with their manager (Colarelli and Bishop, 1990; Lee, 1971; Milliman, 1992) as cited by (Yarnall, 1998).

In most Australian schools, depending on the size, the principal or assistant principal is the teachers’ line manager. In Victorian government schools the principal generally takes on the responsibility for staff career development. Staff perceptions of the school leadership team’s support for professional growth of staff within the school is annually measured through a standardised Staff Opinion Survey (DoE, 1998a). The survey measures five scales; school morale, goal congruence, supportive leadership, professional interaction, and professional development. The professional development scale includes questions such as ‘I am encouraged to pursue professional development.’ ‘Others in the school take an active interest in my career development and professional growth.’ The scores for each scale are reported to the school community and the DE&T with comparisons made between the school results and statewide results. School leaders are expected to promote career development, spend time with staff individually on career development issues (or ensure that an appropriate line manager takes on this role), and take actions to further their staff’s development. In the HayGroup
(2000) report on the characteristics of outstanding school leaders, ‘Developing others’ was not identified as one of the key characteristics. While career development is a stated DE&T area of accountability for principals, the principals themselves do not appear to identify developing others as one of the characteristics of outstanding school leaders. Appraisal and feedback in Victorian government schools occurs via a mandated Professional Recognition Program (PRP). The quality and rigour of staff development discussions is dependent on the skill and commitment of the line manager, usually the principal or assistant principal. Principals in Victorian government schools have the responsibility for ongoing employment of staff, salary increments and bonuses gained through the performance management process (DEET, 2000a). This might be a possible source of role conflict as teachers are not likely to see this process as one of career development and feedback if it is linked to salary and/or ongoing employment. 

This research explored teacher perceptions of both individual and organisational career development. Early models of organisational career development did not recognise differences in career development theory between men and women (Burke and McKeen, 1994).

These differences began to emerge in research in the 1980s. Morrison, White and Van Velsor (1987), in a three year study of top women executives, identified six factors that specifically contributed to women’s success, and a further three factors that contributed to women managers’ failure to achieve expected promotional levels. Morrison et al. found that successful executive women had at least a few of the following success factors: help from above; a track record of achievements; desire to succeed; ability to manage subordinates; willingness to take career risks; and the ability to be tough, decisive, and demanding (Morrison, White and Van Velsor, 1987:24). The three factors that were common in explaining failure for some women to achieve expected levels were inability to adapt, wanting too much (for oneself or other women), and performance problems (Morrison et al., 1987:36). These women had plateaued careers, had been demoted, forced into early retirement, resigned, or their employment had been terminated. In addition, Morrison et al. (1987) found that women, more than men, needed help from above; needed to be easy to be with; and needed to be able to adapt. The same study found that women senior executives identified four critical work experiences: being
accepted by their organisations; receiving support and encouragement; being given training and development opportunities; and being offered challenging work and visible assignments. In further research Morrison conducted a series of follow-up interviews and developed a model for successful career development (Morrison, 1992). Morrison found that successful career development includes a balance between three key elements – challenge, recognition and support (Morrison, 1992:59). The model assumes that to sustain development, all three elements must be present in relative proportions over time. Morrison found that in reality imbalances regularly occur, particularly for non white female managers. Typically challenge, particularly for women, overwhelms the other two elements. Additional challenges faced by women include prejudice, increased visibility, and conflicts between career and personal life. They needed to be able to cope with the hostility of co-workers, superiors, and subordinates who resented their advice, interventions, and sometimes even their presence. Women were expected to perform at a higher level than men holding the same position. The burden of representing the minority group while performing their jobs, and their higher visibility than males increased pressure and provided an additional challenge. More women than men experience increased challenges associated with balancing career and family demands. In an attempt to increase diversity in the workplace, organisations make the mistake of increasing the challenges faced by non-traditional managers until they burn-out, or conversely, protecting them from overwhelming challenges, potentially contributing to failure (Morrison, 1992). Morrison warns against falling into the trap of protecting non-traditional managers by providing them with less challenging jobs. Morrison suggests that instead of making a job less demanding one alternative is to reduce the demands from other sources, and provide benefit packages that allow employees to fulfil personal/family obligations while pursing their career (Morrison, 1992:67).

Recognition comes in many forms including remuneration, promotion, and perquisites such as car, payment of school fees, autonomy, and resources. Morrison notes the reluctance to give non-traditional managers the same authority rewards as received by their male colleagues (Morrison, 1992). For women, recognition also involves organisations acknowledging and adjusting to the additional challenges faced by
women because they are women (Burke and McKeen, 1994). Morrison found that women need support systems to cope with the additional demands that they face. This support includes mentors, sponsors, information feedback, and networks, as well as organisational and society supports for dual career couples. The importance of mentors to successful corporate mangers has been well documented (Bellamy and Ramsay, 1994; Crampton and Mishra, 1999; Ehrich, 1995; Gupton and Slick, 1996; Inman, 1998; Scanlon, 1997; Sinclair, 1998).

Burke and McKeen (1994) in a study conducted based on Morrison’s model of career development, confirmed that challenge, recognition and support were equally necessary for sustained career development. Morrison (1992) had found that for women an imbalance typically occurred when the level of challenge exceeded the other two aspects. Burke’s study extended this finding to include a difference between women with family responsibilities, and women without family responsibilities. Burke’s study found that managerial women with family responsibilities wanted developmental opportunities and organisational initiatives characterised by greater flexibility and fewer demands. Women without family responsibilities wanted developmental opportunities and organisational initiatives characterised by challenge and geographical mobility (Burke and McKeen, 1994).

In an organisation the size of the DE&T with a teaching staff of approximately 40,000 at 1630 work locations (Evans, 2001), succession planning needs to occur at a central and local level. As stated earlier, principals have the responsibility for the recruitment and selection of staff as for well as providing career development (DEET, 2000a). Schools, however, are not required to develop a workforce plan (Auditor General, 2001). The Auditor General’s report into School Workforce Planning found that:

Over twenty per cent of large schools and nearly fifty per cent of small schools had no written workforce plan (Auditor General, 2001:75)

This research provided an understanding of the succession planning processes, particularly career development processes within the DE&T at a central level, and at an individual school level.

**Principal selection procedures**

Prior to 1984 for secondary schools and 1985 for primary schools, Victorian principals were appointed to schools according to seniority. Application was made
on a form to a centralised Committee of Classifiers. The selection process varied between the three school divisions that existed at this time. In the Primary division, the most qualified person on the promotions list was appointed. In the Secondary division, the Committee of Classifiers took into consideration the seniority on the Promotions List and aptitude as assessed by the Secondary Assessment Panel. The most senior efficient applicant was appointed. In the Technical division, the Committee of Classifiers provided the School Council with a list of applicants who met the requirements of eligibility. The school council met and made a short list which was forwarded to the Committee of Classifiers. The Committee of Classifiers reviewed the council’s list, and took into account factors such as the nature of duties to be performed, the special qualifications required by the applicant to perform the duties, the applicant’s length of service, and the preferences of the applicant, before making a decision (Chapman, 1984:8).

In the primary and secondary divisions, the selection criteria comprised seniority on the Classified Roll, possession of requisite qualifications, and assessment of aptitude or suitability made by a panel. In the technical division no specific criteria were documented but personal qualities, educational competence, organisational abilities, and successful performance were usually considered (Chapman, 1984:13).

Support for the introduction of local selection of principals and assistant principals in schools emerged in the late 1970s under a Coalition government. Initial moves towards local selection can be found in a Interim Working Party document, A Recommendation for the Restructuring of School Staffing within the Primary Division, (August 1978) which stated:

3.22. The existing system does not match principal applicants with the specific requirements of schools.

9.42. A Staffing Advisory Board should be established in each school, initially to recommend the nature of each school’s staffing requirements to discharge its policy and aspirations.

In the appointment of new principals where the staff and school council agree, the Staffing Committee would have the opportunity to express a preference from a limited number of senior applicants provided by the Committee of Classifiers (DoE, 1978:9)

In late 1979, the Minister of Education, Alan Hunt, issued a Ministerial Statement outlining the need for ‘a major review of education policies in Victoria with an emphasis first upon aims and objectives’. (Hunt and
Lacy, 1979:1). One of the listed objectives for education and the community was:

To decentralise the administration of education wherever appropriate to allow local communities as far as possible to share the responsibility and accountability for local educational policy and for decision making in local schools. (Hunt and Lacy, 1979)

This statement established local decision making initiatives as government policy. The subsequent Green Paper (1980) suggested that if effective decision-making was to occur in schools:

one possibility would be that appointments to schools should increasingly be made at the local level. ... Local participation in the selection of key teaching staff could also be expected to increase the harmony and cooperation between school council, principal and staff. (Hunt and Lacy, 1979:21)

Publication of a White Paper on Strategies and Structures for Education in Victorian Government Schools (1980) followed the release of the Green Paper. This paper was unequivocal about community involvement in the selection of principals.

The government will make available to each school council the opportunity of being involved in the selection of the principal and vice principal. (Hunt and Lacy, 1980:39)

These proposals did not have the universal support of all teachers. The union supported by the majority of primary teachers, the Victorian Teachers’ Union (VTU) was antagonistic towards these initiatives, and union policy continued to be the retention of central appointment for all positions within the Department. This attitude remained until a change in government in 1982 (West, 1987).

Following the election of a Labor government in 1982, the new Minister of Education, Robert Fordham reported to parliament that:

I am finalizing the appointment of a review team to examine current procedures for the selection of school principals. Under current arrangements we have a de facto seniority system and I believe it necessary that we take steps to ensure that our selection procedures are in fact based on merit and compatibility with the school communities concerned. (Fordham, 1982:3)

In 1983, the government published a series of Ministerial Papers outlining its key policies concerning the operation of the education system. In the final paragraphs of Ministerial Paper Number 4 – School Councils, local selection of principals was identified as an area of future development:

A further development under consideration is the involvement of school communities in the selection process of the school principal. The Government has requested the
State Board of Education to consult appropriate organisations, and to report to it on this matter as soon as possible. (State Board of Education, 1983)
The newly-created State Board of Education made its recommendations in a Report on the Role of School Councils in the Selection of Principals (1983). They recommended that:

... school councils are best able to determine which of the eligible applicants best meets the specific requirements of the school. (State Board of Education, 1983:7)

The report went on to recommend the ‘participation of school councils in the selection of principals beginning with vacancies occurring in the 1984 school year.’ The Board recommended that selection processes proposed for principals apply to all deputy and vice principal positions in post-primary (secondary and technical) schools. An interim scheme was proposed for school council participation in the selection of principals for primary and appropriate special schools for 1984, with full introduction for these schools in 1985. An agreement was reached with the primary section of the Teachers’ Federation of Victoria and the Education Department regarding the career structure for primary schools, and the local selection of principals (West, 1987:16).

With the introduction of local selection of principals and assistant principals, when a vacancy occurred school councils developed a short statement regarding the advertised vacancy for inclusion in the Education Gazette. A school council selection sub-committee was formed to set criteria, shortlist applicants, conduct the interviews, and make priority-listed recommendations to the school council. The composition of the selection sub-committee comprised the school council president or nominee, two parents, two teachers, a principal, a nominee of the then Director General of Education, and a nominee of a teacher organisation. The candidate lodged an application with the school council president. The application contained relevant personal information, addressed key selection criteria, and provided the names of three referees. The referees could be asked to provide a written reference to the candidate’s experience, qualities, and ability to meet the key selection criteria for the position. The short-listed applicants attended an interview. Following the interview, the selection sub-committee compiled a priority list of acceptable candidates based on all three aspects of the process - application, interview, and referee reports.
In July 1985, only a year after the new selection procedures had been introduced, the State Board of Education published a review of the procedure (State Board of Education, 1985). The review noted that all school councils who were eligible to use the new selection procedures had elected to do so. These councils reported that they felt that they were quite able to implement the new procedures. The principal class selection procedures remained largely unchanged until 1993 following a further change in government to a Coalition government.

A detailed study of the application and selection processes, panel composition, and selection criteria from 1993, provides some insight into the daunting nature of the application and selection process (d'Arbon, 2000; DEET, 2000; DoE, 1997, 1998b, 1999; DSE, 1995, 1993). From 1993 onwards, the application process followed the same format. Candidates provided the council president with a written application addressing key selection criteria. They also nominated referees to support their application. From 1993 selection panels were also able to contact people other than those nominated by the applicant. From this time written and/or verbal references were acceptable. The panel composition was reduced significantly to four members. These included the council president (not a Department of Education employee) or nominee, a parent or co-opted member of council (again not a Department employee), the Director of Education’s nominee, and a principal nominated and accredited by the Merit Protection Board. The panel was to include at least one member of each gender. The panel composition has remained unchanged since 1993.

In 1993 and 1995, the Principal Selection Guidelines included three statements regarding selection processes based on ‘Merit and Equity’ (DSE, 1993). The first of these asked that ‘strong consideration be given to interviewing women applicants where they are qualified and meet the selection criteria’ (DSE, 1993:21). The second statement asked that panel members ensured that they did not discriminate against candidates. The guidelines went on to describe how women who are more likely to have broken service due to family commitments might be discriminated against. The third statement regarding merit and equity, related to interview styles. Advice was provided concerning likely differences between male and female interview styles. From 1997, the Merit and Equity guidelines changed. Since this time panel members have been
warned against discrimination during the short-listing 
process. There is no longer a direct reference to 
discriminating against women. The second statement 
advices panels ‘to be aware of the diverse pathways of 
experience and approaches which women, people of 
different cultural and racial backgrounds and people 
with a disability bring to the interview and to the 
workplace.’ (DoE, 1997). The final statement reminds 
panel members to focus on ‘abilities, skills, knowledge, 
potential and qualifications required for the position, 
not seniority, length of experience or familiarity with 
the position.’ (DoE, 1997:14). These statements are the 
only reference to selection based on suitability for the 
job rather than seniority. Panel members are 
encouraged to attend training sessions where it is 
possible to discuss selection based on merit in more 
detail but attendance at these training sessions is not 
compulsory.

In 1993, the Principal Selection Guidelines stated that:

*In developing criteria school councils should ensure that the 
following key areas are included for assessment: these 
being the core elements forming the basis for appropriate 
selection:*

- Educational leadership;
- Financial, managerial and administrative ability;
- Planning, policy and program development and 
  review;
- Support for staff and students;
- Interpersonal and communication skills. (DSE, 
  1993)

The guidelines provided examples of selection criteria 
that schools could use unaltered or modify at the 
discretion of the council.

Significant changes occurred to the selection criteria in 
1995. The core elements remained but they now 
appeared as a set of twelve key areas that were required 
to be included. The selection criteria that had to be 
addressed by candidates now included:

1. An outstanding capacity for visionary and 
evaluative educational leadership of a school or college.
2. Exemplary values appropriate to the 
development of student learning.
3. Exemplary values pertaining to personal 
qualities of objectivity, sensitivity and integrity.
4. A highly successful record of achievement of 
leadership in a school or college.
5. Demonstrated exemplary organisation 
management and decision-making skills.
6. Demonstrated ability to contribute to and 
implement Directorate of School Education policies to a 
high level.
7. Highly developed interpersonal and communication skills in individual, small group and community contexts.
8. Demonstrated capacity to deliver improved student learning.
9. A highly developed capacity to motivate staff, develop their talents and build an effective team.
10. An ability to work with parents and the community to develop a strong learning environment.
11. Highly developed skills in leading and managing change including the leadership of others in the process of change.
12. Demonstrated capacity to foster a learning environment that takes account of the individual needs of students and helps students to develop their special abilities and talents. (DSE, 1995)

The guidelines suggested ‘It might be considered appropriate to advertise a principal class position with between six and eight selection criteria. In this case consideration should be given to compressing the twelve key areas into, for instance six criteria’ (DSE, 1993). This was to be achieved by joining criteria with the use of the word ‘and’. The number of criteria that candidates were required to address had not, in effect, been reduced. These complex and detailed twelve selection criteria remained unchanged until 1999.

In 1995, for the first and only time, the guidelines were for Principal Class Selection rather than just Principal Selection. This included guidelines for the panel composition for an assistant principal but no specific selection criteria for the assistant principal position. The selection panel did not include school council representation.

Guidelines for Principal Selection were published in 1997 and 1998. These guidelines remained unchanged from the 1995 guidelines with the exception of reference to selection processes for assistant principals. From 1997 onwards the guidelines contain a statement that ‘school councils are no longer responsible for the selection of assistant principals’ (DEET, 2000; DoE, 1997, 1998b, 1999).

In 1999, the selection criteria were revised. The five core elements remained unchanged. The selection criteria were now grouped against the five core elements. Eight of the previous twelve criteria were unchanged. One new criterion appeared, and the remaining two new criteria included elements of the four remaining criteria from the previous set. For the first time ‘outstanding financial skills’ was specifically mentioned as a selection criterion. ‘An understanding
of, and a commitment to, the use of learning technologies to improve teaching and learning’ (DoE, 1999:4) appeared as new selection criterion. These eleven selection criteria, along with the panel composition and application and selection processes, remain unchanged as of July 2002. From the introduction of local selection for principals in 1984/5, the process has remained relatively unchanged. However, the selection criteria have become increasingly complex, and it would appear somewhat daunting in scope.

This study examined the perceptions of the application and selection process for the principal position from the point of view of current principals, assistant principals aspirants, and non-aspirants to principal positions. The study examined if the application process itself is a disincentive to promotion.

Changes in the principal role

Researchers and educational writers have been mapping changes in the principal role over at least the previous twenty years (Caldwell, 1992; Copland, 2001; d’Arbon, 2000; Day et al., 2000; Macbeath, Moos and Riley, 1996; Murphy and Hallinger, 1992). Murphy and Hallinger provide an overview of changes in the educational environment throughout the world in the 1980s and early 1990s (1992). They described six forces for reform that were exerting pressure on school systems.

1. Education became increasingly important. As societies moved from the industrial to the information era the importance of education for all citizens intensified.
2. Schools were being asked to take on the challenge of restoring the community’s competitive edge.
3. The student population changed. The types of students, for whom schools had traditionally been least successful - linguistically different, low income, racial and ethnic minorities - increased.
4. The political landscape changed. The notions of grassroots democracy and public participation experienced renewed interest. People expected and demanded an increased voice in governance.
5. Society became increasingly de-bureauracratized. Communities became increasingly intolerant of bureaucracies, particularly in human service organisations.
6. Problems were decentralised. Responsibility for deep-seated problems was passed on to others. (Murphy and Hallinger, 1992)
The principal role continued to change creating a number of paradoxes or tensions for principals responsible for the implementations of government reform. Day, Hadfield, Harris, Tolley and Beresford (2000:13) in an intensive study of twelve primary and secondary schools from a variety of contexts, noted that principals and teachers in the UK were currently working with a number of reform. They identified five in particular which are equally applicable to the Victorian government school context. These paradoxes include:

- An apparent increase in independence in the management of schools along side increasing dependence upon curriculum, monitoring, assessment and inspection frameworks imposed by government;
- A performance of results orientation which has the potential to create divisiveness;
- New forms of accountability which are intended to enhance effectiveness; but which simultaneously increase workload and bureaucracy;
- New imposed curriculum certainties which reduce teachers’ abilities to recognise and act upon differentiated student need;
- Increased attention to cognitive challenge which reduces attention to emotional need (Day et al., 2000:14)

These changes in the educational environment have had a profound impact on the role of the principal. The expectations of principals have not so much changed as expanded as more and more reforms have been introduced (Copland, 2001). Principals are now expected to be visionary leaders who build a community of learners, share decision making, broaden involvement of the wider community, ensure learning is maximised for every student, integrate new technologies, develop staff, and be accountable for the results to a range of audiences (Copland, 2001). These wide-ranging and complex expectations for principals in the UK and the USA are reflected in the selection criteria for principal appointments to Victorian government schools (DEET, 2000). As noted earlier, the selection criteria have not so much changed but have been constantly expanded.

The current role and accountabilities statement for principals as published in the Principal Selection Guidelines (2000) state that:

*The role of the principal is to lead and manage the planning, delivery, evaluation and improvement of the education of all students in a community through the deployment of resources provided by the Department of Education Employment and Training and the school community.* (DEET, 2000:18)
This document then states that principals have a clear set of accountabilities in relation to the operation of the school, and lists nine core areas of accountability. The document details the functions under each of these accountability areas. In total there are fifty-three functions for which the principal is accountable. The guidelines state that the principal may not be responsible for carrying out each function. This study examined the perceptions of staff and principals of the principal’s ability to delegate accountability functions. The perceptions of staff and principals in small schools, where all staff except the principal had a full teaching load, was noted in particular.

Principals now need highly developed competencies across a wide range of leadership facets. McKeith (2000) used Sergiovanni’s leadership model to study what school councillors expect of principals (Sergiovanni, 1984). He found that councillors consistently listed almost all of the fifty responsibilities identified in a survey to be the prime responsibility of the principal (McKeith, 2000). Day et al.’s study also noted the wide range of competencies that parents and school governors perceived in effective principals. Parents and governors ‘recognised the complexity and demands of the Headteacher’s role in the current context of rapid economic, social and educational change’ (Day et al., 2000:108). Principals of schools in the next ten years will be faced with a possible redefinition of schools and schooling, and the impact of technology on models of learning (d’Arbon, 2000).

While the average age of teachers in the principal class in Victoria in 2002 was 49.7 years (DE&T, March 2002 Payroll analysis), many principals reach their first principalship in their thirties and early forties. For some principals this could mean 20-25 years in the principal role before retirement. In 1990, Evetts (1992) conducted career history interviews with twenty Headteachers in two educational authorities in the UK. She found that both age and gender were significant in the differences among the headteachers regarding their own future careers. Male headteachers in their forties and early fifties expressed greatest concern for their future careers. Not surprisingly, little or no concern was expressed by recently appointed heads (fewer than 5-6 years), those anticipating retirement, those who still saw a challenge in their current school, and those who had strong interests beyond their school either inside or outside education. The group that expressed concerns recognised that in all probability they would remain in
their present position for the remainder of their working careers. They saw little opportunity for the transfer of the skills that they had gained as principals across educational sectors. Evetts believed that without a career structure some Heads could lose commitment and enthusiasm for their work (Evetts, 1992:47).

**External factors**

Teachers, like employees in all organisations, are affected by the broader political, social, and economic environment in which they operate. Legislative changes, the politicisation of education, and community perceptions of schools, and teachers impact on teachers’ career aspirations. A number of writers have commented in recent years on the affect of the growing politicisation of schools and school systems (d'Arbon, 2000; Dinham and Scott, 2000a; Doud and Keller, 1998; Senate Employment Education and Training References Committee, 1998). Dinham comments that the restructuring of schools and school systems is following a private sector model. The assumption has been made that public schools ought to resemble private schools. Education has become part of the movement to sell assets, forcing public institutions to operate in a kind of free market (Dinham and Scott, 2000a; Murphy and Forsyth, 1999b).

In 1998, in a study of American elementary school principals, Doud and Keller found a shift in the locus of control from a centralised bureaucracy to the school and district level (Doud and Keller, 1998). Dinham reiterates this finding in his research in Australian schools. The power of citizens within the local community is increasing, conversely diminishing the power of educational professionals. The marketplace is now a powerful player in the life of a school. Parent choice determines school enrolment numbers, which in turn affects funding, which in turn affects staffing and program provision. Teachers recognise the importance of political debate on educational issues but strongly object to the way that they are perceived by politicians, who treat them and schools ‘as scapegoats for society’s failures’ (Senate Employment Education and Training References Committee, 1998:96). As professionals, teachers would like to enter into the political debate on education issues and resent being banned from doing so.

*Teachers resent the ban on political comment on educational issues which is in force in some States and Territories. They see it as undermining their professionalism to the extent that is prevents them publicly discussing an issue of major importance about which they have first hand knowledge — our schools- and thus deprives the community of a significant source of information about the impact of recent changes on the operation of schools. (Senate Employment Education and Training References Committee, 1998:101)*

Schools and teachers are operating in a changing social environment. Schools often provide the only stable
environment in a child’s life. Teachers and principals are taking increasing responsibility for functions previously performed by families, the community, and church organisations (Senate Employment Education and Training References Committee, 1998:132). Students and their families frequently rely on teachers and principals to provide a welfare role as well as an instructional role (d'Arbon, 2000). The challenge for some schools is to ensure that this welfare role does not engulf the primary function of schools – teaching. Alongside the community support role played by schools is the increasingly litigious nature of some school communities including parents, staff, and students (d'Arbon, 2000). This trend is a concern for principals and aspiring principals. Australia, like most other nations, is moving from an industrial economic model to an information economy. Key aspects of this shift include the globalisation of economic activity, the demise of mass production, the widespread use of information technology, and an emphasis on the service dimensions of the market (Murphy, 1998). Schools, including government schools, are marketing themselves globally. International students now form a significant income stream for a number of schools. Schools are also seeing ways of using the internet to provide on-line learning for international students and Australian students travelling and studying offshore. There is a growing emphasis on marketing and fund raising at the school level (Senate Employment Education and Training References Committee, 1998:133). The need to increase the level of locally raised funds puts increased pressure on teachers and principals, and again takes time away from their core purpose – teaching and educational leadership.

This study explored the perceived impact of external factors on teachers’ leadership aspirations. A review of the literature has revealed that teachers’ leadership aspirations are influenced by their personal life situation, organisational succession planning processes, changes in their role and external conditions. As stated earlier, the researcher contends that work motivation can have an impact on career and life planning factors. This research explored these links.

In the following, and final, section of the Literature Review, the researcher discusses in detail the impact of the third aspect of the conceptual framework through which career leadership aspirations have been explored - values.

Values

As the diagram of the Conceptual Framework (see page 18) illustrates, values form the third factor impacting on career leadership aspirations. Individual, personal, and organisational values have an impact on each of the other two factors – work motivation and career and life planning.
Although achievement of consensus on the nature and function of values is yet to be reached, the work of Rokeach has influenced a number of current writers in this field. A value system is a learned organisation of principles and rules to help one choose between alternatives, resolve conflict, and make decisions. (Rokeach, 1973:14). Values have a strong motivational component. Rokeach states that values are motivational because they represent the super goals beyond the immediate, biologically urgent goals, ‘we seem forever doomed to strive for these ultimate goals without ever reaching them’ (Rokeach, 1973:14).

Values, like all beliefs, have cognitive, affective and behavioural components (Rokeach, 1973:14). Values play a central role in decision-making because they are the basis of goal setting. Locke and Latham saw strong links between motivation, goals, and values. What an individual wants to preserve and/or attain is closely linked to their values (Thierry, 1998). The values reflect what is important to the individual. The goals that people set are a way of achieving these values. Values are also beliefs about what means and ends are desirable or undesirable, preferable or not preferable (Kouzes and Posner, 1993:60). Personal values, and perceptions of organisational values, have an affect on an individual’s career and life planning.

Values form the guiding principles with respect to the personal and social ends that we desire (Kouzes and Posner, 1993). Brown developed a career choice and development model based on research by Rokeach. Brown’s model supports the contention that the congruence between the values of the individual and the organisation positively influenced work attitudes. Brown also stated that a number of researchers found that workers were more satisfied when their values were consistent with those of their supervisor (Brown, 1996:355).

This research explored the impact of the congruence between the values of the individual and the perceived values of the organisation on leadership aspirations.

It is only recently that leadership and management research has considered organisational values. The culture of an organisation impacts on employees. Organisational culture defines the conduct within an organisation, and what is, and is not, valued. These values define the perception of success. The corresponding behaviours often include working long hours, competitiveness, and putting work above other demands such as family. These values and behaviours “which some authors define as being masculine, have come to dominate organisations for historical and socio-economic reasons but are increasingly being challenged by women, and men, who want to ‘work to live’ rather than ‘live to work’”(Loughlin, 2000).

A number of studies have illustrated the influence of values on leadership (Burke, 2001; Day et al., 2000; England and Lee, 1974; Pang, 1996; Russell, 2001). Begley found that most administrators readily acknowledge the impact that values have on educational practices (Begley, 1996). Begley justifies further research into the nature and function of values in educational administration. He states
that leadership and administration involves decision-making that, in
turn, involves values. Schools exist within a pluralistic society in
which the social conditions have lead to an increase in the frequency
of value conflicts to which administrators must respond. Principals
need to be aware of the difference between the articulated values and
the values to which individuals and groups are actually committed.
They need to be aware of their own relatively fixed and unnegotiable
core values that may be incompatible with organisational or
community values. School leaders are more effective when they can
understand and interpret the actions of others. This requires principals
to be able to recognise the sources and causes of value conflicts.
Principals are increasingly required to mediate value conflicts. When
playing this role principals need to be able to distinguish between
personal, professional, organisational and social values (Begley,
In the 1998 study of effective school leadership commissioned by the
National Association of Headteachers, Day et al. (2000) found that
effective leadership demands a set of core values and ability to
exercise balance in practice between a sense of vision, high
achievement expectations, and a commitment to capacity building
among staff. Day, et al. identified that the vision and practices of
heads were organised around a number of core personal values that
linked their personal and professional lives. These values were
primarily moral, (dedicated to the welfare of staff and students) rather
than instrumental (economic) or non-educative.
A clash between personal and institutional values was one source of
tension for leaders. The head is committed to setting and embedding
institutional values. Tension arises when the values are not shared or
are imposed from outside (Day et al., 2000:143). There was little
evidence in Day et al. ’s study of opposing values within a school but
tensions did arise when outside values were imposed upon schools.
An example provided, was the imposition of externally driven
accountability, effectiveness, and efficiency measures. Heads in the
study had clear and strongly held values. They recognised the
irreconcilable tensions created by competing values from outside the
school. They managed the required changes with integrity and skill,
integrating these into their vision for the school.

*The heads had not become subcontractors unthinking links in a chain leading from those who develop policy to those who receive it. Nor were they subversives, attempting to undermine authority of policy imperatives. Rather, they managed changes with integrity and skill, integrating them into vision, values and practices of their schools. (Day and Harris, 2001:44)*

Nonetheless, a clash between personal and organisational values was
one of the major sources of tension (Day et al., 2000:135). One
principal described the competing values from outside the school as an
‘inevitable tension’. These effective principals had found ways to
maintain their personal values while implementing policies from a
seemingly opposing set of values. The deputies and teachers
interviewed in the study shared the view that the core values of their
principal directly contributed to the principal’s success. Day et al.’s
study reveals the strong connection between effectiveness of leaders,
and their ability to manage the possible tensions caused by competing
sets of values from both within and external to the school.
This study explored the affect of the perception of competing values on
leadership aspirations.

Organisational values and women’s values
Organisational values define what is important to the
organisation by creating norms of behaviour. It has been
argued that these values and behaviours create a male
dominated work culture that is in conflict with many women’s
values (Cornelius, 1998; McKenna, 1997; Sinclair, 1998).
Maddock and Parkin also contend that organisational cultures
are gendered and influence both women and men’s
expectations of themselves and of each other (1994:29).
Maddock and Parkin identified examples of different types of
gendered cultures apparent in British public authorities in the
early 1990s. They found that women tend to be more aware of
the impact of gender culture at work because they were more
aware of how it restricts their behaviour. Their study revealed
that the gendered cultures that they identified tended to fall into
one of two groups. The first group of cultures, the more
traditional gendered cultures, all reflect the view that men and
women are fundamentally different, and have different roles in
society. The second more recently developed group of
cultures, show how the dynamic of gender relations persist
even when participants proclaim that men and women are equal
and no different in their capabilities. Two examples of these
more recent cultures include the gender-blind and smart-macho
cultures. Gender-blind people make no reference to the
colleague’s home life or personal experiences. This culture
ignores the fact that domestic responsibilities and social
realities affect the choices that women make. The smart macho
culture encourages economic efficiency. This culture
courages competitiveness and discriminates against those
who cannot work at the same pace and/or those who challenge
economic criteria. While on the surface this culture appears
not to be gendered, it is a more ruthless form of gender-
blindness. It rewards those who work hard, fast, and long
hours. Maddock and Parkin believe this type of culture is
being challenged by both older men and women. They contend
that a more gender sensitive perspective would acknowledge
that women are different to men in the actual condition of their
lives, and in many characteristics, but in others are similar
(Maddock and Parkin, 1994:30).
Burke also explored the impact of organisational values on
work policies and practices through a study of 1600+ male and
female workers in a professional services firm. His findings
confirm Maddock and Parkin’s explanation of a smart macho
culture and its affect on women in particular. He found that the
values associated with high performance, high involvement
workplaces make it more difficult for employees to find a balance in their work lives. He states that ‘this raises the possibility that, for some firms, the values that are being espoused may be creating conflict for particular employees’ (Burke, 1997:255).

To succeed, many women and increasing numbers of men, believe that they have to put aside values and behaviours that they consider important in defining who they are (Loughlin, 2000:20). In a study of 251 professional women, Burke found that women reporting organisational values that were more supportive of personal work life balance also reported higher levels of job and career satisfaction. While the study did not refer directly to promotion aspiration, these women reported less intention to leave (Burke, 2001). The culture of the organisation is underpinned by values that can affect women negatively. Women can be forced to put aside their own values and play down family commitments (Loughlin, 2000:21).

**The impact of individual and organisational values on teachers’ leadership aspirations**

If we accept the research findings that effective leaders are guided by a strong set of personal values, organisations such as the DE&T may well be losing a number of potential leadership aspirants through the belief that the organisation does not share their personal values such as work-personal life balance. In many circumstances the organisational culture may need to change in order to gain positive acceptance of family friendly policies (Burke, 2001; Grandey, 2000).

*This study examined the impact of a perceived lack of alignment between personal and organisational values and the impact of this mis-alignment on career aspirations.*

As indicated by the conceptual framework presented on page 18, the researcher also contends that an alignment (or lack of alignment) between individual and organisational values has an impact on teachers’ career decisions and leadership aspirations. The researcher believes that this alignment, or lack thereof, can also influence work motivation and career and life planning factors. *This study explored these links.*

The final section of this chapter reviews the literature on strategies that have been used to attract teachers to the principal role, and strategies to used retain current principals.

**Finding solutions**

To ensure an adequate supply of the best candidates for the principal role, it is important to understand the factors that influence teachers’ career decisions and aspirations, and also to understand the strategies that will attract and prepare aspirants, and develop and retain current principals.

*This research has contributed to this understanding by identifying specific factors that impact positively and/or negatively on principal level leadership aspirations. This research also increased the understanding of the perceived effectiveness of current strategies used to attract and prepare aspirants, and those strategies currently used to develop and retain current principals.*
In the past writers have made recommendations on strategies to make the job more attractive and thus increase the pool of applicants; and on strategies to develop and retain current leaders which will in turn maximise the pool of experienced principal leaders.

**Attracting applicants to the principal role**

The principal role can be made more attractive to prospective applicants by increasing the perceived incentives, and decreasing the disincentives for promoting into the role. In a study of deputy headteachers who have decided not to apply for promotion to headteacher, James and Whiting (1998) found that the role of headteacher in the UK was not seen as sufficiently appealing by deputy headteachers to be an incentive to seek promotion. The headteacher role was seen as too broad, and required public accountability and disclosure of mistakes, whereas their current position provided them with sufficient challenge and continued contact with children (James and Whiting, 1998b).

It has been suggested that to make the job of headteacher more appealing, opportunities need to be provided for aspirants to learn about the challenges and opportunities that the job provides (ERS, 2000). Currently the job is seen as unattractive. These opportunities could involve shadowing, mentoring, and internships (Shakeshaft, 1989). Teachers perceive that the principal role would reduce their contact with students, and they see this as undesirable (d’Arbon, 2000; Shakeshaft, 1989).

This study compared principal comments on their contact with children and the teaching and learning program with teachers’ perceptions of the principal’s role. This study also compared the perceptions of the appeal of the principal role to teachers who were not principals and had never been principals, either in an acting or permanent role, with teachers who were currently principals, had been principals in the past, or had acted in the role.

For some teachers, particularly women, leadership aspirations remain dormant until someone else suggests they take up a leadership role (Shakeshaft, 1999, 1989). Igniting leadership aspirations appears to be an important component in increasing the number of candidates for the principal role.

This study examined the influence of shadowing, mentoring and acting in the role in developing and igniting leadership aspirations.

Issues relating to confidence and promotion aspirations, particularly for woman are evident in research from both the USA (Shakeshaft, 1993) and the UK (Coleman, 2001; Hall, 1996). Women expect to have all the competencies outlined in the position statement or key selection criteria before application, whereas men are confident to apply with only some of the qualifications and experiences (Shakeshaft, 1993). Women’s lack of confidence seems to prevent them from
aspiring to principal positions as early in their careers as men (Gold, 1996).

_This study examined the issues relating to women’s confidence to apply for principal positions._

Leadership development programs are one strategy that has been suggested to increase teachers’ confidence to apply for leadership positions (d’Arbon, 2000; ERS, 2000; Shakeshaft, 1989, 1988; Whitaker, 1996). Many of these programs have been designed to address the specific barriers to women who wish to take up senior leadership positions in schools (ERS, 2000).

_This study examined teacher’s access to, and benefit from participating in leadership development programs._

An inadequate salary, when compared to the level of responsibility, has been noted as a source of dissatisfaction for principals, and a disincentive to promotion (ERS, 2000; Hill, 1994a; Johnson and Holdaway, 1990; Van Cooley and Jianping Shen, 1999). However, salary is not evident as a strong source of satisfaction for principals or as an incentive to promote to principal (ERS, 2000; Graham and Messner, 1998; Hill, 1994a; Johnson and Holdaway, 1990). Differences in attitudes towards salary between males and females is evident, although research shows a lack of consistency in these differences (Graham and Messner, 1998; Hill, 1994a). While it is recognised that an inadequate salary for the position is a disincentive to promote, Crow (1989) notes that incentive packages need to move beyond a single enticement such as financial rewards. Potential aspirants are influenced by a number of factors, relating to the work itself, and the impact of the role expectations on their life (Crow, 1989).

_This study examined the importance of salary as an incentive or disincentive to promote to principal._

A number of writers have recommended strategies that could be introduced to make the principal role less unattractive. These strategies generally relate to the need to establish reasonable job expectations and redefining the job (Copland, 2001; d’Arbon, 2000; ERS, 2000; Van Cooley and Jianping Shen, 1999; Whitaker, 1996)]. While many aspects of the role provide high levels of job satisfaction (Graham and Messner, 1998; Johnson and Holdaway, 1991; Johnson and Holdaway, 1990) ways need to be found to decrease the sources of the dissatisfaction (Graham and Messner, 1998; Johnson and Holdaway, 1991; Johnson and Holdaway, 1990). A recurring theme in the literature relating to sources of dissatisfaction for principals is the impact that the job has on the principal’s family life (Copland, 2001; ERS, 2000; Van Cooley and Jianping Shen, 1999). Copland states that we need to dispel the myth that the principal should be all things to all people (Copland, 2001). d’Arbon also recommends redefining the principal role. He comments that the principal should be
allowed to be an educational leader rather than, as is the case in many schools currently, being submerged in the administrative aspects of the role (d'Arbon, 2000).

This study examined perceptions of the sources and levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction for principals and assistant principals, and the impact that these perceptions have on leadership aspirations. The study also examined the perceived impact of the principal role on aspirants' family lives, and the effect of these perceptions on their leadership aspirations.

If young, generation X teachers move jobs and change careers as frequently as predicted (Jurkiewicz, 2000; Wah, 2000), there will be a reduced pool of principal aspirants available as there will be fewer experienced middle managers in schools.

This study explored the career intentions of young teachers. Finally, in order to increase the pool of high quality candidates for the principal role, it is important to understand the effectiveness of programs that influence the retention of current principals.

**Retaining current principals**

Retention of current leaders poses a challenge to the DE&T, due to the high numbers of principal class resignations predicted to occur as teachers reach fifty-four years of age. The DE&T currently has no data on the retirement/resignation plans of principals.

This research provided data on the resignation and retirement plans of teachers, assistant principals, and principals.

The nature of the work, the working conditions, the impact that the role has on the principal’s home life, and salary level, are perceived to be disincentives to current principals (d'Arbon, 2000; ERS, 2000; Van Cooley and Jianping Shen, 1999) and as such could be viewed as factors affecting the retention rate of current principals and assistant principals. Work/life balance policies are an example of a strategy that has been introduced in an attempt to provide greater flexibility in the workplace, and so reduce the impact of work on family and personal life. Research indicates that, in reality senior managers have limited access to these programs (Drago et al., 2000; Loughlin, 2000; Rapoport and Bailyn, 1996; Scheibl and Dex, 1998). The DE&T has introduced work/life balance policies at all levels (DEET, 1998) and is thus, in principle, available to principals.

To increase the understanding of the links between retention and work/life balance conflicts, this study examined perceptions of access to, and the potential benefits of, work/life balance policies to senior school leaders within the DE&T.

Job sharing is another strategy that has been suggested to manage work/life conflict (Cox, 1996). This strategy has been used to a very limited extent both inside (Gordon and Meadows, 1986; Muffs and Schmitz, 1999) and outside education (Lubchenco and Menge, 1993; Meier and Meagher,
Examples of job-sharing include time-sharing where two principals divide the day or year between them, or co-principalship where two principals share the workload and act as simultaneous co-principals. Job-sharing has generally been introduced on a short-term basis to manage a particular situation (DEET, 1998; Gordon and Meadows, 1986; Muffs and Schmitz, 1999). Examples have been provided where for one year two principals worked two months on and two months off, with a two-day overlap. This strategy was introduced to allow one of the women to achieve work/life balance as the parent of a young child, and to complete her doctoral studies. The strategy allowed the second woman to begin doctoral studies and contribute more to community by working voluntarily on environmental issues (Gordon and Meadows, 1986). Job-sharing can also be used when two people work for part of each day or week. One example describes two assistant principals working part of each day with a one-hour overlap (Muffs and Schmitz, 1999). This strategy was introduced to help the assistant principal manage the demands of parenting two young children, and caring for an elderly father. At the time of publication of the research, this strategy had only been in place for one year. A DE&T case study of job sharing is provided in the Flexible Work Handbook (DEET, 1998) of a principal working 0.6 of each week with the next senior staff member acting as the principal for the remaining 0.4 of each week. This strategy was introduced for one term to assist the principal to cover a short-term family emergency. Examples of flexible work practices are rare at the principal and assistant principal level. While job-sharing has been recommended as a strategy to assist leaders to achieve work/life balance, part-time work does not appear to be available on a long-term basis to principals, assistant principals, and other leadership positions.

Some teachers attain their first principal position in their thirties or early forties. These principals could expect to work for a further twenty years before retirement. In her study of the career concerns of secondary headteachers, Evetts (1992) found that principals who had taken up their first principal position in their early forties were concerned that they would be in their present position until retirement. There is paucity of literature on the succession planning strategies provided by education systems to ensure that younger principals maintain their motivation.

As noted earlier, the work itself is a source of both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Duke, 1988; ERS, 2000; Hill, 1994a; Johnson and Holdaway, 1991; Johnson and Holdaway,
Studies indicate that the work of building and maintaining relationships between students, parents, teachers, and the wider educational community provides principals with high levels of job satisfaction. However, the increase in administrative tasks that now seem to be a requisite and time-consuming part of a principal’s work, provide high levels of job dissatisfaction (Duke, 1988; ERS, 2000; Hill, 1994a; Johnson and Holdaway, 1991; Johnson and Holdaway, 1990). The nature and scope of the principal role would be more appealing to future principals, and in retaining current principals, if a principal was allowed to be an educational leader, and not be submerged in the administrative aspects of the role (Duke, 1988; ERS, 2000; Hill, 1994a; Johnson and Holdaway, 1991; Johnson and Holdaway, 1990). Calls have been made to redefine the job to establish reasonable job expectations (ERS, 2000).

This study examined attitudes of principals, assistant principals, and teachers to the current workload and job expectations of principals, and the impact that these expectations have on career decisions.

Summary

It is evident from the literature review that there have been very few research projects, either local or overseas, specifically investigating the influences on teachers’ career decision-making and attitudes towards promotion. There has been research of a more general nature on aspirations, motivation, career blockers, and organisational succession planning. The limited investigations in these areas that focused on teachers have not been conducted in Australia. These studies have mainly been conducted in the United States of America and the United Kingdom. Current research in the field of aspirations and career decision-making explores factors relating to selection procedures, and the impact of selection procedures on specific groups such as women and particular ethnic groups. There is a paucity of research on teacher aspirations in the Australian context. Research does not demonstrate the explicit links between teachers’ career aspirations, and the career decisions that teachers actually make.

This research examined the aspirations of Australian teachers employed in a large government school system and made explicit the links between aspiration and career decision-making.

The research investigated two questions:
1. What are the leadership aspirations of Victorian government school teachers?
2. What are the factors that impact on leadership aspirations?

In this research, teachers includes all members of the teaching service employed in schools, that is teachers, assistant principals and principals. Policy and planning implications have been drawn from the identification of the teachers’ leadership aspirations and the factors that impact on these aspirations.

A unique framework was developed to explore career decisions and leadership aspirations. This framework, (see page 18) indicates that work motivation, career and life planning, and values are the key factors that influence teachers’
career decisions and leadership aspirations. Work motivation includes sources and degrees of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Career and life planning factors include the teacher’s personal life situation, and organisational and external factors. The third factor includes the level of alignment between the teacher’s personal values and the perceived values of the organisation. The factors that encourage, and the factors that discourage, teachers with leadership aspirations from actually applying for leadership positions have been identified. Factors specific to males and females and factors specific to teachers working and living in country regions, have also been identified. These significant findings will increase the understanding of the links between aspiration and career decisions. The following chapter details the methodology used to study the research questions. The research design, research instruments, and tools of analysis have been described.
Chapter Three - Methodology

This chapter discusses the methodology used to study the research questions. The chapter comprises a discussion of the research design, the research instruments and tools of analysis.

Introduction

The prime concern of the study is to advance knowledge about teachers’ leadership aspirations and attitudes towards principalship. Two distinct stages were employed.

1. Survey
   Information from a large number of teachers, which could be used to accurately make inferences of all Victorian Government school teachers, was necessary to gain a broad and representative understanding of sources and levels of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, perceptions of incentives and disincentives to promotion, and participation in succession planning processes. To achieve this a survey was used.

2. Focus group interview
   Teacher perceptions of the principal role and the alignment between personal values and organisational values also form important aspects of the research framework. Perceptions of the principal role and values alignment were explored through focus group interviews. The interviews were designed to allow the researcher to follow-up on patterns that emerged from the surveys, explore aspects such as perceptions and personal values in a face-to-face interview, and allow themes to emerge that had not been imposed by the researcher. The seventy-five to ninety minute small group interviews provided depth and contextual relevance. Themes could be followed-up through in-depth questioning. Follow-up, probing and clarifying questions were also used to provide contextual relevance to individual comments.

This chapter describes the design, implementation, and analysis process of the three data gathering tools – the survey, focus group interviews, and DE&T documentation. This chapter describes in detail the formulation of the research questions, the research design, the nature of the sample, the development of the research instruments, the procedure of data collection, the statistical and qualitative analytical techniques employed for data analysis, and the limitations of the study. Particular attention has been paid to the reasons for choosing to use both quantitative and qualitative approaches as the sources of research findings.

Formulation of hypotheses

Clearly articulated and precise hypotheses assist the researcher in a number of ways. They provide structure and help to organise the research project, giving it direction and coherence. They give the project boundaries and keep the researcher focussed. They also provide a framework when the researcher is deciding what data to collect (Punch, 1998). Prior to developing the final research hypothesis, a review of current literature was conducted to:

1. Explore the key factors that that influence teachers in choosing to move into principal class leadership roles.
2. Explore the key factors that influence other teachers to choose to not move into principal class leadership roles.
3. Explore those key factors particularly relating to women.
4. Examine possible differences between metropolitan and country regions.
From a study of the literature a conceptual framework was developed and this framework was used to frame the final research hypothesis. This was detailed in chapter two.
The following hypothesis was developed:
Work motivation, career and life planning, and values alignment are key factors that influence teachers in choosing to apply for principal class leadership roles.
This hypothesis has been de-constructed into the following set of related hypotheses.

**Figure 3 - Research hypotheses flowchart**

- **Work motivation**, career and personal life planning, and value self alignment are key factors that influence teachers in choosing to apply for principal class leadership positions.
- **Career and life planning** factors significantly influence teachers in choosing to move into principal class leadership roles.
- **An alignment of personal and organizational values** is a key factor to influencing teachers in choosing to apply for principal class leadership positions.
- **Principal class leadership roles provide a source of job satisfaction.**
- **Seeking a job that provides personal challenge is an motivating factor for some teachers.**
- **Receptions of incentives and disincentives to promote to principal class positions influence teachers’ career decision.**
- **Teacher perceptions of principal’s job satisfaction is a key factor in influencing teachers in choosing to apply for principal class leadership positions.**
- **The organization’s succession planning processes influence teachers’ leadership aspirations.**

**Research design**

A mixed method inquiry was purposefully chosen rather than relying singularly on a qualitative or quantitative method. The mixed method provides increased validity by allowing the researcher to understand more fully and to generate deeper and broader insights (Greene and Caracelli, 1997). No single research methodology provides a perfect answer. Using multiple methods can help to counteract inherent imperfections. Social phenomena such as aspirations are extremely complex ‘so different kinds of methods are needed to understand the important complexities of our social world more completely’ (Greene and Caracelli, 1997:7).

This study used a complementary design (Caracelli and Greene, 1997). The results from the survey were used to inform the construction of the focus groups. The results of the focus groups were also used to confirm and clarify...
themes and patterns raised by the survey data. The survey provided breadth and representativeness while the focus group interviews provided depth and contextual relevance.

Research questions suitable for a survey include, but not exclusively, questions about attitudes/opinions, characteristics, and expectations. ‘Why’ questions were avoided as they are more suited to interviews. ‘Surveys are appropriate for self-reported beliefs or behaviours’ (Neuman, 2000:247). The survey sought data on respondents’ characteristics, attitudes towards job satisfaction, and incentives for promotion and career expectations. The survey was not seen as an appropriate source of data on perceptions of the principal role, perceptions of organisational values, and the alignment of organisational values with individual values. These were best explored through a qualitative methodology.

Focus group interviews were considered to be the most suitable methodology to provide the additional data. In focus groups up to twelve people at a time can be interviewed, consequently increasing the interview sample size. Unlike one-to-one interviews, the focus group provides a checking mechanism to balance and challenge extreme or false views (Hurworth, 1996; Krueger, 1994). Because the comments are made in a group setting, group members, rather than the interviewer, can challenge extreme comments, ask each other to clarify or explain the rationale behind comments, disagree and state their point of view and confirm or change their own ideas. The intention of focus groups is to promote self-disclosure among participants (Krueger, 1994:11). The focus group also tapped into the interest shown in the research question by a large group of the respondents. Almost 700 survey respondents agreed to be interviewed as a follow-up to the survey. This provided a wide base of willing, interested volunteers from which the researcher could select focus group participants with specific characteristics, such as female, secondary, assistant principals from a country region. The large pool of volunteers from the survey ensured that the researcher was able to be deliberately selective and identify sufficient numbers of focus group invitees with quite specific characteristics. The purposive sampling allowed the researcher to handpick cases to be included in the study on the basis of their typicality (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000:103) and interest in the research question.

The research was completed in six phases. These phases were completed over two years. The following describes the phases and time-line.

1. Phase 1
   1.0. Determine the research area
   1.1. Conduct review of literature
   1.2. Develop specific research questions
   1.3. Develop research approach
   1.4. Conceptualise research framework
   1.5. Formulate research hypotheses
   1.6. Develop overall research design
   1.7. Examine limitations of survey method and focus groups
2. Phase 2
   2.0. Select a representative sample of manageable size
   2.1. Estimate expected return rate
3. Phase 3
   3.0. Design research instruments
3.1. Develop survey questions
3.2. Pilot survey
3.3. Refine survey instrument
3.4. Conduct survey
4. Phase 4
4.0. Choose appropriate statistical techniques
4.1. Determine an accuracy level
4.2. Produce descriptive and inferential statistics
4.3. Conduct factor analyses
4.4. Draw inferences from results
5. Phase 5
5.0. Determine key questions for focus groups interviews
5.1. Determine composition of focus groups interviews
5.2. Refine focus group questions through discussions with DE&T and focus group expert
5.3. Pilot draft focus group questions
5.4. Develop final focus group questions
5.5. Conduct focus group interviews
5.6. Identify possible gaps in focus group data
5.7. Conduct targeted focus group interview
5.8. Analyse data from focus groups
6. Phase 6
6.0. Draw conclusions
6.1. Reply to research questions
6.2. Recommendations for future research

Research instruments
The three factors within the conceptual framework - values, career and life planning, and work motivation - are impacted on by the individual teacher and the organisation (school, as the workplace and DE&T, as the employer). Data were collected for each of the three aspects of the framework from an individual and organisational perspective using the following matrix.

Figure 4 - Data matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual teacher factors</th>
<th>Conceptual framework</th>
<th>Organisational factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S Personal characteristics</td>
<td>DE&amp;T succession planning processes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S Perceptions of incentives and disincentives</td>
<td>School succession planning processes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FG Perceptions of the role</td>
<td>DE&amp;T Principal Selection Guidelines</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S Sources and levels of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction</td>
<td>Work motivation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FG Perceptions of inducements</td>
<td>Inducements provided by DE&amp;T</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FG Perceived alignment between an individual’s</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chapter three - Methodology
Page 89
The three aspects from the conceptual framework; career and life planning, work motivation, and values are listed down the middle of this matrix. To the left and right of the central conceptual framework are listed the individual teacher and organisational factors that relate to each of these three aspects. The letters beside each factor indicate the research instrument/s that were used for data collection.

The survey and focus group interviews form complementary and interdependent research instruments. The results from the survey informed some of the questions for the focus group interviews. These questions include those that related to factors that impacted on individual career decision-making.

The focus group interviews provided additional data not possible to obtain through the survey. These data related to perceptions of the role of principal and the perceived alignment between individual teacher’s values and perceived organisational values.

The DE&T documents are discussed in detail in chapters two (Literature review) and five (Discussion).

**Reliability and validity**

Reliability refers to the dependability of the data. Overall reliability was increased through the use of multiple data collection methods, referred to as triangulation, through the survey and focus group interviews. Data gathering instruments need to be reliable over time, across sub-populations or groups, and provide consistent results across different indicators. There are four key ways that researchers can increase reliability: clearly conceptualise all constructs; use a precise level of measurement; use multiple indicators; and use pilot tests (Neuman, 2000:166). Issues of reliability were considered for both the survey and the focus groups.

The reliability of the survey and focus groups as research instruments were increased by the researcher clearly defining the key constructs to be measured by the survey, such as level of aspiration, sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, perceptions of incentives and disincentives. For example, in the section of the questionnaire referring to mentors, a definition of the term mentor was provided.

_Within the context of the survey and focus groups_, the reliability of the survey and focus groups as research instruments were increased by the researcher clearly defining the key constructs to be measured by the survey, such as level of aspiration, sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, perceptions of incentives and disincentives. For example, in the section of the questionnaire referring to mentors, a definition of the term mentor was provided.

Some people develop a long-term one-to-one relationship with a mentor. This is a more senior (not necessarily older) educational leader who has been able to support you to learn things more quickly, earlier or that you otherwise would not have learnt. The mentor relationship might have developed as part of a formal program or informally through personal or professional contacts.

**Have you had access to a mentor during your career?**

- Yes
- No
Levels of measurement were constructed to maximise analysis. This allowed the researcher to use statistical analysis available for higher levels of measurement and also to collapse these higher levels to lower levels where appropriate. For example, the age of respondents allowed data to be analysed at each possible age by yearly increments and also more generally as respondents thirty years and younger compared to respondents over thirty years.

Multiple indicators for key constructs were used. For example, in the survey a number of specific questions were asked for the key construct of job satisfaction with the addition of a general question relating to the respondent’s current overall level of job satisfaction. The focus groups allowed the researcher to ask probing follow-up questions to fully explore the key constructs such as aspiration.

The survey went through several revisions. A panel including the research supervisor and representatives from the DE&T reviewed each draft version. The penultimate survey was piloted with twenty teachers from a range of schools (primary, secondary). Surveys were mailed to teachers participating in the survey pilot to replicate the conditions of the final survey. Respondents in this process also provided written feedback on the construction of the survey.

Individual questions and questionnaire layout were modified following this process. The researcher conducted a sub-population analysis to ensure that all questions worked equally well for specific groups, such as men and women. Rigorous sampling procedures for the final survey ensured a representative sample including all sub-populations. The reliability (Chronbach’s Alpha) of the incentive/disincentives and satisfaction/dissatisfaction scales were very high (0.9235 and 0.8881 respectively) indicating high internal consistency for the items of these scales; this means that the variation attributable to variation in true score rather than error was high in both scales (92% and 89% of the variation respectively).

The focus group questions also went through several revisions. Early versions were reviewed by an expert in focus group interviews (Doctor Roslyn Hurworth – the University of Melbourne), representatives from the DE&T, and twenty-seven teachers at all promotion levels. The questions and interview format were finally piloted with a group of teachers in a structure that closely replicated the final interview format and questions. Minor revisions were made following this procedure. Questions were pre-determined and documented. The set question schedule was followed for each of the nine interviews. At the conclusion of each interview an assistant provided a summary of the key themes that emerged from the group. Members were asked whether they wished to make additional comments, withdraw comments and if the summary was an accurate reflection of the discussion. The assistant remained with the researcher after each interview to discuss the key themes and provide feedback to the researcher on the interview process. The assistant also provided
feedback on the initial coding process. Focus groups were held over a two week period to ensure that the researcher maintained a consistency in interview technique. A maximum of two interviews were held on any given day to ensure that the researcher was able to maintain maximum concentration. The assistant was used to provide feedback on consistency in interview technique.

Validity refers to how well the instruments measure the conceptual framework. Validity measures constructs or abstract ideas, therefore, no researcher can have absolute confidence about validity (Neuman, 2000:167). A number of measures have been taken by the researcher to ensure maximum validity at the design, data gathering, data analysis and reporting stages (Cohen et al., 2000).

Threats to validity were minimised at the design stage by gathering the data from the survey and the focus groups within twelve months to minimise the likelihood of significant changes in the experiences and/or perceptions of individuals involved in the research.

Appropriate resources were allocated to the research project. This included a large survey sample of 2000, with email and mail follow-up to all survey recipients and nine focus groups, each with a facilitator and an assistant. The mixed methodology ensured a widely representative sample from the survey provided breadth and a depth, and richness of information were provided by the focus groups (Krueger, 1994:30).

Validity was increased at the data-gathering stage by minimising the drop-out rate among respondents. Surveys were sent to teachers with an accompanying letter signed by the Director of Schools outlining support for the project from the DE&T and professional associations, the importance of the project, and urging respondents to complete and return the survey. Stamped, pre-addressed envelopes were included. At the time of the survey all DE&T principals received an email communication from the Director of Schools outlining the project and asking principals to urge survey recipients to complete and return the survey. Following the closing date, a second letter was sent to all survey recipients reminding them that if they had not completed the survey to please do so. The closing date was extended by one month. Additional copies of the survey were made available by request. Following this second communication an additional 10% (200) of the surveys were returned. Maximum attendance at focus groups was ensured by inviting teachers who had already indicated a willingness to be interviewed. Twelve to fourteen people were invited to attend each focus group. Again, these invitations were issued by the Director of Schools. People who had not replied by the due date were contacted by telephone. This personal contact increased the acceptance rate. People with teaching responsibilities who attended the interviews were provided with funds for a replacement teacher. The interviews were held in a central location with access to public transport from metropolitan and country train services. One researcher conducted all coding for the focus group interviews. Validity was further maximised through the use of the focus group assistant to verify interpretations of ambiguous and unclear comments. The
survey and the focus groups were designed to gather appropriate data but not exceed the concentration span of the participants. This was validated through the piloting processes.

At the data analysis stage, validity was increased by using appropriate statistical treatments for the level of data, using appropriate coding for the focus group data, avoiding making inferences and generalisations beyond the capability of the data to support such statements, and avoiding selective use of data. The researcher used peer debriefing provided by the research supervisor and representatives from the DE&T frequently during the data analysis stage.

At the data reporting stage, validity was maximised by clearly indicating the context and parameters in the data-gathering and analysis, and the degree of confidence that could be placed in the results. Appropriate confidence level tests were performed on the survey results. The researcher did not use the data inaccurately or selectively; that is, accentuating the positive and neglecting or ignoring the negative. The research supervisor and the DE&T representatives provided a critical forum to ensure maximum validity at the data reporting stage.

**Nature of the sample**

Participants included a random sample taken from a complete list of all teachers in government primary, secondary, and P-12 schools in Victoria. The sample included contract and permanent teachers from all promotion levels. Primary schools enrol students from a Preparatory (Prep) year to year 6 (5 to 12 year olds). Secondary schools enrol students from years 7-12 (12 to 18 year olds). P-12, or primary/secondary schools, include school settings that enrol students for particular year levels between Prep and year 12. For example this category includes years 11-12 stand alone schools, P-8, years 7-10, and P-12 schools. P-12 schools also included schools with a specific charter such as the Victorian School of the Arts, English Language Centres, and Community Schools.

Specialist schools specifically enrolling students with particular disabilities were not included in the research. Within the specialist school group there is much variation. The variation within the specialist school group and the differences between specialist school profiles and the primary, P-12, and secondary sectors meant that it would be difficult to draw conclusions from the limited data provided if they had been included in the survey.

Teachers in Catholic and Independent schools were not included in the research. The researcher considered that again the variations within schools in these sectors and the differences between both Catholic and Independent schools and the government school sector were too great to draw valid conclusions from the one research project.

A sample size of 2000 teachers was chosen to allow for adequate statistical analysis of variation whilst containing costs. Due to confidentiality issues, the DE&T provided the sample according to the specifications of this research. The sample was determined using a simple random sampling technique. Every teacher on the DE&T payroll was allocated a random number, starting at one.
The teachers with random numbers from 1 to 2000 were chosen. Again, due to confidentiality issues, the DE&T did not allow the researcher access to the entire population data to conduct statistical tests for reliability. However, the DE&T compared the sample against the entire population to identify differences between sex, school type, and region. The sample closely reflects the entire population, as indicated in the following tables provided by the DE&T.
### Table 2 - Percentage of teachers in the entire government school teaching population by region, sex, and school type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th></th>
<th>P-12</th>
<th></th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3 - Percentage of teachers in the sample of 2000 teachers by region, sex, and school type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th></th>
<th>P-12</th>
<th></th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 - Difference between the entire population and the sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Primary Male</th>
<th>Primary Female</th>
<th>P-12 Male</th>
<th>P-12 Female</th>
<th>Secondary Male</th>
<th>Secondary Female</th>
<th>Region</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Northern Metropolitan Region</td>
<td>-2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Southern Metropolitan Region</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>-4%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Western Metropolitan Region</td>
<td>-2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>-1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Eastern Metropolitan Region</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>-2%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Barwon South Western Region</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Central Highlands Wimmera Region</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>-5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Gippsland Region</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>-5%</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Goulburn North East Region</td>
<td>-3%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>-3%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Loddon Campaspe Mallee Region</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>-2%</td>
<td>-2%</td>
<td>-1%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These tables reveal little difference between the entire sample and the sample population. Of the 63 possible categories there was no difference in 40% of cases. In 32% of cases there was only a ±1% difference. In 11% of cases there was only a ±2% difference, 8% of cases had a ±3% difference, 2% of cases had a ±4% difference with the maximum difference being ±5% in only 8% of cases. These data reveal that in 83% of cases there was only 0 - 3% difference suggesting a high degree of confidence that the sample reflects the population.

There was also little difference between the achieved sample and the total population.
Table 5 - Difference between entire population and achieved sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Percentage of teachers in the entire government school population</th>
<th>Percentage of teachers in the achieved sample</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>-3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>-2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>+1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>+1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>+1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>+1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

t-tests have been conducted to demonstrate the differences between the sample population and the achieved sample for response by region, school type, school size, and sex. The results of these tests are described in the following chapter.

Focus group participants were drawn from the survey sample. The final question on the survey asked respondents:

*As a follow-up to this survey a number of teachers, assistant principals and principals will be interviewed. If you are willing to be interviewed please complete the following.*

_Name, School, Address, Telephone number, E-mail address._

Six hundred and seventy-seven respondents provided the above details. Nine focus groups were organised with twelve participants invited to each focus group interview. The composition of the focus groups is discussed in more detail in the qualitative data analysis section later in this chapter.

**Survey**

The following section describes the construction of the survey, including the theoretical basis for questions, the length, type, and order of questions; strategies to increase the response rate; and the statistical techniques employed for data analysis.

**Survey construction**

The survey comprised 72 questions and took respondents approximately 30 minutes to complete. It was mailed to 2000 randomly selected teachers in September 2000. The survey was mailed by the DE&T with a covering letter from the Director of Schools (see Appendix A). The letter outlined the purpose and importance of the research, support for the project from peak bodies, time-lines for the research, and instructions for return of the surveys. Respondents were given two weeks to complete the survey and asked to return them in an enclosed addressed reply-paid envelope to the University of Melbourne. Two days after the mail-out an email message was sent to all primary, secondary, and P-12 school principals describing the research, outlining its purpose, and asking principals to urge
respondents to complete the survey form. The survey return date coincided with the term holiday break. Following the school holidays, a second letter was sent to all respondents reminding them to return the surveys, and providing a contact telephone number where they could request a copy of the survey if it had been mislaid. The Australian Education Union published an article describing the research and stating their support for the project. This article appeared in the October *AEU News* (Vila, 2000). The level of support for the research project from the DE&T, the principal organisations, and the teacher union is likely to have increased the response rate to the survey. There was a high level of genuine interest in the research topic shown by respondents. Some respondents wrote notes thanking the researcher for taking an interest in their career, others documented career blockers that they had experienced and attached this to the survey. Fifty per cent of the respondents (677) volunteered to be interviewed by the researcher and provided contact details.

The survey was constructed in five sections: personal information; aspirations; sources of satisfaction in current role; perceptions of incentives and disincentives for promotion to principal; and succession planning.

Section one - personal information included data on regional location; school type; school size; sex; anticipated age at retirement or resignation; current position; years of experience in the respondent’s current role; and reasons for unpaid leave. These matters were intended to allow the researcher to examine trends within the data for specific groups of respondents.

In section two, respondents were asked to indicate from a list of nine categories provided by the researcher, both their career aspiration when they began teaching and their current career aspiration. This was to allow the researcher to determine changes in career aspirations and to examine current career intentions.

The third section of the survey examined sources and levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the respondent’s current role. The links between job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction, and work motivation were outlined at the beginning of this section. Data on satisfaction and dissatisfaction were sought to provide part of the picture that would help understand the contribution of work motivation to career aspiration. This section of the survey was based on existing literature on work motivation as discussed in chapter two. Respondents were asked to use a five-point scale to rate 18 factors from 1 (high level of dissatisfaction) to 5 (high level of satisfaction). Respondents were also asked to rate their current overall level of satisfaction.

The factors included items identified in previous research as sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction for teachers (Dinham, 2000; Dinham and Scott, 1996, 2000a; Nias, 1989;
Scott et al., 1999; Scott et al., 2000; Senate Employment Education and Training References Committee, 1998; Sergiovanni, 1967). The questions included in this section of the survey allowed the researcher to compare in particular, trends in sources of dissatisfaction for the survey sample and those found by previous researchers both within Australia and overseas.

Following is the list of factors from the survey relating to sources of satisfaction in the respondent’s current role that sought to answer the research hypothesis – Work motivation is a key factor that influences teachers in choosing to apply for principal class leadership positions.
Table 6 - Survey items relating to sources of satisfaction in current role

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>High dissatisfaction</th>
<th>Hi satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A sense of achievement through work</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition by others of your work</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work itself (the nature of the work, teaching preferred subjects, year levels, your duties and responsibilities)</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Areas of responsibility</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities for promotion or advancement</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect of job on personal life</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal workplace relationships with teachers</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal workplace relationships with students</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal workplace relationships with parents</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal workplace relationships with other DEET personnel</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEET policies and practices</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School policies and practices</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision of your work</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical working conditions</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequacy of administrative support</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensity of work</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of the working day</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is your current overall level of satisfaction?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fourth section of the survey sought data on respondents’ perceptions of incentives and disincentives to promotion. This section of the survey asked respondents to rate 30 items on a five-point scale from 1 (strong disincentive) to 5 (strong incentive). The items were clustered into three groups. Group one included personal factors such as ‘Effect on family’ and ‘Location of the school’. The second group included items related to the nature of the work. The third group included items related to outcomes of the work. Respondents could add an item of their own under Other. Specific items under nature of the work and outcomes of the work were developed from previous research (Crow, 1990; Jacobson, 1990; Pounder and Young, 1996). The item ‘No/less teaching’ was included specifically to examine if teachers see this as an incentive or disincentive and to compare the views of males and females for this item. Previous research provides contradictory findings regarding this aspect (Jacobson, 1990; Shakeshaft, 1989). Research supports the contention that career and life planning decisions are influenced by an individual’s personal life situation (Brown, 1996; Loughlin, 2000). Ten personal factor items were included in this section of the survey. Following is a list of survey incentive/disincentive items and their relationship to the research hypotheses.
Table 7 - Survey items relating to incentives and disincentives for promotion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal factors</th>
<th>Strong disincentive</th>
<th>Strong incentive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>33. Effect on family</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Professional Development opportunities provided</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Self-improvement opportunities provided</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Job security</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Gaining new skills</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Leaving workplace colleagues</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Joining principal collegiate group</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Offer of increasing responsibilities and autonomy</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Location of the school</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. Level of remuneration</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. Access to benefits (such as car leasing arrangements)</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. New challenges provided by the job</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of the work</th>
<th>Strong disincentive</th>
<th>Strong incentive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>45. Control over work schedule</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. Meaningful, interesting and challenging work</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. Bonus pay or incentives based on performance</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. Access to flexible time</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. Access to decision makers</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. Autonomy to make decisions</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51. No/less direct teaching role</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52. Support from DEET senior officers</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53. Individual workplace culture</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54. Stress level of the job</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55. Impact of societal problems on the role</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56. Time required by the job</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57. Accountability requirements</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58. Demands of parents and/or community</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59. Adequacy of school budget</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60. Community attitudes towards principals</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Outcomes of the work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Number</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Scale 1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>Opportunity to impact on the learning environment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62</td>
<td>Opportunity to motivate others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>Opportunity to shape an educational vision</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Items 33-39, 41-43, 45, 47-52, 54-60 sought data on the research hypothesis - Career and life planning are key factors that influence teachers in choosing to apply for principal class leadership roles. Items 40, 44, 46, 61-63 sought data on the research question - Work motivation is a key factor that influences teachers in choosing to apply for principal class leadership roles. Item 53 provided data on the research hypothesis – An alignment of personal and organisational values is a key factor in influencing teachers in choosing to apply for principal class leadership positions.

The fifth section of the survey included items relating to succession planning. Respondents were asked to nominate career supporters; and indicate if they had had access to mentors, succession planning processes, and leadership professional development programs. Respondents were asked to rate the impact of these processes on their career. These questions all sought data on the research hypothesis - Career and life planning are key factors that influence teachers in choosing to apply for principal class leadership roles. Finally, respondents were asked if they would be willing to be interviewed as a follow-up to the survey.

**Statistical techniques employed**

The aim was to confirm or disconfirm the research hypotheses. Initially, frequency distributions and sample means were determined from the survey data. The second step was to determine the frequency distributions and means for sex, rurality, school type, current position, and age. This presented a general view on the spread of the sample across categories. Following is a table outlining the mean comparisons that have been made.
Table 8 - Categories of mean comparisons conducted by the researcher

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Male/Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regional location</td>
<td>Metropolitan regions/Country regions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School type</td>
<td>Primary/Secondary/P-12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current position</td>
<td>Teacher/Assistant principal/Principal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of time in current position</td>
<td>1-2 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-10 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-15 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16-20 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20+ years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>≤ 30/31+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following Table 9 shows the statistical tests used to compare means. Significance of variance of means was tested using the parametrical statistical procedure of t-test for independent groups. The goal for this analysis testing procedure was to determine whether the difference in mean scores being compared was statistically significant at the 0.05 level of probability. This means that there was a 95% probability that the sample reflected the population. The significance level of $p < 0.05$ is acceptable and generally used in statistical analysis for reducing the probability of a Type 1 error. A Type 1 error occurs when a hypothesis is rejected but it is true. If the hypothesis is accepted when it is false then it is referred to as a Type 2 error. For this type of research, with few consequences arising from a Type 2 error, minimising Type 2 errors is more appropriate (Bryman and Cramer, 1997). The level of significance (known as alpha) for this study, that is the probability of committing a Type 1 error, was set at $\alpha = 0.05$. However, the researcher has reported when a significance level of $p < 0.01$ was reached.
### Table 9 - Statistical tests used to compare means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey category</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Regional location</th>
<th>School type</th>
<th>Current position</th>
<th>Time in current position</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Beginning aspirations</strong></td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Current aspirations</strong></td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sources of satisfaction</strong></td>
<td>t-test Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>t-test Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>1 way ANOVA Scheffes</td>
<td>1 way ANOVA Scheffes</td>
<td>t-test Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Current overall level of satisfaction</strong></td>
<td>t-test Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>t-test Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>1 way ANOVA Scheffes</td>
<td>1 way ANOVA Scheffes</td>
<td>1 way ANOVA Scheffes</td>
<td>t-test Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey category</td>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>Regional location</td>
<td>School type</td>
<td>Current position</td>
<td>Time in current position</td>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
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<td>-------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentives and disincentives for promotion to principal</td>
<td>t-test Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>t-test Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>1 way ANOVA Scheffes</td>
<td>1 way ANOVA Scheffes</td>
<td>1 way ANOVA Scheffes</td>
<td>t-test Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents who had worked in a school with a succession plan</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents who had had access to a mentor</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents who had participated in leadership programs</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td>Crosstabs $\chi^2$ Degrees of freedom Level of significance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The survey measured part of the researcher’s conceptual framework for teacher leadership aspirations. It measured sources and levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, perceptions of incentives and disincentives, and access to succession planning processes. The survey did not seek data on the perceptions of the role of principal or data values. Data were collected on perceptions of the role and the alignment between individual and organisational values, through the qualitative method of focus groups interviews. As such, the analysis of the statistical data must be viewed from the perspective of providing a section of the research findings. The survey data is complemented by the focus group data and the two elements must be seen together. As perceptions of the role and values were key elements of the conceptual framework, but included only in the quantitative data, it was decided therefore that path analysis and structural equation modelling were not appropriate to use as neither of these sections could be included in the modelling as they were not included in the statistical data. Tabachnick and Fiddell (1996:31) provide a useful Decision Tree to use when choosing among statistical techniques to analyse univariate and multivariate statistics. They recommend that when the major research question is one of structure, and when there are multiple dependent and multiple independent variables, either a principal components analysis or a factor analysis should be chosen.

Exploratory factor analysis was chosen as the most appropriate statistical technique ‘to assess the fit between the data and the hypothetical structure’ (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996:28). The reasons for this are explained in the next section.

**Exploratory Factor Analysis**

Exploratory factor analysis was used to examine the relationship between the variables without determining the extent to which the results fit any particular model. It assisted in the reduction of the data by collapsing ‘the measured variables into a smaller number of more abstract variables’ (Punch, 1998:130).

*The goal of research using PCA [Principal Components Analysis] or FA [Factor Analysis] is to reduce a large number of variables to a smaller number of factors, to concisely describe (and perhaps understand) the relationship among observed variables, or to test theory about underlying processes. (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996:600)*

The satisfaction/dissatisfaction variables were included in the exploratory factor analysis to increase understandings of the contribution of work motivation to career aspirations. The incentives/disincentives variables were included as to increase understandings of teachers’ perceptions of the incentives and disincentives to promotion.

The conceptual model used to explore teachers’ leadership aspirations included three key components – work motivation, career and life planning, and values. The survey was used to explore some aspects of work motivation and career and life planning. The focus groups were used to confirm factors measured
in the survey and identify new factors not previously identified by the researcher, and to explore the known in more detail.

The following section describes the procedures involved in the factor analysis. The sample size and correlation matrix are described. This is followed by an explanation of the processes for data reduction, selection of the number of factors to be rotated, and the rotation and interpretation of the final factors.

**Sample size**

Final assumptions about the reliability of the emerging factors are influenced by the size of the sample (Child, 1970), although there is no consensus about what is the ideal sample size. There is, however, agreement that there should be a greater number of subjects than variables. Gorsuch (1983, cited in Bryman and Cramer, 1997:279) for example, has proposed an absolute minimum of five subjects per variable and not less than 100 individuals per analysis.’ There were 49 items included in the factor analysis with a minimum of 1312 subjects (responses) and a maximum of 1338 subjects. This research certainly exceeded the suggestions of not fewer than 100 subjects per analysis and more than five subjects per variable.

**Correlation matrix**

The first step in factor analysis involves ‘the calculation of appropriate measures of association for a set of relevant variables’ (Kim, 1985:470). This is called a correlation matrix. A correlation matrix was computed for the satisfaction/dissatisfaction and incentives/disincentives items. This process was used to establish the value in continuing with the factor analysis. The process identified factors where there were significant correlations between items (Bryman and Cramer, 1997:279).

**Data reduction**

The second step in the factor analysis was to reduce the data by ‘constructing a set of new variables on the basis of the interrelations exhibited in the data’ (Kim, 1985:470). Principal component analysis was used to define the new set of composite variables. Using the principal components method no particular assumptions are made about the underlying structure of the variables (Kim, 1985) as opposed to classical-factor analysis which is based on the belief that ‘the observed correlations are mainly the results of some underlying regularity in the data’ (Kim, 1985:471).

**Number of factors to be retained**

The final stage of the factor analysis involved the rotation of the components that account for the maximum amount of variance (this is described in the next section). In this
process the researcher must decide which factors are to be included. There are two main criteria used to determine which factors to exclude (Bryman and Cramer, 1997:282; Child, 1970:44; Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996:634).

The first technique, Kaiser’s criterion, selects those factors that have an eigenvalue of greater than one. It is suggested that Kaiser’s criterion is probably the most reliable when the number of variables is between 20 and 50. When more than 50 variables are involved, too many factors are taken out (Child, 1970:44). This research involved 49 variables.

The second technique, the Scree test, is a graph of the descending variance accounted for by the factors initially extracted. The factors retained are those factors which lie before the point at which the eigenvalues seem to level off. That is, ‘the point where a line drawn through the points changes direction’ (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996:635). Using Kaiser’s criterion eleven factors were identified with eigenvalues greater than one. The amount of variance accounted for by the 11 factors with an eigenvalue of greater than one was used to further confirm the number of factors to be rotated. The amount of variance decreases appreciably to factor four and thereafter diminishes more gradually. This suggests that a four or five factor solution may be appropriate.

As there were 49 variables, close to the upper limit of reliability for Kaiser’s criterion, the scree test was also used to further confirm which items to retain. This resulted in the identification of six factors before the graph began to level off. However, both the eigen values and the scree plot show three distinct factors before any levelling off occurs.

There is debate about whether it is better to retain too many or too few factors if the number is ambiguous. ... if the researcher is interested in using only demonstrably reliable factors, the fewest possible factors are retained. (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996:636)

It was decided to rotate for three through six factors and base the final decision on the number of factors retained, upon the distinctiveness of the factors and the conceptual worth of the rotated solutions. The results of the this process are described in chapter four in the Factor analysis section – Data reduction.

**Rotation of factors**

The last step in factor analysis is the rotation of factors to determine the final solution. There is some controversy as to which rotation process is most appropriate. Orthogonal rotation produces factors that are independent of one
another. The disadvantage of orthogonal rotation is that factors may be forced to appear unrelated when conceptually they may be related. In oblique rotation the factors are assumed to be correlated (Bryman and Cramer, 1997:285; Child, 1970:60). Oblique rotation produced by the oblimin method in SPSS was chosen as the method of rotation because the satisfaction/dissatisfaction items are considered to be correlated to the incentives/disincentives items. The best fit was obtained with the Delta set at 0.1 giving a fairly oblique solution (Kim, 1985:486). The oblique rotation produced three matrices, each of which is used for different purposes. The structure matrix, which is made up of weights reflecting the unique variance each factor contributes to a variable, was used to interpret the factors (Bryman and Cramer, 1997:286).

**Interpreting factors**

Items that correlate less than 0.3 with each factor were omitted from consideration because they account for less than 9% of the variance and as such were not considered important (Bryman and Cramer, 1997:286). An alternative criterion to use is the correlation above which no item correlates highly with more than one factor. The advantage of this rule is that factors are interpreted in terms of items unique to them. Consequently, their meaning should be less ambiguous (Bryman and Cramer, 1997:286). As the factors were considered to be correlated, the researcher used the more conventional method of omitting items that correlated less than 0.3. The results of the factor analysis are included in chapter four.

**Focus group interviews**

Focus group interviews formed the second phase of the complementary research design. The following section describes the composition of the focus groups, the question schedule, and data analysis procedures. This study used a complementary design method (Caracelli and Greene, 1997). The results from the survey were used to inform the construction of the focus groups. The results of the focus groups were also used to confirm and clarify themes and patterns raised by the survey data. The survey provided breadth and representativeness while the focus group interviews provided depth and contextual relevance. Focus group interviews were considered to be the most suitable process to provide the additional data. Up to 12 people can be interviewed in a focus group. Consequently the interview sample size is increased. The focus group utilised the interest shown in the research question by a large group of the respondents. The 700 survey respondents who agreed to be interviewed as a follow-up to the survey provided a wide base of willing,
interested volunteers from which the researcher could select focus group participants with specific characteristics.

Focus group interviews can be difficult to control, more difficult than regular one-to-one interviews. Focus groups require a skilled facilitator to ensure individual group members do not unduly influence the course of the discussion and/or take up the interview time raising too many irrelevant issues (Krueger, 1994:36). In this case, the researcher is a very experienced interviewer. Her skills in this field have been recognised by a number of groups over the previous ten years. In recent years, she has been contracted by senior DE&T personnel to evaluate programs using telephone interviews (Review of Mathematics Clip-on for Office of Review - DEET, 2001; School Leadership Teams Evaluation for Human Resources DEET, 2000), one-to-one semi-structured interviews (Leading Practice Classroom Networks for Professional Development and Leadership Centre, DEET - 1999), focus group interviews (At the Interface - Evaluation, School Leadership Development Centre, DEET - 2000).

As groups can vary considerably, a large number of group interviews were held to ensure that a breadth and depth of views were canvassed. Focus groups can be difficult to assemble. Support from the DE&T maximised the attendance at each interview. The interviews were held in a pleasant room located at the researcher’s university. The central, neutral location with access to public transport maximised attendance. The room allowed the researcher to create an environment that was conducive to conversation, relaxed and friendly yet reflecting the seriousness with which the research was being taken.

**Focus group composition**

Focus group data were to be analysed by sex, role, sector, and region. It was considered impractical to conduct separate focus groups for each of the possible combinations. Data from the survey indicated that the differences between sectors and roles within schools were more significant than the differences between teachers from country and metropolitan regions. Comparisons between males and females could be separated and compared for each focus group interview. Hence, separate focus groups were held for primary and secondary teachers, leading teachers, assistant principals, and principals. Eight females and four males were invited to each focus group. Eight people from metropolitan regions and four people from country regions were invited to attend. This provided a total of twelve invitees to each meeting.
Table 10 - Initial focus group composition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Region</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 male</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>8 metropolitan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 male</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>8 metropolitan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 male</td>
<td>Leading teachers</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>8 metropolitan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 male</td>
<td>Leading teachers</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>8 metropolitan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 male</td>
<td>Assistant Principals</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>8 metropolitan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 male</td>
<td>Assistant Principals</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>8 metropolitan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 male</td>
<td>Principals</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>8 metropolitan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 male</td>
<td>Principals</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>8 metropolitan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 country</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 4:12 and 8:12 ratios match the percentage of males/females and percentages of teachers in metro/country regions.
This breakdown provided:
− six focus groups by sex
− two focus groups by each role
− three focus groups by each sector
− six focus group by region
Table 11 - Actual focus group composition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus Group</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Region</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3 male/4 female</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>6 metro/1 country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 male/5 female</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>4 metro/3 country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2 male/6 female</td>
<td>Leading teachers</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>5 metro/3 country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3 male/2 female</td>
<td>Leading teachers</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>3 metro/2 country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1 male/3 female</td>
<td>Assistant Principals</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>3 metro/1 country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1 male/4 female</td>
<td>Assistant Principals</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>3 metro/2 country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1 male/2 female</td>
<td>Principals</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>3 metro/0 country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>4 male/1 female</td>
<td>Principals</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>2 metro/3 country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>7 female</td>
<td>Young teachers</td>
<td>Primary/secondary</td>
<td>7 metropolitan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the achieved focus group compositions there were no participants under the age of 30. Therefore, it was decided to conduct a ninth focus group specifically targeting young teachers. Fourteen teachers were invited to the young teachers focus group. This included three males and ten females, six secondary school teachers and eight primary school teachers. The young teachers were all from metropolitan schools.

The achieved focus groups comprised a total of 34 females and 17 males; and 36 metropolitan and 15 country participants. A representative sample was achieved of both sex and regional location.

There was a mean of 5.7 participants (median of 5, mode of 7) per group. This number falls within the ideal focus group numbers of between five and eight (Hurworth, 1996).

Twelve was chosen as the ideal number of participants to invite to each focus group interview, to ensure that the final group size was large enough for diversity, yet small enough for all to have a say. It was anticipated that of the 12 invited to each interview some would be unable to accept and others, having accepted, would be unable to attend on the day. Participants were interviewed in like groups, such as teachers, assistant principals, and principals to ensure that group members were of a similar status and issues pertinent to that group could be discussed openly.

The invitations to attend the focus groups were sent on DE&T letterhead from the General Manager of School Operations for the DE&T. The invitation included a letter of introduction from the researcher, a plain language statement detailing the research project, and a copy of the consent form for persons participating in research through the University of Melbourne. The focus group interviews were held at the University of Melbourne.

Focus group interviews closely followed a similar schedule, with minor variations due to the status of the group. Interviews lasted 60-75 minutes. Each interview was recorded using a multi-directional microphone and tape recorder. Detailed
notes from each interview were also recorded by one of three assistants from the DE&T.

Tapes of the interviews were transcribed by the researcher, using the notes to attribute comments to specific individuals, unravel who said what when several people spoke at once, and accurately record comments that were unclear on the tape. At the conclusion of each interview the assistant provided a brief summary to the group of the comments made. Participants were then given the opportunity to clarify misunderstandings, make additional comments, and ask questions. Immediately following each interview the assistant and the researcher discussed the key themes that had emerged. The assistant was also asked to provide feedback on the interview process, making suggestions for modification to the questions, timing, and additional questions to be asked in future interviews. These three assistants were also used to verify the researcher’s interpretation and analysis of the data. Each of the assistants was provided with a set of written instructions prior to the commencement of their first interview (see Appendix C). These assistants were senior educational personnel (group manager and senior project officers) with principal class experience.

As with all data gathering techniques, focus groups present certain limitations. The researcher was aware of these and took steps to reduce the effect of potential limitations. Group interviews can be harder to control than one-to-one interviews. The researcher is an experienced consultant and skilled interviewer used to managing groups and conducting interviews. The nine group interviews were conducted to ensure a divergence of views and avoid idiosyncratic individual sessions (Krueger, 1998:36).

**Focus group schedule**

The focus group questions followed a traditional focus group interview format of four sections comprising opening, transition, key, and final questions (Hurworth, 1996). Initial questions were drafted following this format. These questions were then discussed with the Leadership Development Unit within the DE&T, an expert in conducting focus groups from the University of Melbourne (Dr Ros Hurworth), and the co-researcher or supervisor, and were continually refined. A draft set of questions were trialed with a focus group of ten teachers from a primary school in Melbourne. Feedback from the pilot provided valuable advice to produce the final version. The final version comprised an introduction and fifteen questions. In the introduction the researcher introduced herself and the assistant. The group were thanked for their participation and the expected finish time was stated. The opening question asked each person to introduce themselves, tell the group where they worked and describe their current career aspiration. This question was aimed to provide an opportunity for all participants to relax and contribute at least one thing during the interview. During the rest of the interview participants contributed
as they desired. The researcher occasionally asked particularly shy or participants for their views on a question. The transition questions were a link between the opening question and the key questions. The first two transition questions were designed to identify personal and professional factors that had impacted on participants’ career decision making to date. The following three transition questions explored the participants’ perceptions of the principal role. These lead into the two key questions. 

The key questions were:

We know that there has been a significant drop in the number of people applying for principal jobs. Can you think of any reasons why this is happening? 
What would encourage you to apply? 

These two questions stimulated most of the discussion.

Approximately thirty minutes was allowed in each interview for the discussion from these two questions. This allowed time for the researcher to ask clarifying and follow-up questions to individual participants during this section of the interview. In a number of focus groups, issues relating to organisational and personal values arose spontaneously. In the interviews where values were not raised by the participants, the researcher asked ‘Does a change in policy or government direction have an impact on teachers’ career decisions?’ An additional question was asked of the assistant principals and principals. The principal and assistant principal interviews followed the teacher and leading teacher interviews, where the appeal of the assistant principal role emerged as a key theme. Assistant principals and principals were asked why the assistant principal role was perceived to be more appealing than the principal role. 

To sum up, each group was asked to identify which of the factors influencing teachers’ career decisions discussed during the interview was most important to them. The assistant then provided a summary of the discussion and asked if it was accurate and if participants would like to add or withdraw anything. The researcher completed the interviews with an overview of the findings from the survey and outlined how participants could access the findings from the focus groups and final research report. Participants were again given the opportunity make additional comments. Final words of appreciation concluded the interviews. 

**Transcription of interviews**

Each interview was recorded using both an audio tape recorder and field notes. The field notes were taken by an experienced senior educational bureaucrat. Tape recording in conjunction with note-taking is seen to be the most reliable means of capturing the full dimensions of the conversation (Minichiello, Aroni, Timewell and
Alexander, 1995:220). Lincoln and Guba, (1985:240) and Minichiello et al., (1995:220) outlined the advantages and disadvantages of these dual methods. While taped interviews can be seen as threatening by some participants, the tape recording of the interviews allowed an exact reproduction of the verbal conversation. The use of a tape recorder allowed the researcher to concentrate on developing a rapport between the researcher and each participant, encourage reluctant or shy participants, and generally manage the group interview. A small discrete, extremely sensitive microphone was used to minimise threat, yet ensure the accurate recording of up to ten people sitting in a group. Reliability of the data was increased through the use of the note-taker giving a summary report at the conclusion of each interview and providing opportunity for the participants to add comments or request changes to comments that they had previously made. Using another person as a note-taker served a number of purposes. It allowed the researcher to fully concentrate on managing the interview process, provided a person other than the interviewer to reflect back to the participants their comments at the conclusion of the interview, and finally, provided a person for the researcher to use for de-briefing at the conclusion of each interview.

The field notes allowed the researcher to accurately identify the name of each speaker, particularly when identification of particular speakers from the tape alone became difficult, such as when one speaker spoke over another speaker. The field notes also allowed the recording of non-verbal body language such as rolling of eyes and shrugging. The field notes could have been used if the tape recording process had failed, ensuring that all interviews could be used for data analysis. The tape recordings from each interview were transcribed by the researcher as close to the interview as practical. In the transcription process each interview was re-played several times. This process allowed the researcher to become close to, and fully understand, the data (Minichiello et al., 1995:100). Transcribing the tape recordings as close to the interviews as practical ensured accuracy when relying on memory such as the need to confirm a particular speaker’s voice (Minichiello et al., 1995:101). The transcribed interviews were then copied into a spreadsheet program to allow the researcher to code the data and sort the data by codes.

**Coding data**

Codes are tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the information compiled during the study (Miles and Huberman, 1984). Data do not come in one amorphous mass (Tesch, 1990). Qualitative researchers typically identify within their data documents, smaller parts that are comprehensible by themselves
and contain one idea or piece of information. The first step in coding data consists of tagging text segments that contain information relating to the particular category (or categories) of the organising system into which it belongs (Tesch, 1990:121).

The following portion of text is taken from the focus group interview with primary school principals.

Question by researcher:

_You have talked about what it is like to be the principal. You have talked about it being lonely and stressful. These are negatives, what are the positives about the role?

Jane responds:

_You get a great buzz when you see things moving ahead, when you see the change, like your philosophy coming through and people getting on board. There is the actual things like a building being completed. That is one sense of satisfaction but it is deeper than that._

This portion of text has meaning and contains one major idea (Tesch, 1990:116). Jane has commented on sources of job satisfaction, such as the shaping of an educational vision found in the statement ‘when you see the change, like your philosophy coming through’.

Data, such as the previous quote, were then coded using the conceptual framework. The codes for these included:

1. Motivation
   1.1. Job satisfaction
   1.2. Job dissatisfaction
   1.3. Perceptions of inducements
2. Life and career planning
   2.1. Personal life situation
   2.2. Incentives
   2.3. Disincentives
   2.4. Perceptions of the role
   2.5. Organisational succession planning
2.6. Personal career planning
2.7. External labour market
2.8. Personal preference
3. Values
   3.1. Alignment
   3.2. Aspirations
   3.3. Extent to which career is central to life
4. Other

The ‘other’ category allowed the researcher to include themes raised by the focus group participants that had not been imposed by the researcher. The coded data were then analysed.
Jane’s comments on what gave her a ‘buzz’ were coded 1.1 as they related to sources of job satisfaction.

Data were initially coded by participant characteristics such as sex, role, sector, and regional location (country or metropolitan). For example, males were coded as 1, females coded 2. Teachers were coded 5, leading teachers coded 6, assistant principals coded 7, and principals were coded 8.

The following is an example of comments made by two participants in the focus group interviews.

Initial coding has been completed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.3 extent to which career is central to life</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The workload is really heavy and I think that people can see that. I will be really selfish and say that lifestyle is really important in deciding whether to move up the ladder. I really enjoy my sport. If I take a position of responsibility like co-ordinator that eats into my life because of meetings every night and I would begrudge that because I like to do things after school.

Using Table 12, it can be seen that the comment was the 18th comment made in that interview. It can be found at the 60 marker on the tape. It was made by a female (2) secondary school (10) teacher (5) from a metropolitan region (3). Using the conceptual framework coding, column 11 shows how this comment has been coded as relating to values issues – the extent to which career is central to life (3.3).

**Table 12 - Focus group coding**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column number</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Place of the comment within the interview order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Place of the comment on the tape</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Comment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1=male/2=female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>3=metropolitan region/4=country region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>5=teacher/6=leading teacher/7=assistant principal/8=principal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>9=primary/10=secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Comments coded relating to motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Comments coded relating to career and life planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Comments coded relating to values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Comments coded relating to other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interview transcripts were the further analysed according to themes. This second layer of the analysis included the themes that emerged from the focus groups. These included:

- Perceptions of the job - principals compared to assistant principals
- Perceptions of the job - principals compared to leading teachers and teachers
Perceptions of incentives and disincentives according to position
- Organisational succession planning
- Personal preference
- Appeal of assistant principal role
- Differences between male and female comments
- Differences between country and metropolitan comments
- Differences between primary and secondary
- Differences for comments made by participants ≤ 30 years old and 30+ years

After the data were coded, everything that belonged to one category was collated together so that the researcher could consider everyone’s attitude towards that issue or idea. The researcher used the analysis of the transcripts according to themes to explore existing themes and identify possible new themes. The following comments provide an example of grouping similar comments on one issue. They were all made by female primary school teachers and were all coded as relating to the appeal of the assistant principal role.

I know people who will go to AP with no intention of going on because they do not want the buck to stop with them. They can sleep a little easier. And if they go out into the corporate world they don’t have that constant stress. The assistant principal is more involved in the running of the school more often now. I know our AP is. ... Our AP is more involved in the nitty gritty bits and pieces, the timetabling, the CRTs that sort of thing. More involved with the daily running of the school. The boss is there as the back up when he’s there. But he’s more often out of the school, more often involved in other things. He’s available for that too but the AP seems to do more of that daily work. Some of them find that they do not have all of those demands and pressures and as many demands on their time as perhaps the principal. So perhaps if they don’t want that ultimate responsibility, the money and everything they’re abrogated from that because there’s somebody above them. It’s a fine line but with a lot of people it’s there. They can say right well I’m AP, my job stops here with someone who’s there above, who is ultimate you know so they are really not quite as responsible. An AP is a defined role. It is quite defined. Once it is operating in a school the AP knows exactly what the AP has to do and that’s what the AP does and no more. Whereas with the principal it seems to be far more open ended.

**Trustworthiness**
There has been significant criticism of the way that qualitative inquiry has been carried out. Lincoln and Guba (1985) offer the following observation that:

The naturalistic inquirer soon becomes accustomed to hearing charges that naturalistic studies are undisciplined; that he or she is guilty of “sloppy” research, engaging in “merely subjective” observations, responding
indiscriminately to the “loudest bangs or brightest lights.” (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:289)

Lincoln and Guba (1985:267) comment that it is imperative that researchers working in this paradigm take measures to increase trustworthiness. They suggest four important questions that need to be answered:

“Truth value”: How can one establish confidence in the “truth” of the findings of a particular inquiry for the subjects (respondents) with which and the context in which the inquiry was carried out?

Applicability: How can one determine the extent to which the findings of a particular inquiry have applicability in other contexts or with other subjects (respondents)?

Consistency: How can one determine whether the findings of an inquiry would be repeated if the inquiry were replicated with the same (or similar) subjects (respondents) in the same (or similar) context?

Neutrality: How can one establish the degree to which the findings of an inquiry are determined by the subjects (respondents) and conditions of the inquiry and not by the biases, motivations, interests, or perspectives of the inquirer? (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:290)

Lincoln and Guba make it clear that the traditional criteria of internal and external validity, reliability and objectivity are unworkable for qualitative research and argue that their criteria for the naturalistic paradigm are more appropriate (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:300). As a result, the trustworthiness criteria of ensuring credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability as proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) were used in this study.

Credibility

Lincoln and Guba suggest five major techniques that increase the credibility of a study (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:301). These include techniques that:

- make it more likely that credible findings and interpretations will be produced (prolonged engagement, persistent observation and triangulation);
- provide an external check on the inquiry process (peer debriefing);
- are aimed at refining working hypotheses as more and more information becomes available (negative case analysis);
- make possible checking preliminary findings and interpretations against archived ‘raw’ data (referential adequacy); and
- provide for the direct test of findings and interpretations with human sources from which they have come (member checking) (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:301).
Credibility for this study was established through the use of triangulation, peer debriefing, and member checking. Data were collected from a variety of groups of participants, from a variety of settings. These included nine groups according to sex, five groups according to school sector, four groups according to promotion level, and nine groups according to regional location. This, combined with the use of survey and interview data collection, fostered considerable triangulation of findings. Peer debriefing was enhanced through regular meetings held with the researcher’s supervisor and also with senior members of DE&T, which exposed the researcher to searching questions by experienced protagonists doing their best to play the devil’s advocate (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:308). Member checking occurred at the time of the focus group interviews. At the conclusion of each focus group interview, the focus group assistant reviewed the notes taken of the interview. Participants were given the opportunity to delete or change comments, and/or make additional comments. Hypotheses were revised until an acceptable fit was reached (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:312).

**Transferability**

Lincoln and Guba (1985:316) offer the opinion that it is impossible, “in a strict sense”, for transferability to be established in studies involving a naturalist methodology since the paradigm assumes multiple realities, and the researcher “can only set out working hypotheses together with a description of the time and context in which they were found to hold”. Lincoln and Guba (1985:316) discuss the researcher’s provision of “thick description” that can “enable someone interested in making a transfer to reach a conclusion about whether transfer can be contemplated as a possibility”. In essence, since the elements that constitute “proper” thick description are not fully developed or defined, the task of the researcher, broadly defined, is to supply sufficient information as to make the judgement of transferability “possible on the part of potential appliers”. This study attempts to satisfy notions of transferability through the provision of the widest possible range of information for inclusion in the thick description. This includes a detailed outline of the stages of the methodological processes employed, and the main features of the interview participants in this study.

**Dependability**

Dependability is parallel to the conventional criterion of reliability (Guba and Lincoln, 1989:242). The underlying issue is whether the process was stable over time and across researchers and methods (Miles and Huberman, 1984:278). To ensure the dependability of this study the researcher ‘took into account the ten questions suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994).
1. Are the research questions clear, and are the features of the study design congruent with them?
2. Is the researcher’s role and status within the site explicitly described?
3. Do findings show meaningful parallelism across data sources (informants, contexts, times)?
4. Are basic paradigms and analytical constructs clearly specified? (Reliability depends in part on its connectedness to theory.)
5. Were data collected across the full range of appropriate settings, times, respondents, and so on suggested by the research questions?
6. If multiple field workers are involved, do they have comparable data collection protocols?
7. Were coding checks made, and did they show adequate agreement?
8. Were data quality checks made (e.g. for bias, deceit, informant knowledgeability?)
9. Do multiple observers’ accounts converge, in instances, settings, or times, when they might be expected to?
10. Were any forms of peer or colleague review in place? (Miles and Huberman, 1994:278)

As is described throughout this methodology chapter, the research questions were clearly articulated and congruent with the study design. The researcher’s role and status was described in written documentation sent to participants prior to the focus group interviews and confirmed at the commencement of each interview. The analytical constructs were clearly specified with strong links to the conceptual framework developed by the researcher. The data were collected from an appropriate range of respondents, as suggested by the research questions. Rigorous coding and quality checks were made by the researcher. Regular and rigorous peer debriefing was provided by the researcher’s supervisor and representatives from DE&T.

**Confirmability**

Confirmability runs parallel to the conventional criterion of objectivity. Guba and Lincoln (1989:243) describe it as ‘concerned with assuring that data, interpretations, and outcomes of inquiries are rooted in contexts and persons apart from the evaluator and are not simply figments of the evaluator’s imagination’.

Confirmability in this study was ensured by following the recommendations of Miles and Huberman (1994:278). The general methods and procedures were described explicitly and in detail. It is possible for others to follow the sequence of how the data were collected, processed, condensed and displayed. The conclusions have been explicitly linked to examples drawn from the data, and finally, study data have been retained and would be available for reanalysis by others (subject to ethical constraints).

**Limitations of the study**
The survey and subsequent focus groups were limited to a representative sample of primary, secondary, and P-12 teachers working in government schools in one state of Australia. Specialist schools specifically enrolling students with particular disabilities were not included in the research. Within the specialist school group there is much variation. The variation within the specialist school group, and the differences between specialist school profiles and the primary, P-12, and secondary sectors meant that it would have been difficult to draw conclusions from the limited data provided, had they been included in the survey. Teachers in Catholic and Independent schools were not included in the research. There is evidence that the profile of teachers in the Catholic sector is sufficiently different to warrant caution in applying the findings of this research (Auditor General, 2001). The researcher considered that again the variations within schools in these sectors and the differences between both Catholic and Independent schools and the government school sector were too great to draw valid conclusions from the one research project.

The survey and focus groups were conducted at a particular time. The career structure within the DE&T changed at the conclusion of the research period. This career restructure posed a limitation to the findings from the research. The findings would be strengthened if the research were to be replicated in the future, to determine the impact of the changes in career structure.

Summary

Following the identification of the research area, an extensive literature review was used to inform the development of specific research questions. A complementary methodology using a survey and focus group interviews were chosen as the most appropriate research instruments to test the three sets of research hypotheses. The survey instrument was designed and tested with senior educational personnel, as well as a range of teachers in government schools. Final surveys were mailed to a random sample of 2000 teachers. Several strategies were used to maximise the return rate.

Appropriate statistical techniques were used to identify the descriptive and inferential statistics from the survey results. An exploratory factor analysis was then conducted. The inferences from these results were used to inform the composition of focus groups and contribute to the question line. A series of nine focus group interviews was held. The focus groups covered differences in sex, school type, school location, position held in the school, and age.

A detailed description of the analysis of these data and the findings are provided in chapter four. These findings are discussed in chapter five. The implications of these findings for future research are presented in the concluding chapter six.
Chapter Four - Research Findings

The analysis and interpretation of data from the survey and focus groups are presented in this chapter. The first section deals with survey data. As described in the methodology chapter, survey data were analysed in three stages. These included descriptive, inferential, and factor analyses. The second section deals with the analysis of the data from the focus groups. The following section describes the response rate and demographic data followed by an analysis of the mean results for the entire sample and specific groups. The results of the factor analysis conclude the survey data analysis.

Survey – data analysis

Descriptive analysis of survey data

The 2000 survey questionnaires were individually addressed and distributed through the mail. One thousand, three hundred and fifty surveys were returned. Four surveys were blank and discarded. Two surveys were received nine weeks after the closing date. Data from these two surveys were not used. This gave a return of 1344 surveys or 67.2%. Each of the returned surveys was numbered. Six hundred and seventy-three (50%) respondents provided contact details expressing a willingness to be interviewed. The mean age of respondents was 44.87 (females 44.00 years, males 45.86 years) with a range of 21 to 66. The mean age of all teachers on the DE&T payroll in December 2000 was 43.8 years.

Response of respondents by region

For DE&T administrative purposes, Victoria is divided into nine regions. In Table 13 the first four regions are located in metropolitan Melbourne and the remaining five regions are country regions. The regional response rate for all nine regions was close to the percentage of the sample with a maximum of 2% variation. There were no significant differences between the achieved sample and the population sample ($t = -2.30$, $df = 3331$, $p > 0.05$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>% of achieved sample</th>
<th>% of population sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Response by school type

As indicated in Table 14, the response by school type was close to the sample. Slightly more primary than secondary teachers
responded. There were no significant differences between the achieved sample and the population sample (t = 1.20, df = 3332, p> 0.05)

Table 14 - Response by school type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School type</th>
<th>% of achieved sample</th>
<th>% of population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>49.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>46.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-12</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Response by school size
As indicated by Table 15, the student enrolment for the achieved sample almost exactly matched the student enrolment of the population.

Table 15 - Achieved sample by school size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student enrolment of achieved sample</th>
<th>Student enrolment of population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maximum 2907</td>
<td>2907</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum 8</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Response by age
The mean age of respondents was 44.9 with a standard deviation of 7.3 years. The age of the respondents ranged from 21-66 years. The age frequency indicates a somewhat bimodal distribution with peaks at 46 (164 respondents) and 51 (139 respondents).
Data from respondents aged 21-30 years and 31+ were further analysed. 4.51% of respondents were aged ≤ 30.

Response by sex
The sex of the respondents closely matched the sample. As indicated in Table 16, there was no significant difference between the achieved sample and the population sample (t = 0.90, df = 3341, p > 0.05).

Table 16 - Percentages of total respondents by sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>% of achieved sample</th>
<th>% of population sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male 40.7</td>
<td>39.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female 59.3</td>
<td>60.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Career profile

The following data provide a career profile of the respondents:

Anticipated age at retirement/resignation

A total of 1316 respondents indicated their intended age of retirement or resignation from teaching. Responses ranged from 29 to 80 years with the mode being 55 (521 responses). The mean retirement/resignation age was 55.74 with a standard deviation of 4.54.

Table 17 indicates the age at which significant numbers of respondents indicated they planned to retire/resign.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intended retirement/resignation age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>29-40</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-49</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54 years 11 months</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>521</td>
<td>39.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67-80</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 17, almost 40% of respondents plan to retire at the earliest age of 55 years. A further 10.4% of respondents indicated that they would resign at 54 or 54 years and 11 months. (Currently, there is a financial incentive for some teachers to resign prior to age 55.) These data indicate that approximately 83.2% of respondents plan to resign from DE&T prior to a minimum retirement age of 55, or retire at 55 years.

Response by current position and classification

At the time of conducting the survey there were eight promotion levels within the DE&T. These included three teacher class and five principal class levels. The principal class level is determined by the school enrolment and school budget. An assistant principal in a large secondary college could have a higher principal class classification than the principal of a smaller school. Table 18 and Table 19 indicate the current position and current classification of respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current position</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>84.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Principal</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 19 - Response by current classification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current classification</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level one teacher</td>
<td>61.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leading teacher 2</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leading teacher 3</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Class Level 1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Class Level 2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Class Level 3</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Class Level 4</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Class Level 5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in Table 18, the majority of respondents were teachers. As discussed earlier, in Victoria the principal class includes assistant principals and principals. A person in a principal class level 1 position could be the principal of a small primary school, or an assistant principal in a larger primary school or a secondary school.

**Years of experience in the current position**

There were 1287 responses to this question from a total of 1344 respondents. The mean number of years of experience in the current role was 11.51 years with a standard deviation of 8.57. The modal response was 1 year with 102 (7.9%) respondents and the median response was 10 years. Responses for years of experience in the current role have been grouped into the categories indicated in Table 20.

Table 20 - Years of experience in the current role

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of experience in current role</th>
<th>% of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-4 years</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-11 years</td>
<td>25.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-17 years</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-39 years</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These data indicate that 47.2% of respondents have been in their current role for twelve years or more. Almost a quarter of respondents had been in their current position for eighteen years or more.

**Unpaid leave**

There were 1330 responses from a total of 1344 respondents to this question. These are shown in Table 21. Four hundred and sixty-four respondents had taken leave-without-pay for more than twelve months (34.4%). Family leave is by far the highest rating reason for teachers taking leave-without-pay.

Table 21 - Reasons for leave-without-pay

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for leave-without-pay</th>
<th>Respondents (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family leave</td>
<td>73.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There was a large variation in the response to the Other category. Some examples of these responses include overseas travel (1.9%), pre-family leave (0.6%), secondment to other government departments (1.7%), teaching in a private school (1.5%), and teaching overseas (1.2%).

### Inferential analysis of survey data

The following sections of the survey sought data on respondents’ aspirations, sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, perception of incentives and disincentives for promotion to principal, and succession planning. Data were analysed for the entire sample and specific groups which generally included sex, regional location, school type, current position, and age.

#### Aspirations

Respondents were asked to indicate from defined categories, their career aspirations when they began teaching, and their current career aspirations. Some respondents provided more than one response.

#### Career commencement aspirations

There were 1316 responses to this question from a total of 1344 respondents who indicated their career aspirations when they began teaching. One hundred and fifty-four of these respondents indicated two or more aspirations, providing a total of 1470 responses, as shown in Table 22.

At the beginning of their teaching career most respondents aspired to be a classroom teacher with responsibilities (35.4%). The next highest group had no conscious aspiration (18.3%). 12.3% of respondents indicated that from the beginning of their career they aspired to being a school principal. Only 5.4% of respondents indicated that they aspired to being an assistant principal.
### Table 22 - Career aspirations when respondents began teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspirations at beginning of career</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Remain a classroom teacher</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remain a classroom teacher with responsibilities, such as year level</td>
<td>522</td>
<td>35.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>co-ordinator, subject/faculty co-ordinator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be an assistant principal</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be a school principal</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hold a regional/central office position</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary/university lecturer</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family duties</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leave education and work elsewhere</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No conscious aspiration</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1470</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The *Other* categories have been coded to include three categories, specialist teacher (8 respondents), counsellor/welfare role (1 respondent), and work part-time (1 respondent). The specialist teacher category included physical education, art and music specialist teachers. The numbers indicate that the *Other* category is not significant.

Career commencement aspirations were analysed by sex, regional location, school type, current position, and age. At the commencement of their career, significant differences were found for sex ($\chi^2 = 121.65$, df = 9, $p < 0.01$), primary/secondary sectors ($\chi^2 = 64.35$, df = 18, $p < 0.01$), and age ($\chi^2 = 18.12$, df = 9, $p < 0.05$). These significant differences were apparent in the following findings:

- more females aspired to *Remain a classroom teacher* or *Teacher with responsibilities* than males.
- more females aspired to the assistant principal than principal position.
- more males aspired to principal than assistant principal position.
- more primary than secondary teachers aspired to the principal position.
- nearly three times as many respondents aged $\leq 30$ wanted to Leave education and work elsewhere than those aged $31+$.

**Current career aspiration**

One thousand, three hundred and four respondents from a total of 1344 indicated their current career aspirations. One hundred and seventy-eight of these indicated two or more current career aspirations providing a total of 1482 responses, as shown in Table 23. When comparing career commencement and current aspirations, there was an increase of 2% in the number of respondents who wished to remain a classroom teacher. There was a small decrease in the number of respondents who wished to remain a classroom teacher with responsibilities. The number of respondents currently aspiring to the assistant principal position had
more than doubled from 5.4% to 11.6%. There was a small decrease in those aspiring to be a principal (12.3% to 11.9%). There was an increase in the number of respondents who indicated a current aspiration to hold a regional or central position.

Table 23 - Current career aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current aspiration</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Remain a classroom teacher</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remain a classroom teacher with responsibilities, such as year level co-ordinator, subject/faculty co-ordinator</td>
<td>513</td>
<td>34.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be an assistant principal</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be a school principal</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hold a regional/central office position</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College/university lecturer</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family duties</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leave education and work elsewhere</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No conscious aspiration</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Other category has been re-coded to seven categories. These surveys were re-coded to ascertain potential patterns in the Other category. The re-coded data included: retire (13 respondents), specialist teacher (9 respondents) remain a principal (4 respondents), travel (2 respondents), counsellor/welfare role (6 respondents), consultant (1 respondent), and other (10 respondents). Three surveys were re-coded to the 1-9 scale. These included people who had responded on the Other section with a response such as ‘full-time curriculum development’ which was classified as ‘Leave education and work elsewhere’. Current aspirations were analysed by sex, regional location, school type, current position, and years in current position. There was no significant difference for current career aspirations between teachers in metropolitan and country regions. Significant differences for current aspirations were found for sex ($\chi^2 = 70.29$, df = 9, $p<0.01$), primary and secondary sectors ($\chi^2 = 32.55$, df = 18, $p < 0.05$), length of time in current position ($\chi^2 = 214.96$, df = 45, $p < 0.01$) and age ($\chi^2 = 47.43$, df = 9, $p < 0.01$). These significant differences were apparent in the following findings:

- More females than males indicated that they currently aspired to Remain a classroom teacher or Remain a classroom teacher with responsibilities.
- More female teachers currently aspired to the assistant principal role than principal.
- When comparing current career aspirations with career commencement aspirations, there was an increase in both males and females aspiring to the assistant principal.
- More males than females aspired to the principal role.
- More primary teachers had principal or assistant principal as a career aspiration than secondary teachers.
There was a significant difference between the current aspirations of respondents who had been in their current position for fewer than five years and those who had been in their current position for more than ten years. Respondents who had been in their current position for fewer than five years were more likely to aspire to be an assistant principal or a principal. Those respondents who had been in their position for more than ten years were likely to aspire to remain a classroom teacher or a classroom teacher with responsibilities.

- Half as many respondents aged \( \leq 30 \) aspire to remain a classroom teacher as do respondents aged \( 31+ \).
- Less than half as many respondents aged \( \leq 30 \) aspire to be a school principal as do respondents aged \( 31+ \).
- Twice as many respondents aged \( \leq 30 \) aspire to leave education and work elsewhere as do respondents aged \( 31+ \).
- 50% of the respondents \( \leq 30 \) who aspired to be a principal at the beginning of their career no longer aspire to being a school principal.
- There was a considerable increase in the percentage of \( \leq 30 \) respondents who now aspire to leave education and work elsewhere. This was the second career choice for this group.
- All respondents in this group \( \leq 30 \) had a career aspiration.

These findings indicate two points of particular interest. Firstly, they indicate the increasing attractiveness of the assistant principal position, rather than the principal position to those teachers with leadership aspirations. The assistant principal position appears to have become more attractive, particularly to women as they progress through their career. Secondly, young teachers have leadership aspirations but not within education. These data indicate that young teachers do not see education as their sole career choice until retirement.

**Sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction**

Respondents were asked to rate their current level of satisfaction on 18 work-related factors. A score of 1-5 was used. 1 indicated a high level of dissatisfaction. 5 indicated a high level of satisfaction. The results are indicated in Table 24. The bold number indicates the modal percentage score for each factor. The mean has also been calculated. The following table lists the factors in the order that they appeared in the survey. The final scale asked respondents to rate their overall level of satisfaction.
Table 24 - Sources of satisfaction in current role
(percentage for each rating, modal, and mean score)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>High Dissatisfaction</th>
<th>High Satisfaction</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A sense of achievement through work</td>
<td>1 5 19 50 25</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition by others of your work</td>
<td>4 12 32 38 15</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work itself (the nature of the work, teaching preferred subjects, year levels, your duties and responsibilities)</td>
<td>1 6 23 50 20</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Areas of responsibility</td>
<td>2 6 29 46 16</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities for promotion or advancement</td>
<td>13 20 38 22 7</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect of job on personal life</td>
<td>12 31 37 18 4</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal workplace relationships with teachers</td>
<td>2 4 21 52 21</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal workplace relationships with students</td>
<td>1 2 12 47 39</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal workplace relationships with parents</td>
<td>2 5 30 48 16</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal workplace relationships with other DEET personnel</td>
<td>3 13 49 28 7</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEET policies and practices</td>
<td>8 27 49 14 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School policies and practices</td>
<td>3 13 37 41 6</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision of your work</td>
<td>3 8 46 35 8</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>13 28 34 23 3</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical working conditions</td>
<td>11 26 27 28 9</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequacy of administrative support</td>
<td>10 21 28 30 11</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensity of work</td>
<td>14 33 33 17 2</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of the working day</td>
<td>12 25 38 21 5</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The five factors with the highest rating scores indicating the highest levels of satisfaction were:

- Interpersonal workplace relationships with students: 4.21
- A sense of achievement through work: 3.92
- Interpersonal workplace relationships with teachers: 3.87
- Work itself (the nature of the work, teaching preferred subjects, year levels, your duties and responsibilities): 3.81
- Interpersonal workplace relations with parents: 3.72

These data indicate that satisfaction comes from relating to people and personal achievement.

The five factors with the lowest rating scores indicating the highest levels of dissatisfaction were:

- Intensity of the work: 2.63
- Effect of job on personal life: 2.71
- DEET policies and practices: 2.73
- Salary: 2.75
- Length of the working day: 2.81

These five factors have been identified in previous research as sources of dissatisfaction. Satisfaction does not appear to come from work conditions, such as physical working conditions, or amount of administrative support, rather it comes through the strength of the interpersonal workplace relationships and the work itself.

Sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction have been analysed by sex, regional location, school type, and current position. Significant differences for sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction included:

**Females had significantly higher levels of satisfaction than males for:**
- A sense of achievement through work (t = 2.97, df = 1329, p < 0.01)
- Opportunities for promotion or advancement (t = 3.99, df = 1320, p < 0.01)
- Interpersonal workplace relationships with students (t = 2.62, df = 1333, p < 0.01)

**Females had significantly higher levels of dissatisfaction than males for:**

**Males had significantly higher levels of dissatisfaction for:**
- DEET policies and practices (t = 5.72, df = 1326, p < 0.01)
- School policies and practices (t = 3.37, df = 1332, p < 0.01)
- Supervision of your work (t = 4.18, df = 1294, p < 0.01)
- Salary (t = 5.97, df = 1332, p < 0.01)

Respondents from country regions rated the following factors as significantly higher sources of satisfaction than respondents from metropolitan regions.
Interpersonal workplace relationships with teachers \( (t = 0.31, \ \text{df} = 1324, \ \ p < 0.05) \)

Interpersonal workplace relationships with parents \( (t = 1.27, \ \text{df} = 1317, \ \ p < 0.05) \)

Interpersonal workplace relationships with students \( (t = 0.92, \ \text{df} = 1323, \ \ p < 0.05) \)

School policies and practices \( (t = 2.63, \ \text{df} = 1322, \ \ p < 0.05) \)

Supervision of your work \( (t = 1.91, \ \text{df} = 1286, \ \ p < 0.05) \)

Data indicate that there are significant differences in levels of satisfaction between respondents from metropolitan and country regions. Respondents from country regions had significantly higher levels of satisfaction for the following:

Interpersonal workplace relations with teachers \( (t = 0.31, \ \text{df} = 1324, \ \ p < 0.05) \)

Interpersonal workplace relations with students \( (t = 0.92, \ \text{df} = 1323, \ \ p < 0.05) \)

Interpersonal workplace relations with parents \( (t = 1.27, \ \text{df} = 1317, \ \ p < 0.05) \)

DEET policies and practices \( (t = 1.07, \ \text{df} = 1317, \ \ p < 0.05) \)

School policies and practices \( (t = 2.63, \ \text{df} = 1322, \ \ p < 0.05) \)

Supervision of your work \( (t = 1.91, \ \text{df} = 1286, \ \ p < 0.05) \)

Salary \( (t = 4.48, \ \text{df} = 1322, \ \ p < 0.01) \)

Respondents from both country and metropolitan regions rated ‘Salary’ low, indicating that current salary levels are a source of dissatisfaction. Respondents from metropolitan regions rated salary at a significantly lower level than did teachers from country regions \( (t = 4.48, \ \text{df} = 1322, \ \ p < 0.01) \).

There were differences in levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction between primary, secondary and P-12 schools. The level of satisfaction for respondents from secondary schools was lower than respondents from primary schools or P-12 schools, in 11 of the 18 factors.

Respondents from primary schools and respondents from P-12 schools rated \textit{Length of the working day} significantly lower than respondents from secondary schools, indicating this is a strong source of dissatisfaction. \( (F = 24.95, \ \text{df} = 2, \ \ p < 0.01) \)

There were differences by current position.

Teachers had the lowest levels of satisfaction for 11 of the 18 factors.

Assistant principals had the highest levels of satisfaction. They had the highest score for 11 of the 18 items and the second highest score for six of the remaining seven items.

Principals had the greatest variation in their rating of sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Data indicated that some factors were a strong source of satisfaction and other factors were equally strong sources of dissatisfaction.
received high levels of satisfaction from the following items: 
*Sense of achievement through work, Work itself, Interpersonal relationships with students, School policies and practices and Physical working conditions*. The four items which principals gave the lowest rating are strong sources of dissatisfaction. These were *Effect of job on personal life, Supervision of your work, Adequacy of administrative support and Intensity of work*.

There were differences by age (≤30 compared to >31). The age ≤30 group rated the satisfaction items in a similar order to the whole group. Ten of the 18 items were rated significantly higher by the ≤30 age group than the >31 age group. These included:
- Areas of responsibility (*t* = 3.59, df = 1325, *p* < 0.01)
- Opportunities for promotion or advancement (*t* = 5.52, df = 1321, *p* < 0.01)
- Effect of job on personal life (*t* = 3.97, df = 1324, *p* < 0.01)
- Interpersonal workplace relations with students (*t* = 2.32, df = 1334, *p* < 0.05)
- DEET policies and practices (*t* = 3.75, df = 1327, *p* < 0.01)
- Supervision of your work (*t* = 2.16, df = 1295, *p* < 0.05)
- Physical working conditions (*t* = 2.55, df = 1330, *p* < 0.01)
- Adequacy of administrative support (*t* = 2.84, df = 1331, *p* < 0.01)
- Intensity of work (*t* = 4.09, df = 1331, *p* < 0.01)
- Length of the working day (*t* = 4.04, df = 1330, *p* < 0.01)

For the ≤30 group *Salary* is the only item with a mean score of less than 3.00 whereas their older colleagues gave seven items a mean rating of less than 3.00, indicating overall higher levels of satisfaction for the ≤30 group than the 31+ group.

The age ≤30 group rated eleven of the eighteen items higher than teachers, assistant principals and principals. This is not surprising when it is noted that respondents with fewer than six years in their current positions had higher overall levels of satisfaction than respondents who had been in their current position for more than six years.

**Current overall level of satisfaction**

Respondents were asked to rate their current overall level of satisfaction. There were 1333 responses to this question. Results are provided in Table 25. The data in this table indicate a moderate level of overall job satisfaction. (The mode response is indicated in bold.)
Table 25 - Current overall level of satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>High Dissatisfaction</th>
<th>High Satisfaction</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is your current overall level of</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>satisfaction?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents’ overall levels of satisfaction were analysed by sex, regional location, school type, position, and length of time in current position. Significant differences for respondents’ current overall level of satisfaction included:

Respondents from metropolitan regions had a significantly lower Overall level of satisfaction than did respondents from country regions ($t = 2.73$, $df = 1321$, $p < 0.01$).

Respondents from secondary schools had a significantly lower Overall level of satisfaction than primary or P-12 respondents ($F = 9.92$, $df = 2$, $p < 0.01$).

Assistant principals rated their current level of satisfaction significantly higher than either teachers or principals ($F = 9.92$, $df = 2$, $p < 0.01$).

Respondents age ≤30 had a significantly higher Overall level of satisfaction than respondents age 31+ ($t = 3.20$, $df = 1331$, $p < 0.01$).

Teachers who were new to a position had the highest levels of overall satisfaction in their role. Levels of satisfaction dropped the longer a teacher remained in a specific position. Respondents who had been in their current position for fewer than six years had significantly higher levels of satisfaction than respondents who had been in their current position for sixteen or more years ($p < 0.05$). Levels of satisfaction remained steady from one to five years in a position then dropped steadily over the six to sixteen year period to reach a significantly low point at sixteen years in the position.

Respondents who indicated that they had had access to a mentor had significantly higher levels of satisfaction than respondents who had not had access to a mentor ($t = 4.40$, $df = 1318$, $p < 0.01$).

Respondents who indicated that they had participated in leadership programs had significantly higher levels of satisfaction than respondents who had not participated in leadership programs ($t = 2.71$, $df = 1303$, $p < 0.01$).

**Incentives and disincentives for promotion to principal**

Respondents were asked to use a five-point scale to indicate which items would act as an incentive or disincentive for them to aspire to be a school principal. One indicated a strong incentive. Three indicated neither and incentive nor a disincentive. Five indicated a strong incentive. Thirty-two items were listed. These were grouped into four categories. **Personal factors** included 12 items, **Nature of the work** included 16 items and **Outcomes of the work** included three items. Respondents were given the opportunity to include an additional item of their choice. The results are provided in Table 26. The bold number indicates the modal percentage score for each item. The mean has also been calculated. The following table lists the items in the order that they appeared in the survey.
Table 26 - Incentives and disincentives for promotion to principal (percentage for each rating, modal, and mean score)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Strong Disincentive</th>
<th>Strong Incentive</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Personal factors</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Effect on family</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>30 21 4 2</td>
<td>1.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Professional development opportunities provided</td>
<td>4 12 49 28 8</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Self-improvement opportunities provided</td>
<td>3 9 40 37 11</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Job security</td>
<td>2 10 48 30 10</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Gaining new skills</td>
<td>1 4 29 50 16</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Leaving workplace colleagues</td>
<td>9 29 58 4 1</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Joining principal collegiate group</td>
<td>8 15 56 18 3</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Offer of increasing responsibilities and autonomy</td>
<td>6 17 35 33 9</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Location of the school</td>
<td>4 11 42 29 13</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. Level of remuneration</td>
<td>6 11 32 36 16</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. Access to benefits (such as car leasing arrangements)</td>
<td>5 8 55 25 8</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. New challenges provided by the job</td>
<td>3 6 27 44 20</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Nature of the work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Incentive / Disincentive</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Cumulative Total</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>45. Control over work schedule</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. Meaningful, interesting and challenging work</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. Bonus pay or incentives based on performance</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. Access to flexible time</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. Access to decision makers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. Autonomy to make decisions</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51. No/less direct teaching role</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52. Support from DEET senior officers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53. Individual workplace culture</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54. Stress level of the job</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>48</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55. Impact of societal problems on the role</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56. Time required by the job</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57. Accountability requirements</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58. Demands of parents and/or community</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59. Adequacy of school budget</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60. Community attitudes towards principals</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Outcomes of the work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Cumulative Total</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>61. Opportunity to impact on the learning environment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62. Opportunity to motivate others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63. Opportunity to shape an educational vision</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64. Other</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were 108 responses in the Other category. Fourteen of these responses were re-coded into questions 33-63. These included individual comments such as ‘Personal and professional growth’ which was re-coded to item 35 from the survey, Self-improvement opportunities provided.

The remaining 92 responses have been re-coded into twelve categories to ascertain potential patterns in the data arising from the Other category. These included politics (2), job selection processes (6), sense of achievement (8), relationships with staff (1), time commitment (6), impact on health (4), control over staffing issues (6), impact on school culture (7), impact on individual students (8), conflict on role requirements (4), frustration with other staff (4), and other (36). The 36 ‘other’ categories include responses such as ‘too late in my career’, ‘age’, ‘just not interested’, and respondents who rated ‘other’ but gave no explanation.

Of the 32 listed incentives and disincentives for promotion to principal:

The five strongest incentives were:

- Opportunity to motivate others: 4.02
- Opportunity to impact on the learning environment: 4.01
- Opportunity to shape an educational vision: 4.01
- Meaningful, interesting and challenging work: 3.75
The five strongest disincentives were:

- Level of the job
- Ne required by the job
- Effect on family
- Impact of societal problems on the role
- Adequacy of school budget

Those incentives/disincentives that rated in the middle, that is those that do not appear to be an incentive or disincentive, generally come from the Personal Factors. Those items rated as incentives were generally Outcomes of the Work. The items rated as disincentives were generally from the Nature of the Work factors.

Incentives and disincentives for promotion to principal have been analysed by sex, regional location, school type, current position, and age.

The three items under Outcomes of the Work were the highest-rating items. These three items (Opportunity to impact on the learning environment, Opportunity to motivate others, and Opportunity to shape an educational vision), were the only items that rated above 4.00 for both males and females. These data indicated that these three items were strong incentives for both males and females.

Significant differences for incentives and disincentives for promotion to principal included:

For incentives:
- Females rated the following seven items as greater disincentives than males.
  - Effect on the family (t = 2.95, df = 1324, p < 0.01)
  - Offer of increasing responsibilities (t = 4.61, df = 1317, p < 0.01)
  - No/less direct teaching role (t = 4.12, df = 1317, p < 0.01)
  - Stress level of the job (t = 3.58, df = 1317, p < 0.01)
  - Accountability requirements (t = 4.12, df = 1322, p < 0.01)
  - Demands of parents and/or the community (t = 4.98, df = 1324, p < 0.01)
  - Community attitudes towards principals (t = 4.03, df = 1323, p < 0.01)

For disincentives:
- Males rated the following items as a greater disincentive than females.
  - Bonus pay or incentives based on performance (t = 6.09, df = 1320, p < 0.01)

Respondents from country regions rated the following item as a greater disincentive than respondents from metropolitan regions:
- Impact of societal problems on the role (t = 2.33, df = 1307, p < 0.05)
Respondents from metropolitan regions rated the following items as greater disincentives than respondents from country regions.

Demands of parents and/or community (t = 2.21, df = 1314, p < 0.05)
Adequacy of the school budget (t = 2.64, df = 1311, p < 0.01)

All groups rated Stress level of the job as a disincentive. It was rated as a significantly greater disincentive for respondents from primary schools. (F = 4.40, df = 2, p < 0.01)
Teachers viewed incentives and disincentives significantly differently to principals and assistant principals.

Teaching did not identify any strong incentives to promote to principal. Teachers only rated three items as moderate incentives. These items were Access to benefits, Bonus pay or incentives based on performance, and Access to flexible time.
Teachers identified a number of moderate to strong disincentives. Of the 31 incentives and disincentives listed, teachers gave 27 factors the lowest mean rating. Teachers indicated the following factors as strong disincentives:

- Effect on family life
- Leaving workplace colleagues
- No/less teaching role
- Stress level of the job
- Impact of societal problems on the role
- Time required by the job
- Accountability requirements
- Demands of parents and/or the community
- Adequacy of the school budget
- Community attitudes towards principals

Principals and assistant principals identified a number of similar items as incentives for promotion. Principals and assistant principals rated the following items as significantly stronger incentives than did teachers.
Self-improvement opportunities provided (F = 13.07, df = 2, p < 0.01)
Gaining new skills (F = 15.20, df = 2, p < 0.01)
Joining principal collegiate group (F = 46.23, df = 2, p < 0.01)
Offer of increasing responsibilities and autonomy (F = 37.57, df = 2, p < 0.01)
Location of school (F = 27.60, df = 2, p < 0.01)
New challenges provided by the job (F = 27.49, df = 2, p < 0.01)
Meaningful, interesting, challenging work (F = 21.86, df = 2, p < 0.01)
Autonomy to make decisions (F = 22.41, df = 2, p < 0.01)
Individual workplace culture (F = 36.55, df = 2, p < 0.01)
Opportunity to impact on the learning environment (F = 23.09, df = 2, p < 0.01)
Opportunity to motivate others (F = 27.68, df = 2, p < 0.01)
Opportunity to shape an educational vision ($F = 27.89, df = 2, p < 0.01$)

Respondents age $\leq 30$ rated all but two items higher than the respondents age $31+$. Respondents age $\leq 30$ rated nineteen of the thirty-two items significantly higher than did the respondents age $31+$. Professional development opportunities provided ($t = 1.93, df = 1321, p < 0.01$)

Self improvement opportunities provided ($t = 4.86, df = 1322, p < 0.01$)
Job security ($t = 3.20, df = 1323, p < 0.01$)
Gaining new skill ($t = 3.39, df = 1320, p < 0.01$)
Access to benefits ($t = 3.45, df = 1323, p < 0.01$)
New challenges provided by the job ($t = 3.35, df = 1321, p < 0.01$)
Control over work schedule ($t = 2.22, df = 1313, p = 0.05$)
Meaningful, interesting, challenging work ($t = 4.51, df = 1322, p < 0.01$)
Bonus pay or incentives based on performance ($t = 5.35, df = 1321, p < 0.01$)
Access to flexible time ($t = 3.64, df = 1316, p < 0.01$)
Access to decision makers ($t = 2.69, df = 1319, p < 0.01$)
No/less direct teaching role ($t = -3.12, df = 1318, p < 0.01$)
Impact of societal problems on the role ($t = 2.50, df = 1318, p < 0.01$)
Time required by the job ($t = 3.24, df = 1325, p < 0.01$)
Accountability requirements ($t = 2.07, df = 1323, p < 0.05$)
Demands of parents and/or community ($t = 2.23, df = 1324, p < 0.05$)
Opportunity to impact on the learning environment ($t = 2.83, df = 1318, p < 0.01$)
Opportunity to motivate others ($t = 2.93, df = 1320, p < 0.01$)
Opportunity to shape an educational vision ($t = 2.87, df = 1319, p < 0.01$)

The four highest rating items (incentives) were the same for both groups.

Opportunity to motivate others
Opportunity to shape an educational vision
Opportunity to impact on the learning environment
Meaningful, interesting, challenging work

Four of the five lowest rating items (disincentives) were the same for both groups.
Stress level of the job
Time required by the job
Effect on family
Adequacy of the school budget

**Succession planning**

Career supporters
Respondents were asked to indicate individuals who have helped in their career progress to date. The results are shown in Table 27. Many respondents indicated more than one individual, resulting in 716 respondents identifying a total of 5526 career supporters. One hundred and ninety-one respondents indicated only one individual as a career helper.

Table 27 - Individuals who have helped in the respondent's career progress to date

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career supporters</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>% of total number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>939</td>
<td>71.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Principal</td>
<td>716</td>
<td>54.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leading Teacher</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>50.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional/Central person</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>734</td>
<td>55.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>25.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siblings</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend/s</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>32.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-school sponsor</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University lecturer</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One hundred and seventy respondents ticked the Other category for career helpers. This included one hundred and seventeen respondents who added wife, husband, partner or spouse to the Other category. ‘Partner/Spouse’ was not included in the survey, yet clearly it seems to be an important category. This gives a minimum response of 12.9% for this category. It seems likely that had partner/spouse been included as a stated category of career helper this number would have been higher.

The remaining career helpers identified by respondents in the Other category are spread over a wide range of individuals. These include extended family (28), AEU/Union (4), and Students (7). Three respondents identified the Eleanor Davis Program. This is a DE&T sponsored mentor program matching aspiring leaders with experienced school principals in which the aspirants shadow the allocated mentor principal in the principal’s school for a two week period. As the question asked respondents to identify individuals who have helped in career progress to date, it will be assumed that respondents were indicating the principal mentor as the individual.

Data indicate that members of the principal class and leading teachers provide much career support to teachers and each other.

**Access to a mentor**

The importance of mentors in career planning has been long recognised (Daws, 1995; Duffrin, 2001). The importance of mentors as a powerful strategy to support women aspiring to leadership is also now well recognised (Bellamy and Ramsay, 1994; Crampton and Mishra, 1999; Ehrich, 1995; Gupton and...
Respondents were asked to indicate if they had had access to a mentor during their career. The term mentor was defined in the survey as follows:

*Some people develop a long-term one-to-one relationship with a mentor. This is a more senior (not necessarily older) educational leader who has been able to support you to learn things more quickly, earlier or that you otherwise would not have learnt. The mentor relationship might have developed as part of a formal program or informally through personal or professional contacts.*

There were 1330 responses to this question. The results are shown in Table 28.

### Table 28 - Access to a mentor during respondent's career

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Access to a mentor</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>51.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>48.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These data indicate that close to 50% of respondents had had access to a mentor during their career but as the Table 29 indicates, very few of these had developed as part of a formal program. 63% of the respondents who indicated that they had had access to a mentor were female (61% of all respondents were female).

A significantly greater percentage of respondents age ≤30 had had access to a mentor.

### Table 29 - Percentage of formal and informal mentor relationships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of mentor relationship</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>85.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were 685 responses to the question indicating the formality of the mentor relationship.

### Access to succession planning processes

Respondents were asked to indicate if they had worked in a school that had a succession planning process. There were a total of 1293 respondents to this question from a total of 1344 respondents. Table 30 and Table 31 show the percentage of respondents who had worked in a school with a succession planning process and indicate whether this was a formal or informal process.

A total of 272 respondents indicated the level of formality of the succession planning process. Few respondents indicated that they had worked in schools with succession planning processes (20%). Of these succession planning processes, 60% were identified as informal.
Table 30 - Percentage of respondents who had worked in a school with a succession planning process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Access to succession planning</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the positive responses, 63% were from females (61% of all respondents were female).

Table 31 - Percentage of formal and informal succession planning processes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of succession planning process</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>39.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>60.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Impact of succession planning program

Respondents were asked to indicate the impact of the succession planning programs on their career using a 1 (low) - 5 (high) point scale. The results are shown in Table 32.

Table 32 - Impact of succession planning processes on respondent's career

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Freq</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Impact of the succession planning process on my career</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>367</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The respondents who had worked in schools with succession planning processes indicated a low to moderate level of impact of these programs on their career.

Leadership programs

Respondents were asked to indicate whether they had participated in leadership programs. There were a total of 1315 respondents to this question. The results are shown in Table 33.

Table 33 - Impact of leadership program on respondent's career

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Provider</th>
<th>Impact low</th>
<th>Impact high</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Freq</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School based leadership program</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEET leadership program</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External provider</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

57.7% of respondents indicated that they had participated in leadership programs. 54% of the positive responses were from females (61% of all respondents were female).

Respondents indicated the impact of the leadership programs on their career using a 1 (low) - 5 (high) point scale.

Regional location or school type did not have a significant impact on access to succession planning, mentors, or leadership programs.
Factor analysis
The factor analysis was conducted using the eighteen items from the ‘Sources of satisfaction in your current role’ section of the questionnaire and 31 items from the ‘Incentives and disincentives for promotion to principal’ section of the questionnaire. Two items from these sections were omitted from the factor analysis. They were ‘What is your current overall level of satisfaction?’ and Incentives and disincentives for promotion to principal – Other – describe. The Current overall level of satisfaction was omitted because it was believed to be influenced by the remaining individual items included in this section. The Other category for incentives and disincentives included a disparate collection of responses that did not form one coherent response.

The process used for the factor analysis was described in chapter three.

Data reduction
Both the eigenvalues and a scree plot were used to determine the number of factors from the principal component analysis. Using Kaiser’s criterion, 11 factors were identified with an eigenvalue greater than one. These values are shown in Table 34 - Eigenvalue > 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>% of variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.76805</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.95186</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.04804</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.05126</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.55930</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.44329</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.38443</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.21980</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.18873</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.06564</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.02785</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 34 it can be seen that the amount of variance accounted for decreases appreciably up to factor four and thereafter diminishes more gradually. This suggests that a four or five factor solution may be appropriate.
The scree plot in Figure 5 - Factor Scree Plot indicates that up to six factors could be included in the factor analysis, as after the sixth factor the eigen values distinctly level off. However, as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996:635), ‘What you are looking for is the point where a line drawn through the points changes direction.’ Both the eigen values and the scree plot show three distinct factors before any levelling off, or change in direction, occurs. The proportion of variance accounted for within each factor indicates that factors five and six each only account for close to 3% of variance with factor four accounting for close to 4% of variance. It was decided to rotate for three through six factors and make the final decision on the number of factors retained based upon the distinctiveness of the factors and the conceptual worth of the rotated solutions.

**Rotation of factors**

The factors were rotated to determine the final solution. The *oblimin* method in SPSS was chosen as the method of rotation because the sources of satisfaction items were considered to be related to the incentives and disincentives to promote items. The *oblimin* rotation was conducted for three, four, five, and six factor solutions with Delta set at 0.0 to produce a fairly oblique solution (Kim, 1985:486). The structure matrix was used to interpret the factors. The scree plot indicated a distinct tapering off of factors from factor three. The four, five, and six factor rotated solutions were rejected. In each solution for four, five and six factors, the fourth, fifth, and sixth factors contained only one, two, or no unique items. That is, most of the individual items in each of these solutions appeared in more than one factor and in some cases items appeared in three factors. The three factor solution with the
Delta set at 0.1 was identified as providing the best fit. This solution provided a reasonably clear delineation between factors with high numbers of items unique to each factor. When overlaying the results of the factor analysis on the conceptual framework logical groupings emerged. The three factor solution supported the two aspects of the conceptual framework that were examined through the survey – work motivation and career and life planning factors.

**Interpretation of factors**

Using the rotated solution three factors were extracted. Items with a correlation of less than 0.3 were omitted from consideration (Bryman and Cramer, 1997). Table 35 lists the items included in each factor with a correlation of ≥ 0.3. The percentage of variance accounted for by each factor has been included. These three factors in total accounted for 38.3% of variance. The shaded items indicate an item unique to that factor.
Table 35 - Items in each factor with a correlation of ≥ 0.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item #</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Correlation of ≥ 0.3</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>Control over work schedule</td>
<td>.5948</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.3222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>Meaningful, interesting and challenging work</td>
<td>.7812</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.3257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>Bonus pay or incentives based on performance</td>
<td>.3677</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Access to flexible time</td>
<td>.5666</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>Access to decision makers</td>
<td>.7626</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Autonomy to make decisions</td>
<td>.7117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>Support from DEET senior officers</td>
<td>.5566</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td>Individual workplace culture</td>
<td>.6078</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>Stress level of the job</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.7682</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>Impact of societal problems on the role</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.6799</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>Time required by the job</td>
<td>.3105</td>
<td>.7841</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>Accountability requirements</td>
<td>.3837</td>
<td>.6919</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>Demands of parents and/or community</td>
<td>.3429</td>
<td>.6962</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>Adequacy of school budget</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.5406</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>Community attitudes towards principals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.5816</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>Opportunity to impact on the learning environment</td>
<td>.7584</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62</td>
<td>Opportunity to motivate others</td>
<td>.7802</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>Opportunity to shape an educational vision</td>
<td>.7746</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Effect on family</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.5769</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Professional development opportunities provided</td>
<td>.5237</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Self-improvement opportunities provided</td>
<td>.5999</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>.4653</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>Gaining new skills</td>
<td>.7049</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.4128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>Leaving workplace colleagues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>Joining principal collegiate group</td>
<td>.5505</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Description of each factor

The items in each factor have been analysed to determine patterns, consistencies and inconsistencies. Each of the three factors was given a descriptive label. Following is a description of each factor viewed through the lens of the conceptual framework.

### Factor one: Individual growth and self-actualisation

This factor comprised 24 items. All items were from the ‘Incentives to promote to principal’ section of the survey. Twelve of the items related to the personal challenges of the job and personal growth or self actualisation such as, *Meaningful, interesting, challenging work, Self improvement opportunities provided*. Seven items related to the nature of the work such as *Time required by the job, Demands of parents and/or community*. The remaining five items related to personal aspects of the work such as *Location of the school, Access to benefits*. 

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item #</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Correlation of ≥ 0.3</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>Factor 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Offer of increasing responsibilities and autonomy</td>
<td>.6181</td>
<td>.4458</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Location of the school</td>
<td>.4666</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>Level of remuneration</td>
<td>.4932</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>Access to benefits</td>
<td>.4403</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>New challenges provided by the job</td>
<td>.7600</td>
<td>.3340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>A sense of achievement through work</td>
<td>.6528</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Recognition by others of your work</td>
<td>.6120</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Work itself</td>
<td>.6163</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Areas of responsibility</td>
<td>.6156</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Opportunities for promotion or advancement</td>
<td>.5471</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Effect of job on personal life</td>
<td>.5620</td>
<td>.3232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Interpersonal workplace relationships with teachers</td>
<td>.5422</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Interpersonal workplace relationships with students</td>
<td>.5287</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Interpersonal workplace relationships with parents</td>
<td>.5729</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Interpersonal workplace relationships with other DEET personnel</td>
<td>.5223</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>DEET policies and practices</td>
<td>.5556</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>School policies and practices</td>
<td>.6610</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Supervision of your work</td>
<td>.5642</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>.4351</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Physical working conditions</td>
<td>.5451</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Adequacy of administrative support</td>
<td>.6279</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Intensity of work</td>
<td>.6124</td>
<td>.3874</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Length of the working day</td>
<td>.3841</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Proportion of variance 22.0% 10.1% 6.2%
Seventeen of the 24 items were unique to this factor. Eight of the unique items were rated as strong incentives to promote. These included, *Opportunity to impact on the learning environment, Opportunity to motivate others, Opportunity to shape an educational vision, Professional development opportunities provided, Gaining new skills, Joining principal collegiate group, and Autonomy to make decisions*. The first three of these items were rated as extremely strong incentives to promote to principal by all respondents. The items that appeared in more than one factor also appeared in Factor three. No two items appeared in Factors one and two. Factor one and Factor three are linked. Factor one grouped incentives and disincentives to promote and has been labelled Individual Growth and Self Actualisation.
Figure 6 - Factor one leading to principal class leadership aspirations


**Factor two: Motivation**

Factor two comprised 18 items. All items were from the ‘Sources of satisfaction’ section of the survey. Factor two has 16 items that were unique to that factor. These included a number of items that provide a source of satisfaction, *Interpersonal workplace relationships with teachers*, *Interpersonal workplace relationships with parents*, *Interpersonal workplace relationships with other DEET personnel*, *Work itself*, and *School policies and practices*. It also included a number of items that provide a source of job dissatisfaction. These included, *Opportunities for promotion or advancement*, *DEET policies and practices*, *Supervision of your work*, *Physical working conditions*, *Recognition of your work by others*, and *Adequacy of administrative support*. Factor two groups items related to satisfaction and dissatisfaction and has been labelled Motivation factors.
Figure 7 - Factor two leading to principal class leadership aspirations
Factor three: Job stressors

Factor three comprised 15 items. Ten of these items were rated as disincentives to promote to principal by survey respondents. These items included, Control over work schedule, Stress level of the job, Impact of societal problems on the role, Time required by the job, Accountability requirements, Demands of parents and/or the school community, Community attitudes towards principals, Adequacy of the school budget, Effect on the family, and Leaving workplace colleagues. An additional two items were strong sources of dissatisfaction. These included Effect of job on personal life and Intensity of the work. Seven of the items were also listed in factor one. Two items were also listed in Factor two. This factor comprised six items that were unique to that factor. These included Stress level of the job, Impact of societal problems on the job, Adequacy of the school budget, Community attitudes towards principals, Effect on family, and Leaving workplace colleagues. These six items were all job stressors. Nine of the 15 items were described in the survey as the ‘Nature of the work’. This factor is linked to the disincentive items in factor one and has been labelled Job Stressors.
Figure 8 - Factor three leading to principal class leadership aspirations
Focus group interviews - data analysis

Data were analysed according to themes. Initial analysis was against the three aspects of the conceptual framework; motivation, career and life planning and values. The second layer of the analysis uncovered themes that emerged from the focus groups. Data were then analysed by sex, role, sector, rurality, and age (participants ≤ 30 years old and 31+ years).

The following is a report of the findings from the Focus Group Interviews under the conceptual framework areas of motivation, personal and organisational career planning, and values. Additional comments made by the group participants that did not fit into the conceptual framework have been analysed and presented as ‘Other’ findings. Data for each section were further analysed by sex, role, sector, rurality and age. Italics indicate quotes from the interviews.

Motivation

The motivation aspect explored participants’ current aspirations and their perceptions of sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, particularly for principals. Participants were asked to describe their current career aspiration and to identify factors that had impacted on career decision making to date. The researcher was endeavouring to seek both personal and professional factors. In some interviews follow-up questions were asked to ensure that participants discussed both personal and professional factors.

Aspiration

Interview data indicated that there were differences between aspirations for teachers in different roles, and by sex and age. There were no differences in aspirations for country and metropolitan teachers or for primary and secondary teachers. The young teachers had been teaching from three to eight years. They were all 30 years or younger. They had clear career goals that included leadership in some capacity. The younger, less experienced teachers, stated that they were unsure about their ultimate career goal but in the short term they wanted to take on leadership roles within the next twelve months and were looking towards obtaining leading teacher positions in the near future. The more experienced young teachers were aiming to take up assistant principal positions within the next three to five years and eventually saw themselves as principals.

I think that I would like to go for an AP position and within the next three years. (Primary female young teacher)

Young teachers generally did not see teaching or education as their sole career. They wanted the ability to move in, out, and back into education during their career. When they move back into education, having gained experiences elsewhere, they stated that they wanted to move back in at a commensurate promotion level.

As with the age profile for the DE&T, the majority of teachers in the primary and secondary teacher focus groups were 40 years or older. Two teachers in their fifties stated that they were only working until they could retire. Those further away
from retirement had no leadership aspirations and generally wished to remain classroom teachers. Two women teachers stated that they had plans to leave education and work elsewhere. Both of these teachers had a career strategy in place to achieve their goals. The first teacher planned to work as a civil celebrant and marriage counsellor. The second teacher planned to apply for and gain a position in the Teacher Release to Industry Program (TRIP). She believed that this would provide her with industry experience to apply for and gain a permanent position in industry. These were the only teachers with career goals other than to continue doing what they were doing until they retired, which in some cases could be fifteen years.

Some of these teachers had recently taken up the new promotion position of Experienced Teacher with Responsibility (ETWR). There were mixed reactions to the ETWR positions and application process. Some described the application process as ‘off-putting’ while others saw it as a stepping stone to other leadership positions. This seemed to contradict their stated lack of leadership aspiration. There was concern that the ETWR process will mean younger teachers will have few opportunities for promotion.

One leading teacher stated that her career aspiration was to retire. The remaining leading teachers had work related career aspirations. One female leading teacher planned to consult overseas. Early retirement would provide her with the opportunity to do this at a stage when her children were old enough to leave home. She planned to work as a literacy consultant overseas. She had researched what was required and had developed networks and contacts in this field. The remaining leading teachers had leadership aspirations. No leading teacher actually stated principalship as a career goal. Females stated that they aspired to the assistant principal’s role and males stated that their career goal was the principal class. One female was unsure about applying for a principal class position. She described her young family as causing ‘a dilemma’. Later in the interview the same leading teacher commented that when thinking about seeking promotion she questions ‘if the extra money that you get is worth it’. With a young family the job impacts on her ‘quality of life’. Two male secondary leading teachers were thinking about applying for assistant principal positions but questioned whether it was ‘worth it’. The application process was seen as a disincentive by these two teachers. One leading teacher questioned his willingness as a principal to implement aspects of government policy with which he did not agree.

One assistant principal was looking forward to retirement. Four assistant principals wished to take up a principal position. Males and females, and primary and secondary, were equally represented. Two women wished to remain assistant principals
and one woman wished to remain a campus principal. Assistant principals in larger schools commented on the financial disincentive of gaining a principal position in a smaller school. The three female and one male principal believed that they would leave education and work elsewhere. They had no clear plans as to the direction of this career move but they did not see themselves remaining as principals until completely retired from the workforce. The remaining three (secondary, male) principals believed that they would remain a principal until they retired. They did not mention career goals following retirement from the DE&T.

There were no apparent differences for the career aspirations for teachers from country and metropolitan regions or between secondary and primary teachers. There were some differences between male and female responses. Females were more likely to consider leaving education and working elsewhere. Females had plans for what they would do when they left teaching and were working on strategies to achieve their goals. Unlike older teachers, most young teachers had clear aspirations. Young teachers sought leadership and responsibility, and would like the ability to move in and out of education. They did not see teaching as a lifetime career. Excluding young teachers, leadership aspirations only became apparent at leading teacher level. This could be due to the average age of the teacher group. Teachers in this age group (40 or older) who have previously shown no leadership aspirations may be unlikely to develop them. Leadership aspirations for all age groups appeared to change following a period of acting in a leadership position. This is discussed in more detail later in this chapter in the section ‘Life and career planning – Impact of acting in a leadership role’, on page 174.

Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction

There was no direct question regarding job satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction. Comments regarding job satisfaction and dissatisfaction emerged from a range of questions. Perceptions of principal job satisfaction emerged in each interview in the discussion of the question ‘Can you sum up in a few words what it would be/is like to be a principal? Try to think of both positives and negatives.’ Young teachers commented on the job satisfiers and frustration of the job. They commented on the satisfaction of simply performing a leadership role and of taking an under-performing school and turning the whole school community around during their principalship. These insights were not shared by older teachers and leading teachers. Teachers and leading teachers did not comment specifically on principals’ job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Teachers and leading teachers used many negatives to describe the principal role. They used words such
as demanding, time consuming, too hard, stressful. Older teachers and leading teachers did not describe the job as providing a source of job satisfaction. Some primary and secondary assistant principals commented that once they had acted in the role, they could see that the principal role provided job satisfaction. This had not been apparent to them prior to undertaking the acting role. One assistant principal commented that although she loved teaching, the principal role was actually more enjoyable. I do enjoy it when I take on the acting position. ... It is not the same as being the principal but I do like the exhilaration of the constant unexpected episodes that crop up every day. One day is never the same as the next. It would make it quite difficult to go back to any other sort of work. Although I really love my classroom teaching and have been really resentful of having to give that up, I actually think this is more enjoyable than teaching. I would like to be a principal though it is very hard. (Secondary female AP) However, this was not a universally held view. Another assistant principal commented that the assistant principal role is further removed from why teachers entered the profession. This assistant principal described job satisfaction diminishing as teachers take up increasing leadership responsibility. The higher up you get the more removed you are from the things that you started off as a teacher that generally keep you in the profession. The sense of making an immediate impact, the sheer joy of being with kids, it is like a giant complaints department. There are some days when I think I’m not doing anything for education: I’m just running a giant complaints department. It is not very satisfying. I’m in a campus management role and I think if that is what it is like to be a principal you just imagine that it is going to be more or worse and if it is the worst elements of the job that are going to be magnified then I don’t want it. (Secondary female AP) Principals clearly do derive enormous satisfaction from their job. However, unless asked to specifically comment on job satisfaction they normally do not talk about the inherent satisfaction of their job. They derive job satisfaction from a number of sources including a ‘sense of collegiality’ but essentially through achieving change on a broad scale. The following quotes are typical of many comments made by all principals. It is challenging. It is exciting. It is frustrating and it is the buzz. When you get that buzz it is worth it. The collegiality I find is terrific, too. (Primary male principal) I think seeing a community change and grow is very, very satisfying. (Primary male principal) There’s a sense of satisfaction that you are having a positive impact with a lot of people. (Primary female principal) Strong sources of dissatisfaction are also derived from the job. Primary principals particularly identified having to deal with the plethora of administrative issues as a strong source of dissatisfaction, while both primary and secondary principals commented that people management was the biggest challenge.
At the aspirant principal course a comment was made that the biggest challenge is the interpersonal stuff and he couldn’t have said a truer word. *(Secondary female principal)*

Comments were made that principals displayed the stresses more than the positives of the role.

*I think that it is because we do display the stress of the job more than the positives of the job. My staff will say that.* *(Primary female principal)*

The positive things that we do are more long term. The negative things we do are instant and easily recognised – like declaring people in excess, when you talk to people about unprofessional behaviour. All of these things are overt and people talk about them. When you come out of an interview having been mauled by parents, all of the teachers know about these things. They gossip about them because they are interested in them. It is pretty overt really. Whereas the positive things they don’t see. Nor should they. The plan for five years time and the strategic plan to get there is something that is beyond them because they live on a lesson by lesson basis. *(Secondary male principal)*

It was recognised that the job satisfiers were more intrinsic than extrinsic and sometimes difficult or inappropriate to articulate.

Principals recognised that the job brings with it enormous stresses but principals develop successful stress management strategies.

*I have learnt the strategies to deal with those stressful situations. I come out of it ok but the stress is still there.* *(Primary female principal)*

Principals stated that while the job was highly stressful, the rewards of the job were equally high and worth it.

*Life always has its ups and downs but as a principal while the lows are low the highs are higher.* *(Secondary male principal)*

It is never boring, never the same. You go from the highest highs to the lowest lows. *(Secondary male principal)*

The following quote illustrates the contradictory nature of the role.

*In principle I think it is the best job in the world. I honestly do, in principle because I have a passion for education but in practice it is a different kettle of fish because the leadership in only a small part of it. The educational leadership is what you want to do it for but when you get there a lot of it is people management, personnel management and staff management. I’ve got eighty staff members and some of them are bloody difficult. It is very, very hard work and I spend more time doing that than I want to.* *(Secondary male principal)*

Principals acknowledged the importance of articulating and demonstrating the job satisfiers even though this was sometimes difficult.

*It (job satisfaction) needs to be publicised. The positive things that we do are more long term.* *(Secondary male principal)*

*... if we are to change the understanding of the job we need to celebrate the ups more and the community, the general body of*
people need to appreciate the ups and what you actually do, to value the job. (Secondary female principal)

There were no apparent differences in attitudes towards sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction between males and females, or between teachers from country or metropolitan regions.

**Life and career planning**

The life and career planning factors include personal life factors, personal and organisational career planning, perceptions of incentives and disincentives, perceptions of the principal role, and personal style. These issues arose throughout the interviews and specifically when commenting on the following questions:

− What factors have impacted on your career decision making to date?
− Can you sum up in a few words what it would be/is like to be a principal?
− Imagine that the DE&T is going to redesign all the jobs in a school starting with the principal. Money and structures are not issues. Imagine that you have been asked to help redesign the principal’s job. What do you think would be the most important aspects of the role?
− How do you think this matches with what principals currently do?

**Personal life factors**

Personal life factors included family-care responsibilities, the impact of relocation on families, and factors relating to health and aging.

**Family care responsibilities**

Both male and female teachers and leading teachers commented that increased leadership responsibility would impact negatively on their family life. The support and encouragement of the teacher’s immediate and extended family was seen as an important factor for both males and females.

*Women are the primary caregiver for children even if they are not single mothers. Things fall back on me. Family is a very big consideration when you are applying for promotion.*

(Primary female leading teacher)

However, not surprisingly, many more females than males commented on the difficulty of achieving a balance between managing a family and a career. One female commented that while taking family leave impacted on your career, access to and the impact of taking leave was not the most pertinent issue. For her it was trying to juggle family commitments and work responsibilities once she had returned to work.

*It's not the family leave, having to leave, it's not how long will I take off from my job, will it be there when I get back, who are the other people who are going to be competing for my job. Even now my children are fourteen and eleven. She (daughter) is at the same school as me now because that is easier. Rather than, she has a curriculum day here - but I don’t and when they’re sick who looks after them? Which one of you takes the day off? We don’t have family around*
Who is going to take the day off? Those sorts of issues really impact on females. (Primary female assistant principal)

Females commented that when their children are older and more independent they could/would consider promotion. The age at which women teachers consider promotion seemed to be affected by a number of family-related factors. These included having children of their own, the number and age of their children, the needs of their parents, and those of their spouse. The comment was made that females wait for their children to be independent, by which time their parents become dependent on them for care, frequently placing them as the primary caregiver for aged parents. Again, they find that they are not able to take up promotion. One young teacher who described herself as very ambitious and stated that she wanted to be an assistant principal within three years commented that:

I think that the biggest pull on me is, am I going to start a family? When am I going to start a family? What about my partner? For me it is not the actual job. I can see the ups and downs of the job, the stresses and everything, but if I am going to stick in this career I will go for that job. But I have the other half of me saying, what about the other half of you? What about your relationships? What about your family? When are you going to have kids? Are you going to have kids? I don’t believe that I can put a hundred percent into a principal’s job if I want to have children and all the rest of it. That is the biggest stopper for me. (Young female primary teacher)

This comment reflects the dilemma that many females face. The difficulties of managing parenting and work responsibilities were raised by males and females, but predominantly by females. A large number of female teachers, leading teachers, assistant principals, and principals - all made comments concerning the negative impact of leadership roles on family/work balance.

Impact of relocation on family
Male and female, and primary and secondary participants commented on the impact that relocation had on children and partners. Families were more likely to relocate to follow the career of the male but both males and females commented on the difficulty of relocating children while they still attended school, particularly at critical points in schooling. Teachers with adolescent children were more likely to move from the country to metropolitan regions so that their children could access particular tertiary courses than relocate to the country. The difficulties of relocation were mentioned by male and female principals. Principals stated that if the
DE&T requires principals to relocate, then there is a need to support people with families. It was observed that people are reluctant to change their child’s school, particularly when they reach secondary level, or in the early years of primary schooling. Principals are more likely to move to or remain in the city to access tertiary education for their own children, and are highly unlikely to move to the country until their own children are independent. This occurs at the time when the teacher/principals’ parents may need support which again limits some people’s freedom to relocate. When people do relocate they want support to find work for their spouse. If their spouse is also a DE&T employee they want access to a compassionate transfer. They were looking for basic relocation support such as advice on housing, medical facilities, local clubs etc. They wanted an induction program that began prior to taking up the position. They believe that induction should have included information on formal and informal networks and ‘how things work around here’.

Health/age
Women who have taken extended family leave are generally older than their female and male colleagues with similar levels of experience and promotion level. Comments were made that health became a concern and women began to question if it was worth seeking promotion in the last few years of their career.

Personal and organisational career planning
Four key issues arose relating to personal and organisational career planning: the application process; the importance of mentoring, training support, and encouragement; the impact of acting in a leadership role; and organisational career planning processes.

Application process
I found that whole process very difficult. Constant rejection is not much fun. I’ve now been rejected from probably fourteen, rejected, unsuccessful, but rejected, listen to the words I’m using. (Primary female AP)
The application process was described as traumatic and time-consuming. Most teachers had had little or no experience in writing job applications or interviews until the 1990s. In some cases teachers have avoided writing job applications and interviews altogether. Many women commented that they feared rejection by selection practices. To some women teachers, the application process was seen as a reflection of an acceptance or rejection of them personally rather than a selection of the most appropriate applicant. The application process and acting in the role were important for both males and females but males and
females viewed these two aspects differently. Males talked about supportive and unsupportive practices. They described writing job applications and being interviewed as being traumatic, demanding, and time consuming. Males mentioned a lack of access to leadership programs and skill development. They talked about the importance of acting in the role and the use of mentors in terms of providing them with the skills and knowledge required for the job. Females talked about the affective impact of the processes. The selection process was described by women as traumatic because of an inherent fear of rejection, fear of the unknown, and a lack of confidence. Men wanted access to leadership experiences and leadership programs so that they could understand the skills and knowledge required by a principal. Women wanted leadership experiences and programs so that they could prove in interview that they had the skills and knowledge required for the position.

**Importance of mentoring, training, support, and encouragement**

Participants, especially women, thought that they might have the qualities to make a leader but that they lacked leadership experience. It appears that some people, particularly women, need someone to confirm to them that they have leadership qualities. They then, need leadership experiences and further encouragement. Support and encouragement was important from the beginning of a career. Early leadership experiences, and encouragement to take on a broad range of experiences, for example participating in regional task forces, and professional association activities, triggered leadership aspirations. Country participants mentioned the difficulty of accessing leadership training programs. Assistant principals identified that they were looking for training in specific administrative tasks such as financial management and human resource management, to demystify these activities.

**Impact of acting in a leadership role**

While shadowing and mentoring provided a deeper and more accurate understanding of the principal role, acting in the position for a significant period of time increased the person’s confidence in their ability to manage the job and inspired leadership aspiration. The acting position allowed the person to experience the intrinsic satisfaction experienced by the principal. As a result, the job became less daunting and the rewards became apparent. The acting experience seemed to impact more strongly on women than men.
You need to experience. You don’t realise. It is always the people up there can do it, I can’t … it is not until you are given the challenges and the responsibility that you think I can do this. (Primary female leading teacher)

Acting demystifies the role. It removes the fear of the unknown by providing real leadership experiences. Acting in the role, to a greater extent than shadowing or mentoring experiences, allowed people to understand the job satisfaction of the role.

I knew that it would be hard and it was but it was challenging and it was really, really rewarding and that’s what I think people need to see. That there is a reward for you. (Primary female AP)

I’ve been an AP for five years. Last year and this year I’ve had the opportunity to be an acting principal. I wasn’t really interested in being a principal till then but now I’ve really got a taste for it. I’d like to be a principal and I’ve applied for a position. (Primary female AP)

People changed their leadership aspirations following an acting role. The job was less daunting. Even short term experiences such as acting principal while the principal attended conferences or meetings were important to some people.

It (acting) gives you confidence. (Primary female AP)

My current principal does give me responsibility. He goes off to lots of meetings and is often not in the school and you’re acting, so I’ve learnt a lot. (Secondary female AP)

Organisational career planning

The introduction of the ETWR process was seen as a strong disincentive to young teachers. Participants believed that promotion positions will be limited and in many schools the leadership experiences will be compromised. Young teachers recognised that they have transferable skills and stated that they do not expect to wait for promotion. The most important differences in relation to leadership aspirations seemed to be between young teachers and older teachers. This could be because older teachers with ambition have already promoted. Young teachers stated that they do not want to wait until they have reached sub-division twelve to apply for an ETWR. They wanted leadership positions while in their 30s. Many of these young teachers came to teaching as ‘mature’ age (that is 25+years old) and will not ‘do their time’. Teachers generally did not have access to individual career advice. A small percentage of aspirant leaders had participated in 360⁰ feedback appraisal programs as part of participating in leadership development programs. In most schools there did not appear to be a culture of discussing career aspirations or providing career counselling. It was suggested that the DE&T provide a central or regional career counselling service.
No one mentioned formal succession planning. One primary assistant principal and one secondary principal talked about letting leading teachers take turns at acting in the assistant principal role when the position was available. At these particular schools, the role was rotated between a number of teachers, allowing each interested leading teacher to act as the assistant principal for a month at a time. This was an example of succession planning at the school level. Succession planning appeared to be at worst non-existent and at best ad hoc.

**Incentives and disincentives**

With the exception of principals articulating intrinsic sources of job satisfaction, the only incentive to promote to a principal class role was identified by the young teachers. They described the personal challenge of leadership as an incentive. All groups identified disincentives. Two teachers, two leading teachers, and four young teachers, all female, identified the low level of remuneration. One male assistant principal mentioned the low level of remuneration of the principal role. Two female assistant principals in large secondary schools commented that to take up a principal role they would need to accept a reduction in salary. Male and female teachers, leading teachers, and one female assistant principal identified ‘no or less teaching’ as a disincentive. It was not raised as an issue by the majority of assistant principals or any principal. Two male principals stated that ‘no marking’ was a minor incentive. Leading teachers and assistant principals identified particular issues such as accountability, fear of litigation and not wanting to deal with the bureaucracy as disincentives to promote. There appeared to be no differences between primary and secondary, or country and metropolitan participants.

**Perceptions of the role**

The most pertinent differences in perceptions of the principal role occurred between the views of young teachers, teachers, leading teachers, assistant principals, and principals. There appear to be no differences between country and metropolitan participants or between primary and secondary participants. Both males and females saw the role of principal as demanding, stressful and largely administrative. Females, however, also described the role as lonely. More males than females commented on the need for principals (and aspirants) to develop resilience. Young teachers spoke positively about the principal role, but admit that what the principal actually does was largely unknown to them. They considered that the principal role would provide opportunities to exercise leadership and implement a personal vision. This aspect of the job was appealing. They believed that the role would require long
hours and mean less or no teaching. This was seen as a definite disincentive. While young teachers questioned aspects of the job they recognised incentives and sources of job satisfaction. Unlike the young teachers, older teachers were quick to use many negatives to describe the principal role. They described it as demanding, time consuming, too hard and stressful. They saw the role as largely administrative, requiring skills that are not developed in the classroom teaching role. It was a job for older people.

Something for old people because most of the principals around are not very young people. (Primary male teacher)

Only one primary and one secondary teacher stated that they believed that their principal found the job of principal rewarding and enjoyable.

Leading teachers use a similar list of negatives to describe the role — stressful, no control, adversial, work over-load.

However, leading teachers also believed that there were positive aspects to the principal role such as the principal’s ability to influence change. One leading teacher also believed that it is possible for principals to have a balance between their work-life and their personal-life. They saw the principal of their school having managed to achieve such a balance.

Leading teachers also described a change in the role of principals in recent years from being an educational leader, to one of management. They also comment that the role demanded skills that are not developed in the teaching role.

The dominant issue for leading teachers was a perception that the principal role would increase their workload, work hours, and stress, for little job satisfaction.

No one says it is a satisfying job. All you see is principals on overload and stressed. The messages that you get are not ones of enjoying the job….The thing that turned me off being a principal their lives are constrained by long hours and there is very little sense of being appreciated. (Secondary male leading teacher)

Assistant principals described the principal’s job as lonely, stressful, and overwhelming but they also described it as exhilarating and challenging in a positive way. Many of these assistant principals had experienced the principal role through acting positions. In some cases the assistant principals had acted in the principal role for a lengthy period of time (1-4 terms) and in all other cases the assistant principals had acted in the role for several days at a time. The acting experience and the assistant principal’s closer day-to-day observation of the principal, gave these people a clearer understanding of the intrinsic joys of the role. Assistant principals experienced the sense of satisfaction from making a difference on a larger scale, implementing change, and having the power to do things.

One assistant principal described the role as exhilarating.

Assistant principals also commented on a perceived recent role change for principals. They identified a lessening of educational leadership and an increase in the demands of
administration. A primary assistant principal commented that the current assistant principal role is closer to the principal’s role in the past. It was stated that principals are now performing many administrative tasks that were previously performed centrally, leaving little time for educational leadership. Assistant principals also saw the principal role as difficult and ill defined. 

_I think that their (the principal’s) role is perhaps quite difficult. They’re caught in this dilemma. Am I a curriculum leader? Am I a manager? Am I an appeaser of parents? What am I? I think that the role is so varied, that there are so many jobs._ (Primary female AP)

Some assistant principals question the acceptance of an excessive workload by their principal. They wonder if the workload is self imposed.

_I look at his workload and think he works himself to the bone. And then I look at other people who specialise in different areas and delegate those things and wonder what’s the best option? Is it a case of someone wanting to take on too much? Not wanting to delegate? Someone who just sees that that is their role, to be a bit of everything._ (Primary female AP)

Assistant principals believed that leadership roles demand a degree of mental toughness and resilience. Assistant principals have mixed feelings about the link between leadership roles and reduced or no direct teaching commitments. Some see the principal role as taking them further away from working with children but others see that leadership positions can provide the opportunity to have a broader and greater impact.

_You have to be able to manage the business and the finances but that encroaches on what you really want to do which is the educational leadership and people management._ (Secondary female principal)

Principals confirmed that their job is demanding, draining, lonely, tiring, and takes on toll on their family. With some prompting, they also described what they enjoy about the role. The positives were described as long-term and not easy to articulate. Principals acknowledged that they articulated and demonstrated the stresses of the job more than the positives. Principals commented that both job stressors and job satisfiers were strong.

Principals confirmed the perceptions of others that their role has changed from one of educational leadership, to educational administration, with a little educational leadership when time permits. The comment was made that administration requirements take up so much time that the educational leadership ‘drops to one side’.

Principals acknowledge that for many potential leaders it is these administrative aspects of the role that ‘put people off’. However principals, particularly in larger schools, state that they shape their own role. Principals believe that their role needs to be demystified. Potential leaders are put off because
they do not understand the role. In particular, specific aspects of the role, such as finances, are seen as quite frightening. I think we need to demystify the job. That puts people off if they think that they are going to have to go in and manage the money. (Secondary male principal)

Secondary principals also commented that in many respects they can shape their own role. They agreed that the perception of others was that they were responsible for all aspects of the school’s running and therefore had to have hands-on expertise in all aspects of the school including administration, finances, human resources, curriculum, accountability, and governance. Some principals believed that this myth needs to be dispelled: I think that a lot people dismiss the job because they think that their skills are in a different area but the truth is as a principal you can choose what to do. I don’t have anything to do with the finances. I only look at the staffing part of the budget. (Secondary male principal)

It is the finances that bothers people, particularly women and they don’t need to be frightened. It is a myth that the finances run the school. It does if you let it, as principal you can choose your role. As AP you have a say in what you do. Demystify the role. (Secondary male principal)

**Personal style**

Participants in all interviews spoke of the impact of their own attitudes and personality. Aspects that motivated one participant had no impact on another and acted as a disincentive to a third. This study does not purport to address all of the complex issues relating to personality and aspirations. The following is a summary of the unprompted comments made by interview participants.

Males and females, young teachers, assistant principals, and principals spoke of a personal drive, the constant need for a new challenge, the need to keep striving and a desire for constant change. The personal challenge would encourage me (to apply). (Primary female young teacher)

My main drive has always been for a new challenge....when I feel that I have mastered an area I want to move on. I get bored I guess without a change and a challenge. (Primary male principal)

It is my own personality that says I must keep striving for something. (Primary female principal)

A few participants also mentioned that what motivated them to apply for a particular leadership position was the fear of who might take up the position if they did not apply. They preferred to be the leader rather than the led. I thought that I’d rather it was me doing that, pulling the strings, than these guys telling me what to do. (Secondary male principal referring to an earlier assistant principal position)

An individual’s lack of resilience linked to their fear of rejection was described as a key disincentive. I think that a lot of people will put in one (application) and get a knock back and they’ll never do it again. (Primary male AP)
As commented on earlier, older women in particular view the application process as a judgement of them personally. This attitude did not seem to be shared by the young women teachers.

Young teachers were ambitious and impatient for leadership experiences.

*I want to be in there when I’m young. I don’t want to do another ten years in the classroom.* (Primary female young teacher)

*I want to move now. I want to be taken seriously now. I don’t want it to be ten years before I have enough wrinkles to move up.* (Secondary female young teacher)

With the exception of one, all of the young teachers commented that they would not wait, marking time in education, until the system recognised their leadership potential. They commented that if they were not given significant leadership roles, they would leave education and take up leadership roles in industry. They appeared to have confidence in their transferable skills.

**Values alignment**

Participants were not asked a direct question about values - personal or organisational. In seven of the nine interviews participants spontaneously raised the issue of the impact of significant changes in policy direction frequently brought about by changes in government. This question was subsequently asked in the two interviews where this did not spontaneously arise.

Participants at all levels stated that since the early 1990s large scale changes in government policy have had an impact on teachers’ leadership aspirations. It was noted that the more senior the position was in the hierarchy, the more it became political. It was stated by several participants that principals are required to deliver government policy even if they do not agree with it.

*It is absolutely clear from the bureaucrats where your loyalties should lie – implementing government policy. This is a real blocker. Principals are expected to implement government policy even if they don’t agree with it. I couldn’t do that.* (Secondary male leading teacher)

Implementing policies with which they did not agree appeared difficult for some teachers. This may cause them to stay at lower levels within the organisation. Several observed that it is hard to implement change if you do not believe in it. One principal commented that:

*It boils down to a set of values that they (teachers) have. They have decided that they want to live their life according to this set of values and beliefs and they can’t see that they can make that transition to a principal position without being called upon to make the sort of decisions that would question their values and beliefs and require them to act with less integrity than they would wish.* (Secondary male principal)

Teachers confirmed this view.

*You have to compromise yourself to aspire. You can’t voice criticism.* (Secondary female leading teacher)

Participants stated that schools are now torn between being seen as a business or as an educational provider. A comment was made that the language of education has changed. Students and parents are regarded
as clients, teaching as a core business, and marketing and public
relations have become important functions.

_We don’t have an educational lexicon any more._ (Secondary female AP)

Statements made by focus group participants indicate that principal
class leadership roles continue to be male dominated.

_I think also that for women it is difficult and it could be frightening to apply
for higher positions because it is very much a male dominated area._

(Secondary female teacher)

Many focus group participants commented on the need for principals
to sacrifice their own personal life in order to work the required long
and hard hours.

_I would estimate that he would be working 80 hours a week._ (Secondary
female teacher)

_Just time, when you have a family the woman does do a lot of the running
around. You have to spend your time equitably and when you are the
principal it is your total responsibility. Most of the principals I know work
very long hours. And I know personally with my family I could not be at
work at that hour and finish at the time that a principal does._ (Primary
female leading teacher)

Similarly a high number of female focus group participants provided
examples of gender-blindness through the lack of recognition of the
need to balance work and home life.

_You feel like you are letting people down if you say look I have to stay home
today because my child is sick but you’ve organised ten meetings with
parents, time with somebody else. You feel rotten about that. You also are a
parent and it’s your turn to take the day off because your husband’s taken it
off last time. I think that particularly for females, generally the role of the
mothering of the child does tend to fall to females._ (Primary female assistant
principal)

The role is described as one requiring stereotypical male qualities.

_You have to have a fairly aggressive approach if you are a female to gain an
on-going position as an assistant principal._ (Secondary female teacher)

_I think that the principal class is almost adversarial._ (Primary male leading
teacher)

Another leading teacher from a country school commented that:

_I think that in the parent body they look to males as leaders. They are
involved in the selection procedure and they want a man at the top._ (Primary
female leading teacher)

Comments were made that male leadership styles still predominate.

_Until teachers are exposed to a range of leadership styles, they tend to
think that is how a leader acts._

_I think that when you have a very strong male leader it is hard for females.
Females feel that they don’t fit into it so well._ (Secondary male principal)

Females commented that these seemingly necessary leadership
qualities were not appealing.

_I think it is a true belief that I look, particularly at the women in the job and I
don’t want to be that sort of a person. I look at the women who were my
colleagues ten years ago and I look at the sort of women they are now and
see the hard line sort of attitudes and I don’t want to be that sort of person._

(Primary female AP)

However, it is not a universally held belief that a lack of alignment
between individual values and organisational values negatively affects
the career aspirations of all teachers. A primary principal commented
that while government policy changes had an immediate impact in the early 1990s, people have become more ‘resilient’ and ‘adapt’. This view was reiterated by younger teachers. Teachers younger than 31 commented that government policy changes could place ‘enormous stress on principals’ but at the end of the day they believed that ‘if you have the aspiration you will do it no matter what’.

This study confirmed previous findings that some leaders have found ways to manage the possible tensions caused by competing sets of values from within and external to the school.

*I have learnt strategies to deal with those stressful situations.* (Primary female principal)

Assistant principals who had spent time acting as a principal stated:

*I don’t think changes in government make a difference now.* (Primary male assistant principal)

*We’ve just come to accept it.* (Primary female assistant principal)

*At the start it was. But now you just think Oh here’s another hit. You become resilient, which sounds a bit silly, but you adapt.* (Primary male assistant principal)

Principals and teachers who had acted in the principal role appeared to have developed strategies to manage clashes between personal and organisational values. Older teachers who had not acted in a principal role, made many comments indicating that the tensions created by these clashes in values had impacted negatively on their career aspirations. However, data from this study indicate that principals had developed strategies to manage the inevitable stresses caused by these tensions. Younger teachers also recognised the tensions caused by changes in government policies.

*...changes in policy quite often put an extra stress on principals...major changes [in policy] just make the principal’s job harder.* (Primary female young teacher)

Unlike their older colleagues, some younger teachers who had not acted in principal class roles also believed that the stress created by a clash in personal and organisational values would not stop them from applying for principal roles.

*If I was going to move into it [leadership roles] I would move into it. It [major changes in policy] wouldn’t stop me but it would definitely be a monkey on my back.* (Primary female young teacher)

**Other**

This section describes the themes that emerged that were not predetermined by the researcher. This included specific differences found between males and females; the appeal of the assistant principal role; and the impact of aging on the profession.

**‘Other’ differences between males and females**

Women were found to be disadvantaged by a break in service. Family leave, largely taken by women, is available for up to seven years. Women returning from family leave are older and are perceived to lack the traditional leadership experiences that their colleagues, mainly male, gained in their absence.

*For many women they teach for a few years and then they are out for ten years and they come back. It is like starting all over again. They are behind the career path to start with and then they are just getting to the point where they are feeling confident in themselves and knowing that they can do this and their husbands are starting to*
retire. There is smaller time to achieve what they want to achieve.
(Primary female leading teacher)
Women, it appears, are in a triple bind. Firstly, they are the
primary care giver for their children, then their parents, by
which stage they have reached retirement age or the retirement
age of their husband.
Is it the age thing? Are they applying for APs in their early forties
instead of their late thirties? But looking for principals in their late
forties when they have only a few years, if they are thinking of 54/11
they are thinking is it worth it? I wonder if the 54/11 knocks the
females, who come in later to the position, out before they get there.
Even if they do apply later the panel will knock them back because
they want younger people. (Secondary female AP).
The financial incentive to retire before reaching fifty-five
(known as 54/11) impacts on both males and females.
However, the impact on older women is important.
The break in service disadvantages women. They are older
when they are ready to consider leadership. School selection
panels can unknowingly discriminate against older, less
experienced, applicants. Women self select out for fear of
rejection, and the closer they get to retirement age, they
question whether it is worth promoting for the last few years of
their career.
Women also commented on the impact of the increased
workload and stress on their health.
There was the media hype about heart attack factors as well ... that
put off a few people. (Primary female teacher)
They described principals that they have worked with who had
aged rapidly in the job and a few months after retirement
seemed to shed the years. They questioned whether the job
would have a similar negative impact on their own health.
Women with a support network, frequently involving extended
family, found the return to work after family leave easier to
manage. A strong and reliable support network was needed for
childcare requirements for curriculum days, illness, night
meetings, conferences, and professional networking. Not all
women had access to these extensive support networks.
Women commented on the fear of rejection.
Constant rejection is not much fun. I’ve now been rejected from
probably fourteen, rejected, unsuccessful, but rejected ... (Primary
female AP)
Women also commented on the need to feel absolutely
confident about being able to prove that not only could they do
all aspects of the role but that they had actually done all aspects
of the role before they were confident to apply for leadership
positions.
Like a lot of other women I feel that unless you’ve done it already
you can’t possibly apply for a job where you might have to do it.
Blokes say don’t worry you’ll learn when you get there or you’ll ask
someone. They’re quite confident and they tell me to be too, but I
feel that unless I’ve done it already I can’t possibly apply where I’d
have to do it. What if I couldn’t do it? (Secondary female AP)
Women spoke of a lack of confidence in their ability to do all aspects of the job, whereas males comment on a lack of confidence in the application process. Males with leadership aspirations did not seem to question their ability to do the job once appointed.

... for you to get a position and move you’ve got to write an application, you’ve got to go for an interview and that is so traumatic that it is unbelievable. (Primary male AP)

Appeal of the assistant principal role
Young teachers, older teachers, leading teachers, and assistant principals described the assistant principal role as appealing. The job seemed to be appealing both for what it was and what it was not. Many teachers, leading teachers, and assistant principals commented that ‘the buck doesn’t stop there’. There was always someone above to take the ultimate responsibility. They saw that the principal had the ultimate responsibility for legal liability and accountability and others were fearful of taking on those responsibilities. Participants commented that the assistant principal role was defined, usually negotiated with the principal, and provided a strong sense of job satisfaction. On the other hand, the principal carried the ultimate responsibility with open-ended and constantly changing expectations. Principals demonstrated little job satisfaction and performed a role that brings with it long hours and little appreciation. The assistant principal was seen to be able to maintain a strong connection to the teaching and learning program, frequently with a limited teaching role. It was recognised by focus group participants that the role of assistant principal varied greatly from school to school. An assistant principal in a small primary school was seen as the most difficult role of all. Participants believed that in these schools assistant principals frequently had to balance a near full time teaching load and their leadership responsibilities.

Even if you don’t have a teaching commitment you are very much at the core of the school. ... you are getting the best of both worlds. You do still get to have some teaching, some connection with the kids. You get to have the administrative experience. (Primary female AP)

Some power, you have power and influence in that position. ... you can strongly influence the direction of the school without always having to take responsibility. You are in touch with the kids and doing what you joined to do anyway. (Primary female AP)

However, most assistant principals saw their teaching commitment as a bonus and looked for that connection with students.

Assistant principals believed that they were taking the educational leadership through curriculum leadership that was previously shown by principals. It was commented that principals are now too busy managing administration requirements introduced over the previous ten years.
APs are not unlike the old principals in some ways. Now that things have decentralised a lot more has come down to the schools. I think that principals are now a level above where principals in the past used to be. (Secondary female AP)

Only one assistant principal commented that her role was less appealing than the principal role. She saw the assistant principal as accountable to the principal whereas the principal had a lot more freedom.

There’s tension being an AP. … will he (the principal) back you up? …when you are it (principal) you don’t have to worry about that. (Secondary female AP)

**Opportunities provided by an aging profession**

Young teachers commented that they were reminded every time that they entered the staffroom that they are working in an aging profession.

*It is such an old group of teachers. (Primary female young teacher)*

They could see that there would be many leadership positions vacant in the next five to ten years. Will they wait even that long?

*That is one thing that encourages me actually, everyone is retiring. (Primary female young teacher)*

They are getting ready to retire, so who is going to do it? It is going to be your job. (Primary female young teacher)

**Summary**

The findings from the survey provided data on teachers’ aspirations both at the beginning of their career and their current career aspirations. Differences in the aspirations for males and females and for teachers from country and metropolitan regions were examined. These data provided an indication of the percentage of teachers who currently aspire to principal class positions. Data from the survey and the focus group interviews revealed findings for each of the research hypotheses.

The inferential data analysis, factor analysis, and the focus group interviews supported the hypothesis that leadership roles provide a source of job satisfaction. The personal challenge of principal class roles provided a motivating factor for some people in their career decision-making.

Career and life-planning factors were examined in a number of ways. The perceptions of incentives and disincentives to promote to principal in the survey and focus group discussions, clearly indicated that there were differences in perceptions of incentives and disincentives to promote to principal between males and females, and between those in principal class roles or have acted in a principal class role, and those not in the role and/or have not acted in it. Significant differences have been found between males and females for sources and levels of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, perceptions of incentives and disincentives to promote to principal class positions, and career and life planning choices. It is evident from the data that succession planning processes impact on the leadership aspirations of teachers. Teachers who had had access to a mentor, and teachers who had participated in leadership programs, indicated significantly higher levels of job satisfaction in their current role than those teachers who indicated that they either had not had access to a mentor or who had not participated in leadership programs. The focus group interviews also indicated that personal
career planning and organisational succession planning processes were key factors that influenced teachers in choosing to apply for principal class positions. The process of applying for promotion was described as a deterrent. The importance of mentoring, training, support, and encouragement, and organisational career planning processes were also important factors identified by focus group members.

Survey findings indicated differences in the perception of the principal role regarding sources and levels of job satisfaction between males and females, and between those in principal class positions and others. The focus group interviews provided considerable depth to the data on perceptions of the principal role. Teachers, as opposed to current principals and assistant principals, who had not acted in a principal class position, did not perceive the role to as one that provided job satisfaction. Findings from the factor analysis also identified a cluster of items that describe a number of perceived job stressors.

Findings on the impact of an alignment between personal and organisational values were ambiguous. Data did indicate that for some teachers a perceived lack of alignment between their own values and those of the organisation had affected their leadership aspirations. Comments were made by current principals that a perceived significant change in organisational values had placed enormous stress on principals. But, principals commented that they had become more resilient and had learnt to adapt to the changes. Young teachers, but not the older teachers and leading teachers, also believed that they would develop resilience with the principal role and adapt to changes. The following chapter discusses the research findings and makes explicit the links between these research findings and the conceptual framework outlined in chapter two. The findings that relate to each of the three key research hypotheses and their related sub-hypotheses are described in detail.
Chapter Five - Discussion of Findings

This chapter comprises a discussion of the research findings that emerged in chapter four. The chapter begins with an outline of the research questions, the questions are then discussed in detail. In chapter six the policy and planning implications and implications for further research are discussed.

Introduction

This study was conducted in response to a need for information about the principal class leadership aspirations of teachers in Victorian government schools. The research investigated two questions:

− What are the leadership aspirations of Victorian government school teachers?
− What are the factors that impact on leadership aspirations?

Policy and planning implications have been drawn from the identification of the teachers’ leadership aspirations and the factors that impact on these aspirations.

A conceptual framework constructed by the researcher provided the lens through which leadership aspirations were explored and the following hypothesis was developed:

*Work motivation, career and life planning, and values alignment are key factors that influence teachers in choosing to apply for principal class leadership roles.*

A survey and nine focus group interviews were used to explore teacher aspirations, the factors that influence teachers in choosing to apply for principal class leadership positions, and the factors that influence other teachers to choose not to apply for these leadership positions.

Phase one of the study involved the analysis of returned surveys from 1344 teachers in Victorian government primary and secondary schools. Phase two of the study involved focus group interviews with teachers (≤ 30 years and 31+ years), leading teachers, assistant principals, and principals.

Leadership aspirations of teachers in Victorian government schools

Career aspiration for teachers has traditionally been defined as moving up a hierarchy (Shakeshaft, 1989). Such definitions describe the career desires of people who do not aspire to promotion as lacking aspiration. This type of definition does not view aspiration in terms of the quality of the job held or its relationship to the person’s life outside work (Shakeshaft, 1989). For the purposes of this research, aspiration has been defined as the level and type of position which teachers ultimately hope to attain.

Not surprisingly, at the commencement of their career a fairly high number of teachers (18%) did not have any conscious aspirations, yet they developed aspirations over time in the profession. Whilst many now want to remain as teachers (significantly more females, 39% than males, 21%), others want to be assistant principals (11.5%), with this rate double that found at the commencement of the teachers’ careers (5.4%). Currently 11.9% aspire to be
a principal. The patterns of aspirations are interesting in so far as there is a substantial group of teachers who have principal class aspirations, but only to the assistant principalship; during the focus group interviews teachers described the strong appeal of the assistant principal role compared to that of principal. There is also a gender difference in aspirations, with significantly more males than females wanting to be principals and significantly more females than males wanting to be assistant principals.

An Australian Education Union (AEU) study of the context of women teachers’ work in the 1990s included career aspirations of teachers in government, independent, and Catholic schools across Australia (AEU, 1999). The AEU study provides a comparison between the career aspirations of teachers in 1999 from the government, Catholic, and independent sectors, and the career aspirations of Victorian government school teachers in 2000. A state breakdown of the data from the AEU survey was published in 2000. The state-specific data revealed that only 10% of Victorian teachers from all sectors aspired to any leadership position (AEU, 2000), whilst the present study found a much higher rate of leadership aspiration with 24% of teachers in Victorian government schools aspiring to a principal class leadership position. An important point to note here is the difference between leadership aspiration and actually applying for jobs. Data from this survey provide a baseline to record changes in rates of aspiration. Data on the number or gender of applicants for principal class positions have not been documented in Victoria.

This research also revealed a difference in the intentions of teachers in Victorian government schools to leave education and work elsewhere, compared to those of teachers from the government, Catholic, and independent sectors across Australia surveyed by the AEU. Approximately half the number of Victorian teachers from this study indicated that they intend to leave education and work elsewhere (8%), compared to teachers from all sectors in the AEU study (15%). This study indicates a considerable increase in the percentage of younger respondents who now aspire to leave education and work elsewhere. Leaving education and working elsewhere is the second career choice for this group. The intention to leave education and have a career outside teaching was equally high among the 30-39 year olds in the AEU study. This study supports previous studies of the transitory career intentions of younger workers.

In this study, fewer than 2% of respondents stated that they had no current career aspiration. Females interviewed in the focus groups were more likely than males to have diverse career aspirations and plans for achieving those aspirations. All of the female principals interviewed had a career aspiration. Generally, these aspirations did not include remaining a principal until retirement, and most women principals were enacting a plan to realize these goals. The male principals did not have such clearly formed career plans. They spoke of remaining a principal until their retirement but there was no evidence of conscious career planning. These findings indicate that strategies need to be implemented to maintain the motivation of experienced female principals and that males may need more active career guidance.
Factors that impact on leadership aspirations

People’s individual career decisions and aspirations are influenced by many factors including work motivation, values, and career and life planning. Each of these three factors is influenced by personal and organisational factors. The key research hypothesis was de-constructed into a number of related hypotheses which have been grouped into three sections – work motivation, career and life planning, and values alignment, and are shown in the following figure.

Figure 9 - Research hypotheses flowchart

Each of the research hypotheses is now discussed in turn.

Section one - Work motivation
Hypothesis one- Principal class leadership roles provide a source of job satisfaction

Data indicate significant differences between the findings for principals and assistant principals.

**Findings for principals**

Studies identify a number of sources of both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction for principals. There is general agreement that the work itself and interpersonal relationships are strong sources of satisfaction for principals (Dinham and Scott, 2000a; Duke, 1988; ERS, 2000; Graham and Messner, 1998; Hill, 1994a). Principals identified a number of strong sources of job satisfaction such as *Sense of achievement through work, Work itself,* and *Interpersonal relations with students.* Yet, at the same time, principals also recorded the highest levels of dissatisfaction of all groups with items such as *Effect of job on personal life* and *Intensity of the work.* Focus group interviews with principals supported this apparently contradictory aspect to the nature of their work. Data indicated that the work of the principal provided high levels of job satisfaction while at the same time providing high levels of job dissatisfaction. Some aspects of the principal’s work clearly provide strong sources of satisfaction and at the same time these aspects of their work cause job dissatisfaction. The *Opportunity to motivate others* and three interpersonal relations items (*Interpersonal workplace relations with teachers, Interpersonal workplace relations with students,* and *Interpersonal workplace relations with parents*) ranked highly in the survey and were mentioned as sources of satisfaction by principals in the focus groups. Focus group discussions provided further data on these particular aspects of the work itself. Principals commented that people management (interpersonal relations) was the biggest challenge for them. It is a source of enormous frustration and, at the same time, a source of enormous satisfaction for principals. As one principal put it, “It is frustrating and it is the buzz.” This research supports previous research that has identified a range of factors as sources of dissatisfaction.
for principals, including administrative tasks, work overload, low status of the role in the eyes of the community (ERS, 2000; Hill, 1994a), decision making processes (Johnson and Holdaway, 1990), and the impact of societal, structural and systemic factors (Dinham and Scott, 2000a; Duke, 1988; Hill, 1994a; Johnson and Holdaway, 1991; Johnson and Holdaway, 1990; Scott et al., 2000). Previous research has found remuneration to be a moderate source of dissatisfaction. However, there is little consensus about how males and females regard remuneration (Graham and Messner, 1998; Hill, 1994a). This research confirms Hill’s finding regarding satisfaction with salary. The males in this study ranked their level of satisfaction with salary significantly lower than females, whilst there were no significant differences between other groups (country/metropolitan, primary/secondary/P-12, teacher/assistant principal/principal, or ≤30/31+).

A finding not found in other research was the view held by principals that the sources of job dissatisfaction were extrinsic, visible, and well known to other members of staff, whilst the sources of job satisfaction were intrinsic, invisible, and unknown to most teachers. The implications of this, both for succession planning and teacher perceptions of their principal, are worth exploring. This important finding is discussed in more detail in the section ‘Teachers’ perceptions of principals’ job satisfaction’. However, at this point it is worth noting that principals in this study acknowledged that they articulated and demonstrated the stresses of the job more than the positives and that this had a negative impact on the leadership aspirations of others. Conversely, the job satisfaction of assistant principals was apparent and had a strong impact on leadership aspiration towards the assistant principalship.

Findings for assistant principals
Traditionally, the assistant principal role was believed to be a transitional one, preparing aspiring leaders for principalship. But more recent studies have found that while the assistant principal is often a transitional role, it is not a good preparation for the role of principal, as there is little opportunity for assistant principals to be involved in instructional leadership or administration (Gorton, 1987; Kelly, 1987; Webb and Vulliamy, 1995). This study challenges previous research findings regarding the assistant principal’s involvement in instructional leadership. Assistant principals, (whom it should be noted reported significantly higher levels of job satisfaction than either principals or teachers), indicated that their interpersonal relations with students
and other teachers were among the top sources of satisfaction. While it was acknowledged that the assistant principal role varied greatly from school to school and between primary and secondary schools, most assistant principals, regardless of school size or type, were able to maintain a strong connection to the development of the teaching and learning program (that is, a type of instructional leadership) and regarded this as a bonus. This research showed that the assistant principals appeared to have taken on educational leadership through curriculum leadership often previously shown by principals. This aspect of leadership was enormously appealing to the assistant principals themselves and a visible source of job satisfaction to others. The assistant principal role was appealing both for what it was, and for what it was not. Many teachers, leading teachers, and assistant principals commented that ‘the buck doesn’t stop there’ and there was always someone ‘above’ to take the ultimate responsibility. They were aware that the principal had the ultimate responsibility for legal liability and accountability and many were fearful of taking on those responsibilities. The assistant principal role, while different in each school, was clearly defined (usually negotiated with the principal) and provided a strong sense of job satisfaction. On the other hand, the principal carried the ultimate responsibility often with open-ended and constantly changing expectations. The factor analysis revealed that sources of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction have a strong impact on leadership aspirations. Factor two, the factor associated with satisfaction and dissatisfaction accounted for 10.1% of variance. The items comprising Factor two of the factor analysis included a number of items that were ranked as strong sources of satisfaction such as Interpersonal workplace relationships with teachers, Interpersonal workplace relationships with parents, Interpersonal workplace relationships with other DEET personnel, Work itself and School policies and practices. Also included were a number of items that provided a source of job dissatisfaction, such as Opportunities for promotion or advancement, DEET policies and practices, Supervision of your work, Physical working conditions, Recognition of your work by others, and Adequacy of administrative support.

Summary

Survey data and the focus group interviews from this research project strongly supported the hypothesis that principal class leadership roles provide a source of job
satisfaction. When comparing teachers, leading teachers, assistant principals, and principals, the data indicated that assistant principals, followed by principals, have the highest levels of job satisfaction. Survey data, confirmed by the focus group interviews, indicated that principals and assistant principals find high levels of job satisfaction from the interpersonal relationships that form an essential part of their work. In schools, the work itself relies heavily on the strength of interpersonal relationships involving students, staff, and parents. The work of the principal provides high levels of job satisfaction while simultaneously providing high levels of job dissatisfaction. The sources of job satisfaction for this role are intrinsic, invisible and unknown to most teachers. Whereas, the sources of job dissatisfaction are extrinsic, visible, and well known, the work of the assistant principal provides high levels of job satisfaction that are visible and recognized by other teachers.

**Hypothesis two- Seeking a job that provides personal challenge is a motivating factor for some teachers**

Studies into motivation theory have found that people seek out situations that challenge them to a certain extent. Maclean’s study of the career aspirations of Tasmanian teachers confirmed that seeking out new challenges was one of the key factors influencing teachers to seek promotion (Maclean, 1992). This study does not purport to address all of the complex issues related to personality and aspirations, however data do support previous studies that the individual’s own attitudes and personality have an impact on leadership aspirations (Farmer, 1985; Thierry, 1998). A personal drive, the constant need for a new challenge, the need to keep striving, and a desire for constant change, were identified in the focus groups as incentives to promote by males and females, young teachers, assistant principals, and principals. *Meaningful, interesting, challenging work* and *Gaining new skills* were the fourth and fifth highest-ranking incentives for all groups in the surveys. Survey data indicated that principals and assistant principals ranked items relating the personal challenge provided by the job significantly higher than did teachers. These items included *New challenges provided by the job, Self improvement opportunities provided, Gaining new skills,* and *Meaningful, interesting challenging work.* In all focus group interviews participants mentioned the impact of their own attitudes and personality on their career decision-making. For example, aspects that motivated one participant had no impact on another, and may have acted as a disincentive to a third participant. Many males and females, young teachers, assistant principals, and principals spoke of a personal drive, the need
for a new challenge, the need to keep striving, and a desire for constant change.

The factor analysis revealed that individual growth and self actualisation have a significant impact on leadership aspirations. Factor one of the factor analysis accounted for 22% of the variance between factors and comprised a high number of items ranked in the survey as strong incentives to promote to principal. Items supporting the hypothesis that seeking a job that provided a personal challenge is a motivating factor for some included Self improvement opportunities provided, Gaining new skills, New challenges provided by the job, Meaningful, interesting, challenging work, Offer of increasing responsibility and autonomy, Professional development opportunities provided, and Autonomy to make decisions.

This study confirmed previous research findings (Duke, 1988) that the job provides enormous challenges yet at the same time provides enormous frustrations. During the focus group interviews, principals spoke of the principal role being ‘the best job in the world’ when they were able to exercise educational leadership. However, the following comments made by one principal illustrate the frustrations:

One of the things that you can say about a principal’s role is that it is never the same. It is never boring, never the same. You go from the highest highs to the lowest lows. One day you are in a court case and the next you are celebrating some event and the next day you have a dreadful parent. It just goes all over the place. I think the other side of it is that it is incredibly draining of your being...

Evidence was found to support previous findings that teachers who take up their first principal role ten to fifteen plus years before their expected retirement do not see themselves remaining in principal positions until they retire. Women principals, in particular, seemed to have clearly formed alternate career goals that did not include principalship until retirement and were enacting plans to achieve these goals. Younger teachers spoke of their desire to seek challenges through promotion both inside and outside education.

Summary

This study found evidence to support the hypothesis that seeking a job that provides personal challenge is a motivating factor for many people. The principal role was seen as a job that provided enormous challenge, yet the challenges provided by the job were at times overwhelming, causing high levels of stress. There was also evidence to suggest that some individuals may not wish to remain in this sort of
motivating but difficult role for lengthy periods of time. Some younger teachers indicated that although they were motivated by challenge, they were eager for it to be provided early in their careers. If challenging leadership experiences are not available to young teachers early in their career, they indicated that they would seek these experiences outside education, thus reducing the pool of potential leaders available within the DE&T.
Section two - Career and personal life planning

The following is a detailed discussion of the findings from this research in relation to each of the four hypotheses.

Hypothesis three - Perceptions of incentives and disincentives to promote to principal class positions influence teachers’ career decisions

Previous studies into incentives for teachers to promote have been grouped predominately into two categories: nature of the work and outcomes of the work. Similarly, the disincentives to promote have been grouped into two categories: the nature of the work and external influences. This study also found that perceptions of the nature of the work and the outcomes of the work remain key factors that influence teachers’ attitudes towards leadership aspirations. However, data from this research indicate a third category, personal factors, which includes both incentives and disincentives. Personal factors include items such as Effect on family, Time required by the job, and Gaining new skills.

This study confirmed previous findings (Crow and Glascock, 1995; Jacobson, 1990) that the outcomes of the work provide key incentives for teachers to promote. Survey data indicate that for teachers the Opportunity to motivate others, the Opportunity to impact on the learning environment, and the Opportunity to shape an educational vision, are all primary incentives to promote to the principal role. These were the only survey items where the mean ranking was above 4.00 on a five-point scale for all respondents, both male and female, and regardless of school location, school type, current position, or age.
Previous studies have identified that increased salary levels are not seen by teachers as a significant incentive to promote to principal positions (Jacobson, 1990; Pounder and Young, 1996). This study confirmed these findings. The Level of remuneration ranked as only a moderate incentive to promote by all groups. Similarly, Bonus pay or incentives based on performance did not rank as an incentive or disincentive to promote. It was found that while teachers see their current salary level as a source of dissatisfaction, the economic benefit of an increased salary received by a principal, was not seen as a strong incentive to promote.

Whilst this research confirms previous findings that a perceived reduction in a direct teaching role by the principal was a disincentive to promote, particularly for women (Jacobson, 1990; Shakeshaft, 1989), it was also found in the focus group discussions that not all shared this view. Some principals and assistant principals saw the reduction in direct teaching as a welcome relief from daily classroom responsibilities such as marking, and an opportunity to have an impact on the teaching and learning environment in all classrooms, not just their own.

This study confirms Shakeshaft’s finding that teachers enter teaching in order to have a direct impact on children’s learning. The more they perceive the principal class roles taking them away from having a direct impact on children’s learning, the less likely they are to aspire to these roles (Shakeshaft, 1989). Teachers interviewed in this study perceived the principal role as largely administrative and generally having little connection to the teaching and learning program. The assistant principal role was seen as providing curriculum leadership and the opportunity to maintain a direct teaching role. Teachers who have acted in the principal role, however, saw the potential for principals to shape their own role and maintain the strong connection to the teaching program.

Principals and assistant principals have shared views on what they saw as incentives to promote. Unlike teachers, they identified a number of incentives associated with the outcomes and nature of the work. Principals and assistant principals stated that the impact that they could have on the teaching and learning environment was a strong incentive to promote.

This research identified differences in the perceptions of incentives and disincentives to promote between specific groups. Older teachers (31+), unlike assistant principals and principals, did not identify any strong incentives to promote to principal, and identified only three items as moderate incentives to promote. These were described as personal factors, rather than the nature of the work, or outcomes of the work and included: Access to benefits, Access to flexible time, and Bonus pay or incentives based on performance.

Although younger respondents to the survey generally ranked the incentives and disincentives to promote in the same order as
the older respondents, they ranked incentives much higher than did the older respondents. The four strongest incentives to promote for both groups were, the *Opportunity to motivate others*, the *Opportunity to shape an educational vision*, the *Opportunity to impact on the learning environment*, and *Meaningful, interesting, challenging work*. The four strongest disincentives for both groups were, the *Stress levels of the job*, *Time required by the job*, *Effect on family*, and *Adequacy of the school budget*. Most items were ranked significantly higher by younger respondents than by their older colleagues. This more positive perception by younger teachers of the principal role was confirmed in the focus group interviews in which teachers aged below thirty-one years were the only group, other than principals themselves or people who had acted in the role, to identify any incentive to promote to the principal role. These teachers described the personal challenge of leadership as an incentive to promote.

Women also identified three external influences as strong disincentives. These were *Community attitudes to principals*, *Demands of parents and/or the community* and *Accountability requirements*. This study indicated that women were much clearer than men in identifying the factors they saw as incentives and disincentives to promote to principal roles. This study confirmed previous studies that have identified key aspects of the nature of the work of a principal (Crow and Glascock, 1995; Olson, 1999; Van Cooley and Jianping Shen, 1999), and external features such as the impact of societal problems (Jacobson, 1990; Senate Employment Education and Training References Committee, 1998) as influential disincentives to promote. A third group of disincentives was also identified – personal factors including *Time required by the job*, *Effect on the family*, and *Stress level of the job*, and as the only items ranking below 2.0 on a five-point scale, were the strongest disincentives identified in the survey.

Factor three identified in the factor analysis confirms that certain aspects of the nature of the work and personal aspects of the work, act as disincentives to promote to principal. Factor three clustered aspects of the nature of the work that are seen to be job stressors and sources of job dissatisfaction, including *Stress level of the job*, *Impact of societal problems on the role*, *Community attitudes towards principals*, *Effect on family*, *Effect of job on personal life*, *Time required by the job*, *Demands of parents and/or community*, and *Intensity of the work*. This factor accounted for 6.2% of the variance.

**Summary**

Data from this research indicates that there is strong evidence to support the hypothesis that perceptions of incentives and disincentives to promote to principal class positions influence teachers’ career decisions.
This research confirmed that incentives to promote tend to be factors related to the outcomes of the work, whereas the disincentives tend to be related to the nature of the work and external influences, such as the impact of societal problems. The personal factors tend to be either strong incentives or disincentives depending on the individual’s life situation and personality. Factors relating to self-actualisation such as, **Self improvement opportunities provided**, **Gaining new skills**, and **New challenges provided by the work**, were incentives for assistant principals, principals, and young teachers. Personal factors such as **Effect on the family**, **Stress level of the job**, and **Time required by the job**, are strong disincentives for all groups, but significantly greater for women.

**Hypothesis four - Teachers’ perceptions of principals’ job satisfaction is a key factor in influencing teachers in choosing to apply for principal class leadership positions.**

Career aspirations are influenced by a number of factors including an individual's perceptions of the job (Grant, 1987; Johnson and Holdaway, 1991; Maclean, 1991a). This study confirms previous research on the importance of the teacher’s perception of the job, that is the work itself, in influencing leadership aspiration, but extends previous research through the exploration of teachers’ perceptions about sources and levels of job satisfaction for principals. Principals have a significant impact on the attitudes of teachers towards the role of school principal.

It is difficult for teachers to really understand the intrinsic rewards of the role of principal. From the survey data it was apparent that principals, and particularly assistant principals, had high levels of job satisfaction. During the interviews, all principals, (male and female, country and metropolitan) spoke of the rewards of the job. Principals acknowledged that while the job was stressful the rewards were equally high and they had developed a range of stress management strategies. From the data obtained in the focus group interviews however, it is evident that teachers are conscious of the causes of stress for principals, are aware of the level of stress under which many principals work, and have witnessed the effects of stress on principals. Focus group interviews also made it apparent that principals do not display or articulate sources or levels of job satisfaction. Only those teachers who had acted in the principal role could describe the role in anything other than negative terms. If the job is only seen as ‘demanding, time consuming, too hard, stressful,’ with no job satisfaction, then it is little wonder that many teachers do not aspire to the position. Similarly, this study shows that even assistant principals who
have not acted in the role of principal share teachers’ negative perceptions of the job satisfaction of principals. Previous research (Ehrich, 1995; Hill and Ragland, 1995) has shown that shadowing and mentoring provide a deeper and more accurate understanding of the principal role. This study indicates that acting in the role increases the person’s confidence in their ability to manage the role and inspires leadership aspiration. Acting, more than shadowing or mentoring, provided an insight into the job satisfaction inherent in the principal’s role, and allowed the person to experience the intrinsic satisfaction of the role. The job of principal became less daunting and the rewards became apparent. The acting role had a stronger impact on women than men and women interviewed in the focus groups who had previously not aspired to the principal role, changed their leadership aspirations following the acting experience. These women believed that before applying for leadership positions, they needed to have first hand experience of all aspects of the role rather than merely demonstrating that they would be able to do all aspects of the role. The acting experience changed teachers’ perceptions of the job satisfaction of the principal role and also, importantly for women, gave them the confidence to apply for positions in which they had already acted and therefore ‘proven’ to themselves that they could do the job.

As has been shown in the section *Perceptions of incentives and disincentives to promote to principal class positions*, teachers’ leadership aspirations were strongly influenced by their perception of the role of the principal and assistant principal. Previous research indicates that principals play a key role in encouraging and supporting leadership aspirants (Grady, 1989; Marshall *et al.*, 1990), but this study revealed that the principal role in many Victorian government schools does not appear to inspire leadership aspirations. Further research is required to determine whether the lack of appeal of the principal position is due to problems with the role itself (such as work overload), interpretations of the role by specific schools and/or principals, or a lack of understanding of the job by those who lack personal experience of the role.

Unless teachers have acted in the principal role they universally describe it in only negative terms such as lonely, demanding, stressful, overwhelming. Principals themselves stated that they exhibit the stresses of the job rather than the satisfaction. Although principals state that to some extent they have the ability to shape their own role, teachers believe that the principals’ role is purely administrative, administration and responding to the requirements of the bureaucracy. Principals acknowledge that for many potential leaders it is these administrative aspects of the role that thwart leadership aspirations. However principals, particularly those in larger schools, state that they shape their own role by delegating parts
of the job to other senior leaders in the school. This study reveals that the principal role needs to be demystified, as potential leaders do not aspire to the role of principal because they do not understand what it entails. This study shows that particular aspects of the role, such as managing finances, are seen as quite daunting. It is little wonder that teachers do not aspire to the principal role if they can only describe the job in such strong negative terms.

Summary
Data from this research indicate that perceptions of the principal’s job satisfaction is a key factor in influencing teachers in choosing to apply for principal class leadership roles. Teachers make judgements on the appeal or otherwise of leadership positions from their perception of the visible role played by the principal and assistant principal. A lack of understanding of the fact that principals actually feel a sense of job satisfaction is having a major impact on leadership aspirations. The overall perception from teachers who have not acted in the principal role, is that the role does not provide a source of job satisfaction and therefore the job is not appealing. Teachers perceive that the assistant principal job provides a high level of job satisfaction through its strong links to the school’s teaching and learning environment.

Hypothesis five - Career and personal life planning factors significantly influence whether women choosing to move into principal class leadership roles
Personal life factors have a much stronger influence on women’s career aspirations than they do on men’s. This study confirms that because of their life situation women find it more difficult than men to balance the demands of family and career. This study also supports previous studies of women’s career types (Evetts, 1990). In this study 51% of women indicated no educational leadership ambition, fitting Evetts’ definition of an accommodated career (28% of men indicated no educational leadership ambition). They described their primary role as a wife/partner, mother, or something else outside education. This study also identified a number of women who had had promotion aspirations from the beginning of their career. Survey data indicate that at the beginning of their career 4.5% of women aspired to be principals, 3.5% aspired to be assistant principals, and 1.3% aspired to a regional or central office position. Therefore a total of 9.3% of women had leadership aspirations from the beginning of their career, compared to 12.4% of males who had similar aspirations at the beginning of their career. Evetts (1990) labels women who have had such career ambitions from the beginning of their career as the antecedent career type.
This study confirmed that some older women teachers had delayed their career to commit themselves first to raising a family, and intended to take up more senior leadership positions in schools once their children became reasonably independent. Younger teachers spoke of their intentions to delay their families in order to establish a level of seniority prior to taking family leave. In both of these scenarios women had conscious leadership and career aspirations. Evetts (1990) called these two-stage careers.

The subsequent career type was also evident in this study. Some women spoke of their initial lack of leadership aspiration, particularly once they had family care responsibilities. Once these women saw that they were able to balance family and work responsibilities, they formed previously undeveloped leadership aspirations.

In this study, in contrast to the diversity of career types favoured by females, only two were evident for males. A few men described their primary role as something outside education, such as artist or farmer, while the second and largest group had career aspirations from the beginning of their career. This study revealed a number of factors that have a significant impact on the two-stage and subsequent career types. Family responsibilities are a key factor for women in both the two-stage and subsequent career types. In the two-stage careers women are likely to have taken some family leave following the birth of children and this study confirmed the findings of other studies that a career break negatively influenced teachers’ promotion prospects (Evetts, 1994). These teachers are seen not to have had the traditional leadership experiences that their colleagues, primarily male, have had in their absence.

The time away from teaching is not the only salient issue, for as this study reveals, of equal importance are the difficulties faced by teachers who try to balance career and family responsibilities when they return to the workplace. While many women used part-time teaching in an attempt to balance these responsibilities, it was not seen as a viable option to teachers in leadership roles, certainly not those in a position senior to leading teacher. The break in service for child-care, and/or the years spent in part-time employment balancing work and family responsibilities, disadvantage women. The women in Evetts (1994) study were also more likely to be the caregiver for aging parents. Women, it appears, are in a triple bind. Firstly, they are the primary caregiver for their children, then their parents, by which stage they have reached retirement age. The financial incentive (created through a now closed superannuation scheme) to retire before fifty-five, usually at fifty-four and eleven months, impacts on both males and females. However, the impact on women who can take this option is significant, as generally women are older when they are ready to consider a leadership role. An increase in salary is
not seen as an incentive to promotion and, unless they have acted in the role it is not seen as appealing. Women are likely to be primary care-givers for aging parents, and the Time required by the job, the Effect on the family, and the Stress level of the job are seen as strong disincentives. This study found that the closer women get to retirement, the more they ask themselves if it is worth promoting for the last few years of their career.

This study revealed that family responsibilities have an impact on all teachers’ willingness to relocate to take up promotion positions. Both men and women were reluctant to relocate children during their schooling, particularly at critical points. Often, by the time teachers were ready to consider promotion to the principal class, their children had frequently reached the tertiary stage of their education. All groups were more likely to relocate to the city to access tertiary studies for their children than relocate to country regions. However, relocation for promotion also occurs at the time when teachers’ or principals’ parents may need support. This again limits some people’s freedom to relocate.

This study also found that there is a complete lack of family-related relocation support for staff who have relocated to take up principal class positions. The difficulty of finding employment for the spouse of the transferee was described as a strong disincentive. Local selection staffing processes are seen to limit the DE&T’s ability to provide compassionate transfers. As the DE&T does not provide assistance in finding employment for the spouse of a relocating principal, this was also found to be a disincentive to relocate.

In the factor analysis, factor three – Job stressors (accounting for 6.2% of variance) confirms that career and life planning significantly influences teachers’ leadership aspirations. Items from this factor such as Effect on family, Time required by the job, Effect of job on personal life, Control over work schedule and Intensity of the work, indicate the difficulty that many teachers perceive in managing to balance the competing needs of a principal role and family/personal life.

This study revealed the negative impact of leadership roles on family/work balance for both males and females. However, not surprisingly, more females than males commented about the difficulty of achieving a balance between managing a family and a career. In the survey, the items Time required by the job and Effect on family, were rated as strong disincentives to promote by both men and women. These two items were given the second lowest and third lowest ranking by all respondents in the survey. While Effect on family had a particularly low ranking for all respondents, this item was ranked as a significantly greater disincentive to promote by females than by males, further supporting the hypothesis that career and personal life planning more significantly influence women.
considering whether to move into principal class leadership roles. *Effect on family* is one of the key factors impacting on women’s career aspirations.

**Summary**

Career and personal life planning factors significantly influence women choosing to move into principal class leadership roles. The effect that the principal role would have on their family is viewed as a strong disincentive to promote by all teachers, but females indicate the effect on their family as a significantly greater disincentive to promote than do males. Family responsibilities impact on the development and timing of women’s leadership aspirations.

**Hypothesis six - The organisation's succession planning processes influence teachers' leadership aspirations**

Deliberate and systematic succession planning implies the development of a three to five year strategic plan. Such a plan would ensure that the organisation, in this case the DE&T, identifies organisational needs and future potential leaders; inspires leadership aspiration; bases selection processes on future leadership capabilities; creates pools of talent; and recognizes multiple paths to leadership (Leibman *et al.*, 1996). Such a plan would ensure a coordinated approach to managing the recruitment, retention, performance management, and retirement of staff at all levels within the organisation. This study revealed that the DE&T does not appear to have a documented succession plan. This is a critical oversight. It is also apparent that few individual schools have a formalised succession plan. This study found that the DE&T does perform a number of succession planning processes but there is no overall coordination of these. There are also a number of significant gaps in the processes. Until mid 2002, the DE&T had no systemic program designed to attract teachers to the profession. Training of selection panels remains ad hoc, and there are no policies or programs aimed at retaining experienced leaders. From this study it has become apparent that the identification of potential leaders in the DE&T is ad hoc. There are professional development programs to support teachers who already aspire to leadership positions, and in particular programs to support aspirant women leaders. However, there are no programs or processes specifically to encourage the identification of potential leaders, that is teachers who have the potential to be effective leaders but do not currently aspire to leadership positions. Generally, aspirant leadership programs are dependent on the aspirant volunteering rather than through the use of nomination or targeting. Succession planning processes now need to recognize that employees are likely to change employers and careers several times during their working life (Leibman *et al.*, 1996). The
career intention of the young teachers in this study supports this finding. Survey and focus group interview data indicate that young teachers in the study have career aspirations and a significant number intend to leave education and work elsewhere. This study revealed that many young teachers would like the ability to move in and out of education, and back in again at a senior leadership level, such as principal. They did not believe that current DE&T selection processes recognize multiple career paths to leadership. These young teachers also believe that the introduction of the Experienced Teacher With Responsibility (ETWR) classification is likely to impact negatively on their career path, limiting leadership positions. Young teachers do not want to wait until they have reached the top of the salary scale in their division to apply for an ETWR position, they want leadership positions when in their 30s. They believe that the introduction of the ETWR classification will reduce the number of leading teacher positions and without significant leadership experiences they will not be able to promote to assistant principal and principal positions. Many of these young teachers came to teaching at a ‘mature’ age and state that they will not ‘do their time’. This study indicates that further research is required into the impact of the introduction of the ETWR position in relation to promotion patterns.

This study indicates that although the perceived role of principal does not inspire leadership aspirations, principals themselves often take an active role in encouraging such aspirations. Principals, assistant principals, and leading teachers provide much career support to teachers and to each other. In the survey, 71% of respondents identifying career supporters nominated a principal as one of the people who had helped in their career progress to date. The assistant principal was nominated as a career helper for 54% of respondents. The importance of mentoring, training, support, and encouragement was confirmed in the focus group interviews. This study found that teachers are encouraged to develop leadership skills but paradoxically, ‘Developing others’ (HayGroup, 1999) was not listed as one of the key capabilities of excellent school leaders, indicating that principals have not seen succession planning as an important part of their role.

More than half the teachers had participated in a leadership professional development program. Accessing leadership programs was one of the few differences to emerge between teachers from country and metropolitan regions, and teachers from country areas commented on the difficulty of accessing leadership programs in comparison with their colleagues in metropolitan schools. This perception requires further research to establish its validity.

Selection processes are a key element of any organisation’s succession planning (Leibman et al., 1996; Rothwell, 1994).
The DE&T *Principal Selection Guidelines* specify the composition of the principal selection panel and outline merit and equity principles. These guidelines state that ‘*It is the responsibility of both the school council and the Department of Education, Employment and Training to ensure gender representation on a principal selection panel.*’ (DEET, 2000:7), but gender representation is not sufficient to ensure that the panel has an understanding of gender bias.

Section nine of these guidelines outlines merit and equity principles and the DE&T document reminds selection panels not to discriminate against applicants. The following two paragraphs present evidence from this research which identifies the groups most likely to be discriminated against, and suggests that panels focus on abilities, not seniority. Although it is encouraged, it is not compulsory for panel members to attend training or briefing sessions. The selection processes used by these panel members has a major impact on the promotion patterns for women (d’Arbon, 2000). Previous studies (Dedman, 2000) in Victoria confirm that there are fewer female principals in non metropolitan regions of Victoria, particularly in secondary schools. This supports the perception of females interviewed in the focus groups that selection panels discriminated against women.

The following data provided by the DE&T (Lacey, 2002) illustrates the differences in numbers of females principals from region to region. Regions marked with an asterisk are non metropolitan regions.
Table 36 - Percentage of female principals by region at June 2001

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>% Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Southern Metropolitan</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Metropolitan</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Metropolitan</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Metropolitan</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Goulburn North Eastern</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Barwon South West</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Gippsland</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Central Highlands Wimmera</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Loddon Campaspe Mallee</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following graph clearly illustrates the lack of female principals in secondary schools with all regions, except the Northern Metropolitan Region having fewer than 30% female principals. Three of the five country regions have fewer than 10% female, secondary school principals. Table 36 indicates that as of June 2001, 22% of principals in Loddon Campaspe Mallee region were female, 27% of Central Highlands Wimmera principals were female, and 31% of principals in Goulburn North Eastern region were female. These data mask the true paucity of female secondary school principals in these regions. In the Loddon Campaspe Mallee and Goulburn North Eastern regions there were only 8% female secondary principals, and in Central Highlands Wimmera only 7% of secondary school principals were female.
The selection process for principal class positions comprises a written application and interview. This study revealed that the selection process is a significant disincentive for promotion for many male and female teachers but for different reasons. Both men and women described the application and interview process as time-consuming, demanding, and traumatic, yet there were important differences in the attitudes of males and females to the selection process. Many women commented that they feared rejection by the process. For some women teachers the process was seen as an acceptance or rejection of them personally rather than the selection of the most appropriate applicant in the eyes of that particular panel. Men described the process as demanding and time-consuming. Women talked about the affective impact of the application process which was considered traumatic due to a fear of rejection, a fear of the unknown, and a lack of self-confidence.

Men wanted access to leadership experiences so that they could understand the skills and knowledge required by the principal. By contrast, women wanted access to leadership experiences so that they could prove to themselves, and to an interview panel, that they already had the leadership skills and experiences required by the position. Thus, for women, acting in the principal role is a leadership experience that plays a particularly significant part in developing principal class leadership aspirations, and the confidence to act on the aspiration. Succession planning processes will be enhanced if these processes recognize the differences in attitudes held by men and women towards the application process.

As previous studies have found, this study confirmed that the career and life experiences of teachers who do not follow a typical lock-step career progression path appear not to be sufficiently valued. Teachers believe that selection panels, particularly in country areas, discriminate against aspirants who do not fit into a known and trusted mould, (generally male) and there was also a belief that the DE&T did nothing to challenge or change this perception.
This study also supports previous findings that many women do not consider principal class leadership roles until such a possibility is suggested to them by someone else, frequently a principal. Although data indicates that only 20% of schools have a succession plan, principals spoke of their role in succession planning by encouraging potential leaders. The number of teachers nominating principals and assistant principals as career supporters confirms their claim. Yet, principals might fear the consequences of being accused of breaching merit and equity principles if they speak openly of their succession planning activities. The impact and implementation of merit and equity principles on succession planning requires further research.

Summary
There is strong evidence to support the hypothesis that the organisation’s succession planning processes influence teachers’ leadership aspirations. The DE&T has no coordinated strategic overview for succession planning within the organisation and very few schools plan for leadership succession. The identification of potential leaders within the DE&T is ad hoc. Selection processes are seen as a strong disincentive to promote, particularly by women. There is a perception that DE&T selection processes do not recognise multiple career paths to leadership, further disadvantaging women. Although principals and assistant principals play a key role in developing potential leaders, principals do not plan strategically for leadership succession. Strategies to identify potential leaders, develop current and future leaders, and strategies to retain experienced leaders, need to be developed and implemented.

Section three - Values alignment
A study of the alignment between the value system of individual teachers and those of the DE&T formed the third aspect of this study. Individual and organisational values were studied through the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis seven - An alignment of personal and organisational values is a key factor in influencing teachers to choose to apply for principal class leadership positions.
Previous research has shown that people’s values play a role in their decision-making, goal-setting, and work motivation (Rokeach, 1973; Thierry, 1998). It has also been found that work motivation is higher when there is congruence between the individual’s own value system and organisational goals (Leonard et al., 1999). This study confirmed findings from
previous studies that found that large-scale change in policy direction and organisational values frequently brought on by a change in government, can have a significant impact on the leadership aspirations of individuals. Teachers believe that principals are being held accountable for the implementation of government policy, regardless of whether they personally agree with the policy or not. Teachers, leading teachers, and assistant principals stated during the focus group interviews that this would make change hard to implement.

This study found that principals do experience stress when required to implement a policy or change in direction that does not fit with their own value system. However, it also confirmed previous findings that principals develop strategies to manage the stress that the conflicting values may create. Principals described themselves as becoming more resilient over time and able to develop strategies for accepting or rejecting organisational pressures and goals created by a clash in organisational and personal values. This study also indicates that principals take competence in this area for granted, and are not conscious of the importance of this skill to their own stress management, or to the fact that this skill seems to be completely invisible to many teachers.

During the focus group interviews, participants also discussed teachers’ perceptions of the impact of these competing values on the desirability of the principal role. Older teachers had little concept of how principals could integrate policies with which they did not agree into their own value system or vision for the school. These teachers’ comments reveal that they believed that as a principal they would have no influence over such policies, and did not consider that they might shape policy implementation to fit with their own or the school’s values. Some of the teachers had a very rigid view of their unwillingness to implement certain policies. One principal described teachers as being unable to see how they could make the transition to principal and still live their life according to their values and beliefs. Older teachers in this study confirmed this principal’s view and the focus group interviews revealed that there was an important difference between older and younger teachers. Younger teachers recognized that at times there would be an inevitable clash between their own values and those imposed from outside but they believed that as a principal they would have become more resilient in handling these pressures.

**Summary**

This study found contradictory evidence concerning the influence of an alignment of personal and organisational values as a factor influencing teachers to choose to apply for principal class leadership positions. There was evidence that large scale changes in policy direction and organisational values can have a
significant impact on the leadership aspirations for some older teachers. This lack of alignment of personal and organisational values is a factor in influencing some teachers to choose not to apply for principal class positions. However, younger teachers believed that given appropriate professional development, they would be able to develop the competency to manage these inevitable tensions. Evidence was found that principals develop strategies for managing the personal stress created by a clash in organisational and personal values.

Other findings
This study found that within the DE&T male leadership styles are still evident. The majority of principals are male (69%), while the majority of teachers are female (67%). Teachers comment that the number of males in leadership positions confirms the perception that leadership is a male dominated area.

This study confirmed that existence of ‘gender blind’ and ‘smart macho’ cultures within schools (Maddock and Parkin, 1994). A gender blind culture makes no reference to the worker’s home life or personal experiences and ignores the fact that domestic responsibilities and social realities affect the choices made by women. This study revealed that gender blind culture was evident within the DE&T. Comments in focus group discussions confirmed that only single-minded and well-supported women manage to juggle the demands of dual responsibilities brought by leadership roles and family care responsibilities. Teachers spoke of a lack of real access to flexible work options such as part-time work for people in leadership positions.

The smart macho climate encourages economic efficiency. This culture encourages competitiveness and discriminates against those who cannot work at the same pace and/or those who challenge economic criteria. While on the surface, this culture appears not to be gendered; it is a more ruthless form of gender-blindness. It rewards those who work hard, fast, and long hours. Older men and women are challenging this type of culture. A more gender sensitive perspective would acknowledge that women differ from men in the actual condition of their lives and in many characteristics, while in others they are similar (Maddock and Parkin, 1994:30).

The focus group interviews revealed the existence of a smart macho climate evident in some schools. Some teachers commented that the current ethos was to encourage economic efficiency at the expense of educational outcomes. It was believed that those who are not prepared to meet externally driven performance targets have been passed over. This study revealed that male-dominated cultures within the DE&T negatively affect the career aspirations of some teachers, particularly women.
Chapter Six – Conclusions

The implications for policy and planning and the implications for further research are discussed in this final chapter.

Introduction

This research set out to answer the following questions:
What are the leadership aspirations of Victorian government school teachers?
What are the factors that impact on leadership aspirations?
The findings from the survey identified the current leadership aspirations of teachers in Victorian government schools and compared these to career commencement aspirations of the same teachers.
The factors that impact on leadership aspirations were explored through seven hypotheses. These were:
1. Principal class leadership roles provide a source of job satisfaction.
2. Seeking a job that provides personal challenge is a motivating factor for some teachers.
3. Perceptions of incentives and disincentives to promote to principal class positions influence teachers’ career decisions.
4. Teachers’ perceptions of principals’ job satisfaction is a key factor in influencing teachers in choosing to apply for principal class leadership positions.
5. Career and life planning factors significantly influence women choosing to move into principal class leadership roles.
6. The organisation’s succession planning processes influence teachers’ leadership aspirations.
7. An alignment of personal and organisational values is key factor in influencing teachers in choosing to apply for principal class leadership positions.

Strong evidence was found to support the first six hypotheses. The seventh hypothesis was not proven. Contradictory evidence both supported and challenged the hypothesis.

Teachers’ career decisions and leadership aspirations are influenced by many factors. This study has revealed a number of factors that develop and support principal class and principal level leadership aspirations.

Factors that develop and support leadership aspirations include increased opportunities within the principal role for individual growth and self actualisation. Teachers with leadership aspirations seek jobs that provide a personal challenge but the increased stress level that result from increased personal challenge needs to be counterbalanced with increased job satisfaction.

Aspects of the job that provide high levels of job satisfaction need to be not only retained but enhanced. These include the interpersonal relationships with students, staff, and parents, and the opportunity to have an impact on the learning environment.

While high levels of job satisfaction are real for most principals, teachers who have not spent time either acting in the principal role or working as a principal themselves, are not aware of these high levels of satisfaction. Staff who have an appreciation of the balance between job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction inherent in the role of principal, are more likely to aspire to the role than those who only perceive it to be demanding, stressful, and time-consuming.

Principals and assistant principals identify the outcomes of the work such as the opportunity to shape an educational vision, the opportunity to motivate...
others, and the opportunity to impact on the learning environment, as strong incentives to promote to principal. These three items were ranked as the strongest incentives to promote to principal by all groups. However, with the exception of young teachers (≤30), teachers do not perceive that the principal has an impact on the learning environment. This is seen as the role of the assistant principal. Principals, on the other hand, state that a major source of job satisfaction for them is shaping an educational vision and having a long term impact on the learning environment of the whole school. Teachers and assistant principals are more likely to aspire to, and subsequently apply for, principal positions if the strong link between the principal role and the learning environment is made explicit.

Strategic succession planning at an organisational and at a school level would increase leadership aspiration and application rates. A succession plan at the organisational level should include strategies to recruit, develop, and retain a large pool of effective principals and assistant principals. It would recognise that the young teachers of today are likely to change jobs and careers several times before they retire. The promotion process within schools would allow for them to move back into education at senior levels after having gained leadership experiences elsewhere. At the school level, principals would continue to develop leaders within their schools and many opportunities for acting in leadership roles would need to be provided. Schools need to be encouraged to provide increased opportunities for part-time and shared leadership roles.

The study also revealed a number of factors that inhibit principal class and principal level leadership aspirations. Paradoxically, while the nature of the work is one of the sources of satisfaction for principals and an incentive to promote to principal, aspects of the nature of the work are simultaneously strong sources of dissatisfaction and disincentives to promote. The interpersonal relations, particularly with teachers and parents, provide enormous challenges and frustrations. Personal factors such as time required by the job, stress level of the job, effect on family are strong disincentives to promote, particularly for women. Many teachers believe that the current role expectations of principals would not allow them to balance the demands of their personal life and their work life. The administrative demands and community expectations of the role are seen as too demanding.

A major inhibiting factor for teachers’ leadership aspirations is their lack of an understanding of the high levels of job satisfaction that counter-balance the stresses of the principal role. Until the job satisfaction of principals becomes as explicit as their job dissatisfaction, few teachers will aspire to this role. The lack of succession planning at an organisational and school level inhibits teachers’ principal class leadership aspirations. Yet the DE&T has no documented succession plan and there is no co-ordinated strategy to recruit, develop, and retain leaders. Consequently, the identification of potential leaders is ad hoc. As has been demonstrated, few teachers regard principal level positions as attractive. Both men and women describe the selection process as difficult, time-consuming, demanding, and traumatic.

To create a climate that encourages leadership aspirations and increases actual application rates, it is important that both incentives and disincentives to
promotion are addressed. As such, schools and education systems need to ensure that they implement strategies to both develop and support aspirants and simultaneously implement strategies to reduce or remove factors that inhibit leadership aspirations. The following section discusses policy and planning implications to address the factors that develop and support leadership aspirations and the factors that inhibit principal level leadership aspirations.

**Implications for policy and planning**

Education systems and schools have not developed comprehensive succession frameworks or strategic plans for the management of educational leadership (Canavan, 2001). Canavan (2001) has developed a twelve-phase management process designed to facilitate leadership succession in the Catholic education system. His framework, while not organised as such, addresses the four aspects of succession planning – strategic overview, recruitment, development, and retention. The findings from the present study have been grouped against the four aspects of a strategic succession plan, and then provides recommendations for a succession planning framework for Victorian government schools.

**Succession planning – strategic overview**

Succession planning needs to be more than just job replacement. A strategic approach to succession planning aligns organisational thinking, the external environment, and the developmental needs of individuals within the organisation. It is the deliberate and systematic effort made by an organisation to recruit (attract and select), develop, and retain individuals with a range of leadership competencies who are capable of implementing current and future organisational goals (Leibman et al., 1996:22). A strategic succession plan will:

- Review the demands of the organisation.
- Establish future directions.
- Establish leadership competencies capable of implementing current and future organisational goals.
- Establish policies and processes for recruitment, development and retention of individuals.
- Gain support for these policies and processes by individuals within the organisation.

Currently, the DE&T does not have a strategic succession plan. Therefore, it is recommended that the DE&T:

- **Develop, document, and implement a succession plan for school leadership as a matter of urgency.**

  This research provides baseline data on patterns for leadership aspirations for Victorian teachers. The DE&T does not have data on the application patterns for principal class positions, so these data need to be collated and analysed in order to provide an insight into the differences between
aspiration and application rates. It is recommended that the DE&T:

− Collate and analyse data on number and gender of principal class applicants for positions.

Recruitment

Recruitment comprises two key elements: attracting high quality applicants, and selection processes. To attract applicants, a position needs to not only provide job satisfaction but also be perceived by others as providing job satisfaction. The job will also become more attractive if the incentives to promote are increased and the disincentives reduced. As many teachers, particularly women, do not consider leadership roles until it is suggested to them by someone else, the identification (and development) of potential leaders needs to be formalised, rather than being left to chance. Teachers make decisions on the appeal or otherwise of leadership, based on the role as modelled by current leaders. Processes need to be put in place that will inspire leadership aspirations.

To attract high quality applicants to principal class positions it is recommended that the DE&T:

− Encourage principals to articulate and display a sense of job satisfaction.
− Demystify the principal role, particularly administrative and financial roles and responsibilities.
− Ensure that flexible work options are promoted at all leadership levels (this is also a retention strategy).
− Pilot a range of shared leadership principal class and leading teacher positions (this is also a retention strategy).
− Develop and implement regional and local relocation support programs, including the provision of support for the spouse/partner of DE&T employees needing to relocate in order to take up leadership positions.
− Ensure that developmental programs for aspiring school leaders include developing the skill of integrating external values into the leader’s own value system and vision for the school.

Selection processes need to be structured such that they encourage and support the organisation in its attempt to locate and appoint highly qualified and appropriate applicants to leadership positions. The selection processes also need to encourage and support rather than deter leadership aspirants. This study revealed
that currently, DE&T principal class selection processes are seen as a strong disincentive to promote, particularly by women. There is a perception that selection processes do not recognise multiple career paths. It is recommended that the DE&T:

- Conduct research into the impact and implementation of merit and equity principles on promotion patterns.
- Simplify selection processes for all school leadership positions to reduce complexity, time required, and stress.
- Further develop professional development programs for selection processes to address the skill development required for selection.
- Ensure that all principal class selection panels attend appropriate training. Ensure that this training includes the valuing of non-traditional career paths, and merit and equity principles.

Development
Career development of current and potential leaders is now considered to be an essential element of succession plans (Friedman et al., 1998; Leibman et al., 1996). However, it is not only the organisation’s responsibility, it is the dual responsibility of both the organisation and the individual employee. From the organisation’s perspective, career development ensures a match between the career plans, interests and capabilities of individual employees, and specific organisational opportunities. Career development processes need to provide opportunities to develop the leadership capabilities of potential leaders. Development opportunities also need to be provided to ensure that current leaders continue to develop the leadership capabilities that will be required to meet future organisational goals. To ensure that career development is built into individual school and systemic succession plans it is recommended that the DE&T:

- Provide early leadership experiences for young teachers (this is also a retention strategy).
- Ensure that principals implement succession planning processes within each school.
- Expand and promote the opportunities for teachers at all levels to act in leadership roles, particularly for assistant principals to act as principals.
- Conduct further research into access to leadership programs for teachers in country and metropolitan regions.

Retention
To increase the pool of high quality applicants for leadership positions, organisations need to retain high quality employees. A shortage of teachers (Auditor General, 2001) will inevitably lead to a shortage of potential leaders (Canavan, 2001). The DE&T needs to ensure that it maintains an adequate supply of teachers and identify potential leaders from within this pool. Young teachers are more likely to change employers than their older colleagues did in the past. Succession planning strategies will need to be implemented to retain these potential young leaders (Jurkiewicz, 2000). Organisations also need to include strategies to retain experienced leaders in their succession planning processes. This research revealed that experienced principals, particularly women, have career plans that do not include remaining as a principal until retirement. The DE&T will need to consider strategies to sustain motivation and challenge for experienced principals. Retention strategies need to maintain the attraction and challenge of leadership for future and current principals. To achieve this it is recommended that DE&T:

- Review role responsibilities and levels of administrative support provided for principals to ensure that there is adequate time for educational leadership.
- Implement strategies to maintain challenge and motivation for principals.
- Conduct research on the impact of the introduction of the ETWR position on promotion patterns.
- Encourage open educational debate among educational leaders.

Three previously mentioned recommendations are listed here also as recommendations to improve retention.

- Provide early leadership experiences for young teachers (this is also a development strategy).
- Ensure that flexible work options are promoted at all leadership levels (this is also a recruitment strategy)
- Pilot a range of shared leadership principal class and leading teacher positions (this is also a recruitment strategy).

**Implications for further research**

Ongoing research is essential in order to better understand teachers’ and other professionals’ career decision-making. This study focussed on primary and secondary teachers in Victorian government schools. It could be replicated in a number of settings to provide valuable, additional, comparative data. These include:
- Special settings, that is schools enrolling students with physical and/or intellectual disabilities
  This would allow comparisons to be made between the career decisions made by teachers’ working in special settings and those made by teachers’ in regular settings.
- Other government school systems in all remaining states of Australia (Queensland, New South Wales, Tasmania, South Australia, Western Australia, Northern Territory, and the Australian Capital Territory)
  This would allow comparisons to be made between government school teachers in different states of Australia.
- Other government school systems internationally
  This would allow comparisons to be made between Australian government school teachers and teachers in other countries.
  1. Catholic and independent sectors in Victoria, Australia-wide and internationally
     This would allow comparisons to be made between teachers in all Australian government school systems and those working in Catholic and other sectors.
     These studies would allow comparisons to be made between school systems, school size, school type, and school location. Queensland, Western Australia, New South Wales, South Australia, and the Northern Territory have specific issues relating to remoteness that are not as apparent in Victoria, Tasmania, and the Australian Capital Territory.
     This study revealed a lack of valuing of non-traditional career paths by selection panels.
     Further research into career pathways, exploring differences based on school location, school type, and aspirant gender would provide additional insights. This study also revealed that the DE&T currently provides valued professional development programs for leadership aspirants. It has been recommended that the DE&T provide professional development programs and workplace environments that encourage leadership aspirations. The implementation and effectiveness of such programs should be closely tracked and evaluated.

Chapter six - Conclusions
This study also revealed differences in perceptions of the application and selection processes between males and females. Research is required into the identification of recruitment practices that encourage and support both males and females. Further research into the effectiveness following the implementation of such recruitment practices would then be appropriate.

This study identified a number of short-term research projects specifically relevant to the DE&T. Currently, there are no data recording applicants for specific positions within the DE&T. This means that there are no data on the number of applicants, or the age, sex, current location, and current position of applicants. While this study identified the current leadership aspirations of teachers in Victoria, it was unable to compare aspiration rates with actual application rates. These data would provide a baseline for future comparisons and valuable insights into application and selection patterns. Teachers in country regions stated that they found it more difficult than their metropolitan colleagues to access leadership programs. This perception requires further study.
References


Coleman, M. 'Barriers to Career Progress for Women in Education; the Perceptions of Female Headteachers'. *Educational Research, 38*, 3 (1996a) 317-32.
Hanson, E. Educational Administration and Organizational Behaviour. Allyn and Bacon, Nedham Heights MA. (1996).


Inman, P. L. 'Women's Career Development at the Glass Ceiling'. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, 80,* (1998) 35-42.


24 January 2005

**SUCCESION PLANNING SURVEY**

The Department of Education, Employment & Training (DEET) is conducting research designed to assist in gaining an understanding of the factors that impact on the career decisions of teachers. The research will examine the conditions that encourage and discourage teachers from choosing to move into principal class positions. The findings from the research will provide guidance for the development of policies and programs to ensure the highest quality leadership of Victorian government schools. DEET has commissioned Kathy Lacey of Right Angles Consulting Pty Ltd to conduct the research.

This project has full support of the Victorian Primary Principals’ Association (VPPA) and the Victorian Association of Secondary School Principals (VASSP).

The research includes a survey of 2000 teachers and principals. Twenty follow-up interviews will be held in 2001. You have been randomly selected as one of the 2000 teachers and principals to be surveyed as part of the research. You are asked to complete the following survey, which will take about ten minutes, and return it using the enclosed Reply Paid envelope by 15th September. Data from the survey and the follow-up interviews will be used to formulate a report to DEET and will also be used by Kathy Lacey as part of doctoral research. All answers will remain confidential and no individuals will be identified in any reports or research.

The reliability of this important survey depends heavily on responses from a representative sample. I encourage you to participate in this survey. If you have any queries in relation to
the survey please do not hesitate to contact Kathy Lacey from Right Angles Consulting on 9682 9501 or Julie Hyde from School Leadership and Development (DEET) on 9637 3339.

Yours sincerely

Michael White
Director of Schools
Appendix B
Survey
Survey Number (office use only)

Personal information
1. Please indicate the region in which you work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Northern Metropolitan Region</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Metropolitan Region</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Metropolitan Region</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Metropolitan Region</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barwon South Western Region</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Highlands Wimmera Region</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gippsland Region</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goulburn North East Region</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loddon Campaspe Mallee Region</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

School type
2. Please indicate your school type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Student numbers
3. How many students are enrolled at your school?

__________

Age
4. Please indicate your age. __________

Sex
5. 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Anticipated age at retirement/resignation
6. At what age do you anticipate leaving teaching/principalship? __________
Experience

7. What is your current position?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Principal</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. What is your current classification?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level one teacher</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leading teacher 2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leading teacher 3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Class Level 1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Class Level 2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Class Level 3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Class Level 4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Class Level 5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Years of experience in current position

9. Please state the number of years of experience that you have had in your current position. __________

Unpaid leave

10. Have you had an unpaid break in your service of more than twelve months?

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. If yes, please indicate the reason for the leave.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family leave</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partner moved</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child-care</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extended Family care</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career change</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical/Health</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other – Describe</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Aspirations

12. Please indicate with a tick your career aspiration when you began teaching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspiration</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Remain a classroom teacher</td>
<td>01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remain a classroom teacher with responsibilities, such as year level</td>
<td>02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>co-ordinator, subject/faculty co-ordinator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be an assistant principal</td>
<td>03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be a school principal</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hold a regional/central office position</td>
<td>05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary/University lecturer</td>
<td>06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family duties</td>
<td>07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leave education and work elsewhere</td>
<td>08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No conscious aspiration</td>
<td>09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other – Describe</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. Please indicate with a tick your current career aspiration.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspiration</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Remain a classroom teacher</td>
<td>01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remain a classroom teacher with responsibilities, such as year level</td>
<td>02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>co-ordinator, subject/faculty co-ordinator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be an assistant principal</td>
<td>03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be a school principal</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hold a regional/central office position</td>
<td>05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary/University lecturer</td>
<td>06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family duties</td>
<td>07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leave education and work elsewhere</td>
<td>08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No conscious aspiration</td>
<td>09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other – Describe</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sources of satisfaction in your current role

Aspects of your work can provide a sense of job satisfaction. These aspects motivate you. For example, appropriate recognition of your work can lead to a renewed sense of commitment and enthusiasm. Other aspects of your work can provide a sense of job dissatisfaction. These aspects might de-motivate you. For example, poor working conditions can lead to a sense of frustration and dissatisfaction. A number of factors relating to work have been listed below. Using a circle, please indicate the level of satisfaction arising from each factor in your current role.

1 = High level of dissatisfaction  5 = High level of satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>High Dissatisfaction</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14. A sense of achievement through work</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Recognition by others of your work</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Work itself (the nature of the work, teaching preferred subjects, year levels, your duties and responsibilities)</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Areas of responsibility</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Opportunities for promotion or advancement</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Effect of job on personal life</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Interpersonal workplace relationships with teachers</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Interpersonal workplace relationships with students</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Interpersonal workplace relationships with parents</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Interpersonal workplace relationships with other DEET personnel</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. DEET policies and practices</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. School policies and practices</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Supervision of your work</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Salary</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Physical working conditions</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Adequacy of administrative support</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Intensity of work</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Length of the working day</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. What is your current overall level of satisfaction?</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Incentives and disincentives for promotion to principal

Using a 5-point scale, please indicate which of the following items would act as a disincentive or an incentive for you to aspire to be a school principal?

1 = strong disincentive  3 = is neither an incentive or disincentive  5 = strong incentive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal factors</th>
<th>Strong disincentive</th>
<th>Strong incentive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>33. Effect on family</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Professional Development opportunities provided</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Self-improvement opportunities provided</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Job security</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Gaining new skills</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Leaving workplace colleagues</td>
<td>1 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
39. Joining principal collegiate group  
40. Offer of increasing responsibilities and autonomy  
41. Location of the school  
42. Level of remuneration  
43. Access to benefits (such as car leasing arrangements)  
44. New challenges provided by the job  

Nature of the work  
45. Control over work schedule  
46. Meaningful, interesting and challenging work  
47. Bonus pay or incentives based on performance  
48. Access to flexible time  
49. Access to decision makers  
50. Autonomy to make decisions  
51. No/less direct teaching role  
52. Support from DEET senior officers  
53. Individual workplace culture  
54. Stress level of the job  
55. Impact of societal problems on the role  
56. Time required by the job  
57. Accountability requirements  
58. Demands of parents and/or community  
59. Adequacy of school budget  
60. Community attitudes towards principals  

Outcomes of the work  
61. Opportunity to impact on the learning environment  
62. Opportunity to motivate others  
63. Opportunity to shape an educational vision  

64. Other – Describe  

Succession Planning  
During your career to date you may have had the support and assistance of several people.  

65. Using a tick, indicate from the following list individuals who have helped in your career progress to date.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principal</th>
<th>01</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Principal</td>
<td>02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leading Teacher</td>
<td>03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional/Central person</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleague</td>
<td>06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siblings</td>
<td>08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend/s</td>
<td>09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-school sponsor</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University lecturer</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other – Describe</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Succession Planning continued.
Some people develop a long-term one-to-one relationship with a mentor. This is a more senior (not necessarily older) educational leader who has been able to support you to learn things more quickly, earlier or that you otherwise would not have learnt. The mentor relationship might have developed as part of a formal program or informally through personal or professional contacts.

66. Have you had access to a mentor during your career?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

67. If yes, was this a formal or informal mentoring relationship?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

68. Have you worked in a school that had a succession planning process?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

69. If yes, was this a formal or informal succession planning program?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

70. If yes, please rank the impact that the succession planning process had on your career using the scale provided from 1 (low) to 5 (high).

Impact of the succession planning process on my career 1 2 3 4 5
71. Have you participated in any leadership programs?

Yes  ●  1
No   ●  2

72. If yes, using a tick, please indicate leadership programs in which you have participated and their impact on your career using the scale provided from 1 (low) to 5 (high).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Provider</th>
<th>Impact low</th>
<th>Impact high</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School based leadership program</td>
<td>● 1  2  3  4  5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEET leadership program</td>
<td>● 1  2  3  4  5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External provider</td>
<td>● 1  2  3  4  5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other

As a follow-up to this survey a number of teachers, assistant principals and principals will be interviewed. If you are willing to be interviewed please complete the following.

Name

-----------------------------------------------

School

-----------------------------------------------

Address

-----------------------------------------------

-----------------------------------------------

Telephone number

-----------------------------------------------

Email address

-----------------------------------------------

Thank you for your time in taking part and completing the survey.
Appendix C

Written instructions to the focus group assistants

Instructions for assistant facilitator

Thank you for agreeing to assist me at the focus group interviews for succession planning. I have outlined your role in the focus group interviews. I will discuss these aspects with you before each interview. Please ring me if you have any concerns (9682 9501). I have included a copy of the focus group questions for your notice.

Time/date

You have agreed to act as an assistant facilitator for the Succession Planning focus groups. Please arrive at the Frank Tate Room on Level 2 of the Alice Hoy Building University of Melbourne Parkville 3010 one hour before the focus group. We need to ensure that you are familiar with the room, equipment, your role and have time to greet early participants. I expect each focus group discussion to take 60-80 minutes. You will need to allow time following each interview to debrief by discussing themes, issues, key ideas etc with me. I expect that will take a further 30 minutes.

Assistant facilitator role

Interruptions

Control access to the focus group room. Greet those arriving late and direct them to a seat. (I hope that we have no late-comers.)

Audio-equipment

Monitor the recording equipment. Occasionally glance at the tape recorder to ensure that it is recording. Turn the tape over, when appropriate. I am using 90 min tapes which means that they should only need turning once. Attempt to do this as smoothly as possible.

Seating

Sit opposite Kathy Lacey.

Note-taking

Begin by drawing a diagram of the seating arrangement and labeling where each person is sitting. Take note of each contribution. Try to record the name (by initials) of the speaker. If there are two group members with the same name use a code to differentiate between them.

Take field notes throughout the discussion. These notes should be as close to word-for-word as possible. If the tape does not work these notes will be all that we have for analysis.

It is not necessary to record the questions asked by the facilitator. Q1, Q2 etc will provide an indication of the questions.

Try to remember the following points:
Well said quotes  Capture word for word as much of the statement as possible. Listen for sentences or phrases that are particularly enlightening or eloquently express a particular point of view.

Your ideas/comments  When appropriate, add your own written comments or ideas but place these in brackets or keep them separate from participant comments.

Note the non-verbal activity  This might be concerning body language that is not picked up by the written word or the tape recorder.

Participation
Please, do not participate in the discussion unless invited by the facilitator, Kathy Lacey. Control your non-verbal actions no matter how strongly you feel about an issue or comment.

Summary
At the end of the session you will be asked to add any comments or questions and then provide a brief summary. Your comments should summarise the key points raised by the discussion and points that you believe still require clarification. This should last no longer than 3 minutes.

Debrief
Allow time following the focus group interview to participate in a debriefing with the facilitator. Discuss impressions, key ideas, insights presented, how this group compared to another group (when appropriate).

Feedback on analysis
Read and provide feedback on the analysis of the interview.
Focus group questions

Introduction
Self and Assistant
Appreciation for participation
Expected finish time

Opening questions
1. I’d like each person to answer the first question so we’ll start with (name) and go around the circle …If you not working in education, what would you like to be?

Transition questions
2. Link back to opening comments made by participants. What factors impacted on your career decision making over the years?
3. Follow-up with You have given some ideas about personal factors “Can you think of any professional factors?” (if appropriate)
Now I want to concentrate on the principal role.
4. Can you sum up in two words what it would be/is like to be a principal? Try to think of both positives and negatives.
5. Imagine that DEET is going to redesign all the jobs in a school starting with the principal. Money and structures are not issues. Imagine that you have been asked help redesign the principal’s job. What do you think would be the most important aspects of the role?
6. How do you think this matches with what principals currently do?

Key questions
7. We know that there has been a significant drop in the number of people applying for principal jobs. Can you think of any reasons why this is happening?
8. Forgetting about a lack of resources and bureaucratic constraints, think about what might encourage you/others to apply for principal positions?

Final questions
9. Of all the factors discussed, which one would be/is most important to you?
10. Summary by assistant.
11. Is that an accurate summary?
12. Overview of purpose of research and access to data.
13. Have I missed anything?

Conclusion
Thank you
What happens next
Appendix D

Focus group Schedule

Introduction
Self
Assistant
Appreciation for participation
Expected finish time

Opening questions
1. I’d like each person to answer the first question so we’ll start with (name) and go around the circle …what is your current career aspirations?

Transition questions
2. Link back to opening comments made by participants. What factors impacted on your career decision making over the years?
3. Follow-up with You have given some ideas about personal factors “Can you think of any professional factors?” (if appropriate)

Now I want to concentrate on the principal role.
4. Can you sum up in two words what it would be/is like to be a principal? Try to think of both positives and negatives.
5. Imagine that DEET is going to redesign all the jobs in a school starting with the principal. Money and structures are not issues. Imagine that you have been asked help redesign the principal’s job. What do you think would be the most important aspects of the role?
6. How do you think this matches with what principals currently do?

Key questions
7. We know that there has been a significant drop in the number of people applying for principal jobs. Can you think of any reasons why this is happening?
8. What would encourage you to apply?

Final questions
9. Of all the factors discussed, which one is most important to you?
10. Summary by assistant.
11. Is that an accurate summary?
12. Overview of purpose of research and access to data.
13. Have I missed anything?

Conclusion
Thank you
What happens next
## Appendix E
### Sample of Focus Group analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excel Row</th>
<th>Position on Tape</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>97</td>
<td>Elizabeth</td>
<td>Now it is totally different, we are getting funding things are easier, on-going positions, contract were hell. Being a principal and having to decide who is in excess. I wouldn’t do that. I could not face people and say sorry, you might be an excellent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>98</td>
<td>6 Dianna</td>
<td>I tend to think that if you have the aspiration you will do it no matter what. If you have the aspiration you will get into it. If the money is right you will get into it. I think that the biggest pull on me is am I going to start a family, when am I g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>99</td>
<td>15 Anna</td>
<td>You need to expect change. When you go into a job you expect to have to deal with change. I don’t think that I am going to stop you.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>19 Dianna</td>
<td>I also agree that the money - I also think that if you are going to go for that position why not go for it in the corporate world and get more money.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>20 Kylee</td>
<td>It just comes back to having some sort of influence in education and on kids. I find that a difficult one to just leave. Even though I did something outside the education degree in professional writing, I just can’t walk away from it. There is somethin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102</td>
<td>27 KL</td>
<td>What is the most important factor that would encourage young people to move into principal class leaders:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>103</td>
<td>32 Anna</td>
<td>Recognition. I think that a lot of the public do think that what you take on is not as important as in the corporate world. Better recognition would be a huge factor.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>104</td>
<td>37 Dianna</td>
<td>Support</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>105</td>
<td>KL</td>
<td>From?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>106</td>
<td>Dianna</td>
<td>From the department in the form of resources and definitely your income.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>107</td>
<td>40 Elizabeth</td>
<td>I’d like less hoop jumping. If I could be doing what I’m doing for another ten years before I’m taken seriously. I already get comments now like I’m young I’m doing what I’m doing. I don’t want that I want to be recognised that they you are doing a rea</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>108</td>
<td></td>
<td>Exactly, nodding from others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109</td>
<td>Erin</td>
<td>That’s what it feels like, it is an age hierarchy now.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110</td>
<td>45 Elizabeth</td>
<td>I have been told that I am 5 years ahead of my time.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111</td>
<td>Dianna</td>
<td>Like I said in three to five years I want to be in an APs position</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>112</td>
<td>47 Anna</td>
<td>You said that and it shocked me. Because I think that is something you do later on.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>113</td>
<td>Dianna</td>
<td>But the whole idea of signing up for another ten years before you get that opportunity. I am going to be well gone in ten years time if I don’t get that opportunity soon. I just won’t stick around.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Appendices

Page 269
The trouble is so are a lot of other teachers, because it is such an old group of teachers. They are getting ready to retire, so who is going to do it? It is going to be your job.

Yes but that is still another five years down the track so are you going to jump hoops for another five years?

That is one thing that encourages me actually, everyone is retiring but what they are doing that salary thing where they come back in the same role. So is there going be a position? It makes me nervous.
Author/s: LACEY, KATHRYN ANNE

Title: Factors that impact on principal-class leadership aspirations

Date: 2002-12


Publication Status: Unpublished

Persistent Link: http://hdl.handle.net/11343/38889

File Description: Factors that impact on principal-class leadership aspirations

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